THE CLINICAL SUPERVISION CONFERENCE:

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF

THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

(Department of Administrative, Adult and Higher Education)

We accept this thesis as conforming

to the required standard

The UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

April 1982

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ABSTRACT

The literature characterizes current supervision practices as
involving little reflection. Clinical supervision was proposed to pro-
vide opportunities for conceptual-analytical thought. Despite its
apparent popularity, empirical knowledge of the process is inadequate.
Writers nevertheless expound the approach's adaptability to supervisee
needs. Yet we know little about how flexible clinical supervisors are
in their attempts to influence supervisees towards instructional
improvement.

The purpose of the study was to explore the clinical supervision
relationship in the naturalistic setting of the conference. Predicated
on a view of "supervision as teaching" (Goldhammer et al., 1980), the
investigation focussed on conference communication, on the structural
variations in participants' dialogue and interactive thoughts and on the
possible interrelationships between overt and covert participant
behaviour.

Four volunteer supervisors completed two clinical cycles with
their respective supervisees. The videotaped conferences were replayed
to dyad participants at separate times to stimulate recall of their
interactive thoughts. Preactive data were also gathered to aid the
examination of overt and covert conference behaviour.

Preliminary data analysis found differences in performance to
be more readily explainable by the "structural variations" in participants'
dialogue and thoughts. These variations occurred as participants differ-
entiated and integrated events experienced in the conference and served

as indicators of conceptual functioning. The current link in research on teaching between conceptual level and teacher flexibility suggested a potential connection between clinical supervision participants' conference behaviour and their conceptual development.

The study's conceptual framework integrated Harvey et al.'s (1961) levels of conceptual development with Wallen's (1972) levels of constructive openness, influence processes, and supervisee roles, adding one further influence process and one further supervisee role to cause a re-integration of the relationships between supervisor influence and supervisee behaviour posited by Wallen.

Transcripts of conference dialogue and participants' thoughts were then analysed on two levels. At a micro-level, transcripts were coded using a structural variations analysis system developed by the researcher. A case study approach was used to demonstrate how different levels of conceptual functioning affected the supervisory relationship. Two supervisors functioned more abstractly, their verbal behaviour characterized by high levels of constructive openness. The other two functioned more concretely, espousing lower levels of constructive openness. Supervisee growth occurred only in dyads involving supervisors fostering high constructive openness and functioning conceptually in a more abstract fashion. These supervisors, whilst "flexing" to the "pull" of supervisee initiative, also appeared to influence supervisees positively. A lowering of supervisee conceptual functioning occurred in dyads involving more concrete functioning supervisors who appeared to force supervisees to "flex" in the direction of supervisory "pull". Associations between preactive and interactive data were found, suggesting a potential means of diagnostic assessment for would-be supervisors.

At a macro-level, general patterns of thought and behaviour associating with more abstract and more concrete functioning supervisors were derived. More abstract functioning supervisors used questioning strategies and exploration procedures that facilitated supervisee lesson appraisal. Their supervisees reported deriving insights and expressed appreciation of the intervention's effectiveness. More concrete functioning supervisors emphasized the giving of feedback over the encouragement of collaborative exploration of instruction. Their supervisees reported experiencing confusion and role discomfort, and were indifferent to the usefulness of clinical supervision.

The study's findings would imply that clinical supervision requires supervisors capable of functioning at high conceptual levels. Research indicates, however, that most practitioners function at low levels. This study then suggests potential areas of development that could be incorporated into the pre-service and in-service education of clinical supervisors.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to acknowledge my immense debt and gratitude to the members of my examining committee:

- Dr. Ian E. Housego, research supervisor, whose perceptive criticism, insight and encouragement complemented the practical and authentic modelling of clinical supervision that had first roused my curiosity, then fired my research interest, and ultimately provided a living exhibit of the process I was attempting to explore.

- Dr. J. Graham T. Kelsey, whose penetrating questions and analyses helped me to focus the issues in the study more concisely and contributed a great deal to the dissertation's clarity and flow.

- Dr. Daniel J. Brown, whose knowledge of research design and methodology enabled me to grasp the tentativeness of the study's findings and the significance of the implications for clinical supervision practice.

- Dr. P. James Gaskell and Dr. Jerry Wiggins who, as university examiners, displayed a sound grasp of a very lengthy dissertation that evidenced itself in pertinent, searching questioning.

- Dr. D.A. MacKay, external examiner, who brought the wealth of his phenomenal knowledge and experience in the area of research on teaching and instructional supervision to bear on this ambitious study and was most supportive in doing so.

I also wish to acknowledge the unfailing support extended to me by Dr. Lesley E. Haley, Chair of the Department of Education, Dalhousie University, who never doubted my ability to finish this project whilst carrying my full load as a university professor.

And finally my wife, Maureen, and Stephen and Abigail, our children. What can a person say when the love and support he is given far surpasses anything he could ever have imagined possible.

To Stephen and Abigail: may they quickly forget the orphan-like existence they pursued for the final eight months and rest contently in the knowledge that "Daddy's dissertation is really done and Mommy won't be typing any more".

To Maureen, "mein Schatzel", without whose love and tangible support I could not have finished this project: whilst fulfilling the roles of wife, mother, homemaker, and university student, she indomitably found the time and energy to listen sympathetically, to discuss the data interpretation and ultimately to type the numerous drafts and the final examination and library copies of the dissertation. Truly we did it together and I want to record my deep gratitude to her drive, her determination and her willing and sacrificial sharing of a task that took on mammoth proportions.

Chapter 1

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Background to the Study

Clinical supervision has been used successfully for many years in the training of psychotherapists. Dissatisfaction over educational supervision practices prior to the 1950's caused a group of educators at Harvard to adopt the clinical model as an alternative approach to instructional supervision. This decision was based not on empirical research but on their understanding of practice and the conviction that it was "a method which meets the criterion of best existing practice" (Cogan, 1961, p. 12). Since that time, many writers[1] have attempted to articulate the ideas contained in the clinical conception and suggest ways in which the approach could be put into practice. Some twenty years later, however, empirical support is still lacking. Some of the research on clinical supervision in education (Eaker, 1972; Lovell et al., 1976; Arbucci, 1978) relies heavily on perceptual data, while other studies (Coffey, 1967; Garman, 1971; B.J. Kerr, 1976; Skrak, 1973; Shuma, 1973; Krajewski, 1976a; Turner, 1976; Reavis, 1977) attempt to test the effectiveness of clinical supervision in improving classroom instruction. The remaining studies (Zonca, 1972; Mershon, 1972; Pierce, 1975; Cook,

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[1]Blumberg, 1974; Cogan, 1958, 1961, 1968, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1976; Champagne and Hogan, 1977; Flanders, 1976; Goldhammer, 1969; Goldhammer et al., 1980; Housego, 1973; Krajewski, 1976(b); Krey et al., 1977; MacKay, 1971; McCleary, 1976; McGee and Eaker, 1977; Mosher and Purpel, 1972; Reavis, 1976; Sergiovanni, 1975, 1976, 1977; Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979.

1976; T.G. Kerr, 1976; Squires, 1978) are largely exploratory, seeking

to understand the roles and relationships that emerge in the practice of

clinical supervision. Because of the possibility of the Hawthorne effect

being associated with some of the data-gathering devices used in studies

to test the effectiveness of the clinical approach (Reavis, 1978), any

differences in results must be interpreted with care. As a consequence,

Sullivan (1980, pp. 14-15) asserts that "research on in-class [clinical]

supervision as a specific area is ... inadequate".

During this period, there was an upsurge in research on teaching.

Excellent reviews (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; Good and Power, 1976;

Rosenshine, 1976; Good and Brophy, 1978; Brophy, 1979; Good, 1979;

Peterson and Walberg, 1979; Hogben, 1980) record the recent findings.

One aspect of this proliferation of research has been the longitudinal

attempt of Joyce and his colleagues to address the question of what to do

about students who are made uncomfortable by new teaching behaviours.

This deliberation has led to the classification of alternative models of

teaching (Joyce and Weil, 1980) and to the research-based premise that

effective teaching involves searching for the amount of structure that a

student needs and selecting models of teaching closest to the needed

degree (Joyce, 1980, p. 24). In other words, flexibility and adaptability,

which Joyce (1980) associates with levels of conceptual development and

complexity, have come to be regarded as significant criteria of teaching

effectiveness. In order to understand how teachers translate research-

derived knowledge of teacher effects into the practical realities of

classrooms, i.e., how flexible teachers are in their use of acquired

technical knowledge, a different orientation in research on teaching has

emerged. This trend is towards the study of teacher thinking and

decision-making in both the preactive and interactive phases of teaching.

It appears to be part of a general renewal of interest in the analysis

of the mediating process of thought as it influences and affects overt

behaviour.

> If the results of such research [on teaching] are to be applied
> by individual teachers in their classroom, however, adaptations must
> be made. Each class consists of a unique combination of person-
> alities, constraints, and opportunities. Behavior that is sensible
> and effective in one setting may be inappropriate in a second setting,
> and it is the individual teacher who decides what is appropriate and
> defines the teaching situation. And so, if research is to be put
> into practice--if general rules are to be applied to particular
> situations--then we must know more about how teachers exercise judg-
> ment, make decisions, define appropriateness, and express their
> thoughts in their actions (Clark and Yinger, 1979, pp. 231-232).

The cognitive information-processing approach to research on teaching--

concerned with how teachers gather, organize, interpret, and evaluate

information--developed as a logical outgrowth of the behavioural

approaches that have contributed so much to knowledge of teaching effect-

iveness. Using this approach, Marland (1977) conducted in Alberta a

study of teachers' interactive thoughts. It was an investigation of the

conscious thoughts and feelings of six teachers-in-action designed to

redress the imbalance caused by the observational bias in classroom

studies and to add new dimensions to the meaning and understanding of

teaching. He saw the light that his study cast on the relationship

between the cognitive functioning of teachers and the demands of their

task environments as helping to "close the gap between educational theory

and practice" (1977, p. 5). This tentative claim was based on the

recognition that "teacher cognitions are an important mediating link

between curriculum intent and classroom practice, between antecedent and

consequential events in the classrooms, or between what is, at one moment

in the classroom, and what comes next" (1977, p. 3).

What is discernible in recent research on teaching could become an appropriate trend in research into clinical supervision. It would seem that what goes on in the heads of clinical supervision participants during conference interaction may provide the link between the conceptual model and practice of clinical supervision. An investigation into how clinical supervision participants construct the reality of this approach in practice could provide the opportunity to discover "grounded theory which is derived from data and then illustrated by characteristic examples of data" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p. 5).

Purposes of the Study

The basic purpose of the study was to explore the clinical supervision relationship in the naturalistic setting of the pre- and post-conference.

The specific purposes of the study were:

1. to investigate the dialogue and interactive thought processes of clinical supervision participants in terms of the content and structural variations, i.e., the level of conceptual functioning.

2. to develop and assess techniques for rating clinical supervision participants' preactive and interactive verbal communication behaviour in terms of levels of constructive openness.

3. to observe and understand the dynamic interrelationships present in the conference between participants' overt communication behaviours and covert cognitive processes.

THE PROBLEM

The difficulty of experimentally proving the effectiveness of clinical supervision in education is largely attributable to the fact that there is insufficient empirical knowledge about the clinical app- roach. If, as Mosher and Purpel maintained in 1972, "the literature is devoid of research" (p. 60), Sullivan (1980) confirms that this is still the case. Consequently, one of the basic components of the clinical model--the supervisory relationship--has yet to be operationalized in a controlled experimental design where its effects could be at least part- ially assessed. Yet Goldhammer (1969) asserts that "it is the relation- ship that teaches" (p. 365) and that the conference interaction between supervisor and supervisee is critical to the effectiveness of supervisory intervention. Indeed, Preston (1975), in examining the effects of the traditional student-teaching supervision relationship on pupil classroom achievement, tentatively concludes that the quality of the relationship, which he found to be dependent upon the cooperating-teacher's perceptions of the student teacher and the level of self-confidence characteristic of the student teacher, may be associated with pupil learning gains. Increased demand for clinical supervision to come out of the womb and "be fully born to the world of public education" (Krajewski, 1977, p. 2), and the role played by universities in preparing supervisors and teachers alike for such an advent, require a clearer understanding of the educative influence exercised by the interpersonal relationship in the clinical approach to instructional improvement.

Mosher and Purpel (1972) describe the clinical supervisor as "a teacher of teachers, concerned with the content, method, and effects of

classroom teaching" (p. 64). They further emphasize the need for clinical supervision to espouse a rigorous analysis of teaching. Consequently, research-derived knowledge about effective classroom practices can provide a useful framework for supervisor-supervisee conference discussion (Grimmett, 1981a). More important, however, is the possibility that recent teaching effectiveness findings can apply equally to clinical supervisors as they do to classroom teachers. Yet we know very little about how flexible and adaptable clinical supervisors are to the needs of the teachers with whom they interact.

Blumberg (1974, pp. 167-168) attempts to address this issue by developing a conception of the supervisor as "interpersonal diagnostician" involved in reciprocity. Interpersonal diagnostician refers to the sensing of teacher need for and tolerance of closeness, support, and guidance during supervision. It includes the supervisor's adaptation of his roles as facilitator, counsellor, and evaluator to fulfil teacher needs for professional maturation in and mastery of the skills they perceive as contributing to the creation of more effective learning experiences. Yet we know so little about how supervisors render diagnostic judgments and how they select from among alternative teaching behaviours. It would appear then that no previous research in clinical supervision has investigated how flexible supervisors are in diagnosing and influencing the acquisition of teaching behaviour alternatives that meet the personal, professional, and situational needs of supervisees.

Research Questions

The study is primarily concerned with one research question which encompasses the purposes previously stated. The question is:

How do clinical supervision participants relate to each other during the conference?

Sub-questions generated from the main research question are:

1. What is the nature of the verbal communication during conference interaction?

2. What is the nature of the information processing approach used by clinical supervision participants during conference interaction?

   2.1 What comprises the substantive content of participants' thoughts and dialogue before, during, and after critical incidents of conference interaction?

   2.2 What is the nature of the structural variations in each participant's dialogue and interactive thought processes in terms of conceptual functioning level during conference interaction?

   2.3 What patterns of thought and behaviour generally associate with different levels of conceptual functioning in clinical supervision participants?

3. What interrelationships are present between the overt verbal behaviours and covert thought processes of supervisors and supervisees?

   3.1 What is the relationship between participants' preactive thinking about constructive openness and their interactive level of verbal communication?

   3.2 What is the relationship between supervisor interactive level of conceptual functioning and supervisor interactive level of constructive openness?

3.3 What is the relationship between supervisor interactive

level of constructive openness and supervisee level of ·

conceptual functioning and role behaviour?

3.4 What is the relationship between participants' preactive

thinking about constructive openness and their inter-

active level of conceptual functioning?

3.5 What is the relationship between supervisee role behaviour

and supervisor interactive thought processes?

Brief Outline of the Study

This study was primarily concerned with supervisor-supervisee

interaction in the clinical conference. It involved the collection, by

stimulated recall, of supervision participants' accounts of their

conscious thoughts during the pre- and post-conferences of the clinical

cycle. Four supervisors, all previously exposed to the clinical approach,

and their respective supervisees participated in the project. Each super-

visor completed two cycles of the clinical model. Two pre-conferences

and two post-conferences were videotaped and subsequently shown to both

participants at separate times to stimulate their recall of the thoughts

they were having during conference interaction. The participants' verbal

articulation of thoughts was recorded on audiotape and these introspective

recordings, together with the videotapes of the conferences, represent

the significant data in this study.

Prior to the two month period of conference data gathering, the

following data were collected: supervision participants completed a

Preactive Behaviour Instrument, rating how they think they would behave

verbally in the conference. The rating indicates, before the conference,

the level of constructive openness at which clinical supervision

participants' think they will subsequently function. In addition, super-

visees completed a brief questionnaire designed to characterize the role

they had adopted in previous supervisory intervention. These additional

data, together with the analysis of the verbal behaviour exhibited in the

videotaped conferences, assisted in the analysis and interpretation of

the transcripts of clinical supervision participants' conference dilaogue

and interactive thoughts.

<div align="center">SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY</div>

What do we know empirically about the process called clinical

supervision? What do we know about what clinical supervisors actually

do? More intriguingly, what do we know about their thought processes and

communication behaviours while engaging in conference activities? Why is

there, as Blumberg (1974) and Mosher and Purpel (1972) suggest, a gap

between the theoretical knowledge of helping relationships and the practice

of supervisory behaviour, leading them to question the ultimate product-

ivity of supervision?

It would appear that, in many cases, supervisory practice is

deemed less than satisfactory. Teachers criticize supervisors for being

out of touch with the classroom, for communicating procedural trivia,

and for engaging in a democratic game which makes the whole process

artificial (Blumberg, 1974, pp. 16-18). Principals in ten British

Columbia school districts reported supervision-related topics as top

priorities for learning in a study that analysed their professional

development needs (Storey, 1978, pp. 92-93). And educators in administ-

rator preparation programmes would like to provide principals and

supervisors with research-verified knowledge and skills that would stand

the test of practice (Hills, 1975, p. 1). Yet substantive knowledge about clinical supervision appears to be scarce. Most of the questions likely to be asked by teachers, supervisors, and university-level educators have yet to be studied, and much of the current research into clinical supervision does not provide adequate insights or conclusive principles. Much of what has been written in the area of instructional supervision rests, as Pohland points out (1976, p. 9), not on research findings but on personal conviction and experience.

Given the sparseness of current empirical knowledge about clinical supervision, there would appear to be a need for exploratory studies which describe and analyse the process. The clinical model consistently emphasizes the supervisory relationship as a key to effective intervention. The pre- and post-conference phases of the clinical cycle provide opportunities for the researcher, through an investigation of conscious thoughts, feelings and behaviours experienced during the interaction, to begin to penetrate beyond the more immediate apprehensions of the interpersonal relationship into the deep structures of that interaction where both participants experience the conference experience and ultimately constitute its meaning and significance for the improvement of instruction.

An understanding of how supervision participants conceptually construct the reality of the clinical approach in practice would seem to be a necessary prerequisite to developing a practical theory that would serve to improve the provision, maintenance, and utilization of high quality supervisory personnel. For example, clinical supervisors may possess a broad range of relevant interpersonal and analytical skills but, if they are unable to "read" situations in which particular skills are

required or cannot select the situationally appropriate skills, super-
visory intervention may be less than effective. Similarly, intelligent
application of interpersonal communication skills depends largely upon
accurate supervisor perceptions of supervisee behaviour, and vice-versa,
and upon warranted judgments and interpretations of its meaning. Such
perceptions, then, are crucial to the outcome of supervisory intervention.
It may indeed be argued that, in many instances, supervisees' willingness
to experiment with different teaching behaviours ultimately depends upon
the verbal and nonverbal behaviour of supervisors which essentially
emanates from their covert cognitive processes.

This study, then, could provide new understandings of and insights
into the conference process which may eventually contribute towards the
development of a practical theory of clinical supervision. This knowledge,
shared with practitioners through in-service education, could enable
supervision participants to progress beyond a "democratic game" and could
satisfy the perceived need of principals for professional development in
supervision-related areas. In addition, it could expand the existing body
of research-verified knowledge and skills in a way that reinforces the
propensity of administrator/supervisor preparation programmes towards the
development of conceptual-analytical skills but also critiques the nature
of that propensity.

The study may also have a further significance for the clinical
model. Essentially, the clinical approach presupposes that supervisors
can approach the observation and analysis of teaching inductively i.e.,
that supervisor appraisal of preactive and interactive teaching can be
withheld until evidence has been collected. In other words, clinical
supervisors can be trained to come to a judgment of instructional

performance <u>post</u> <u>facto</u>, without being predisposed towards their own

particular mesh of preferences in teaching behaviours. This study may

confirm this inductive principle; or it may demonstrate, as Elstein et

al. (1972, 1979) found in their work with physicians, that supervisors

have a propensity to diagnose deductively. Elstein et al. (1972, 1979)

discovered, through an analysis of physician thought processes, that most

medical practitioners select from among four or five hypotheses, acquired

from experience and thoroughly internalized, when making a diagnosis

about a patient's illness. It may be possible that clinical supervisors

function in a similarly deductive fashion, i.e., they carry around in

their heads a limited number of teaching effectiveness profiles which

tacitly structure their observation and analysis of teaching. In other

words, they unwittingly look for certain behaviours in classroom

instruction and render judgments, in their thoughts at least, which are

more representative of these tacitly held profiles than of what was

discussed and agreed upon during the pre-conference with the supervisee.

Although much has been written in the literature about the

interpersonal effects of overt behaviours practiced in the supervisory

relationship, little mention has been made of conceiving of supervision

participant thought processes as the critical antecedents of such

behaviours. The focus in previous research has been on the expressive

behaviour system of supervisors with scant reference to their cognitive

map. Consequently, the question of the nature of the information that

supervision participants process during the pre- and post-conference of

the clinical cycle has not been the subject of any research study to

date. Nor has any project attempted to determine the levels of con-

ceptual development at which clinical supervision participants function

when processing information interactively and expressing overt verbal and nonverbal behaviour. This area of inquiry may then be considered to be a potentially rich source of knowledge for improving the quality of supervisory practice and redressing the inadequate empirical knowledge available to supervisor preparation programmes.

DELIMITATIONS

The study will be restricted to a preliminary investigation of the events of the supervisory conference as demonstrated in participant verbal behaviour and as recorded in participant thought processes. The study will further be delimited to an examination of conference dialogue and participant thought processes according to the structural variations that account for different levels of conceptual functioning. No attempt will be made to follow the process tracing approach (see Elstein et al., 1979, p. 11ff.) where the content of participant thoughts would be specifically analysed for the purpose of describing and understanding the nature of the problem-solving and decision-making processes at work in the conference.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Clinical Supervision: a five phase model for instructional supervision, first described by Goldhammer (1969), that combines the analysis of teaching with the helping relationship.

Participants: supervisor and supervisee (teacher).

Pre-conference: the supervisor-supervisee interaction
                                 before observation of classroom
                                 instruction.

Post-conference: the supervisor-supervisee interaction
                                 after observation.

Preactive: a term used to denote behaviours and
                                 thoughts that occur prior to conference
                                 interaction.

Interactive: a term used to denote behaviours and
                                 thoughts that occur during pre- or post-
                                 conference interaction.

Stimulated recall: a branch of introspective methodology in
                                 which videotape recordings of conference
                                 behaviour are used to facilitate part-
                                 icipants' recall of the covert mental
                                 activity which was occurring simultan-
                                 eously with the recorded overt behaviour.

Overt behaviour: observable verbal and nonverbal comm-
                                 unication.

Covert behaviour: thoughts elicited by stimulated recall.

Levels of constructive   the degree of participant predisposition
   openness: towards freeing communication behaviours.

Levels of conceptual   the current, but dynamic, degree of

  functioning: participant predisposition towards

                              abstractness and complexity of thought.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

In Chapter 1 the problem and overall purpose of the study have
been presented in the context of a brief, supporting background of liter-
ature. Three sub-questions derived from the main research question, have
been delineated. The significance and delimitations of the study have
been described and certain terms defined.

Chapter 2 comprises a review of literature and related research
pertaining to clinical supervision and conceptual development. The
desirability of the clinical approach is examined and current literature
and research relating to the rationale, purposes, and process of the model
is reviewed. The theoretical underpinnings of conceptual development,
together with teaching-learning related research, are outlined to sub-
stantiate the need to explore how supervision participants conceptually
construct the reality of the clinical approach in practice.

Chapter 3 provides a conceptual framework for the study. Four
conceptual levels and their respective supervision conditions are
described. Levels of constructive openness in conference verbal behaviour
are discussed in terms of their respective influence process. Supervisee
developmental growth is delineated in terms of conference role behaviour
and conceptual level. Potential relationships are proposed between super-
vision conditions and supervisor constructive openness and between
supervisor influence and supervisee conceptual level.

Chapter 4 describes the methods of investigation and research

procedures applied. The exploratory nature of the study design, together with its assumptions and limitations are discussed. The data sources and the technique of stimulated recall are also expounded. The various phases in the evolution of the study are outlined and the techniques used to analyse clinical supervision participants' conference dialogue and thought processes are documented.

Chapter 5 presents the data in the form of eight representative case studies. Each case study contains a focus upon critical incidents that occurred during conference interaction. In addition, the data pertaining to conference verbal behaviour is presented in terms of con- structive openness levels.

Chapter 6 comprises the structural variations analysis of participants' dialogue and interactive thoughts in four conferences selected for their representativeness. This micro-level analysis uncovers differences in supervisory performance and supervisee growth that varied according to supervisor conceptual level.

Chapter 7 reports the analysis of the study's data for possible relationships between participants' overt and covert conference behaviour.

Chapter 8 presents a macro-level analysis of the general patterns of behaviour that associate with differing levels of supervisors' con- ceptual functioning. In addition, supervisee dialogue and thoughts indicating appreciation of the interpersonal relationship are reported.

Chapter 9 provides a summary of the study, a discussion of the findings and conclusions, together with the implications and recommend- ations derived from the research.

Chapter 2

THE SUPERVISION OF TEACHING: REVIEW
OF RELATED LITERATURE

This review first examines research which helps us to understand
the background to, and the current practice of the supervision of
teaching. Two main themes emerge from this review which are pursued
through the remainder of the chapter: (1) the importance of the part-
icular kind of supervision known as clinical supervision and (2) the
relevance of work on human conceptual development. The application of
this work to instructional supervision is also discussed.

THE CONTEXT AND PRACTICE OF SUPERVISION

The context in which instructional supervision occurs can be
seen to encourage certain orientations in teachers and supervisors and
to inhibit others. The effects of this are often seen in current super-
vision practice. The following paragraphs amplify each of these two
assertions.

The Context of Supervision

A tentative look at present day practice in both teaching and
supervision suggests that neither teachers nor supervisors engage in
much reflection about their approach to professional activities. Four
important studies not only confirm this impression but help to show why
it should be so.

Jackson's (1968) Life in Classrooms was one of the first
attempts of its kind to disregard any particular theory as a basis for

looking at classroom life. Rather than adopting a pre-conceived set of

constructs as to how life in classrooms ought to be, he chose to describe

classroom life as he actually observed it. Essentially, he pinpoints

the trivia of classroom life for both teachers and students. His

research shows how many of the day-to-day proceedings within the class-

room are mandatory, routinized, repetitive and boring. Teachers are

mostly preoccupied with immediate events and needs and have little time

or inclination for long-range thinking and analysing; they are caught up

in "a here-and-now urgency and a spontaneous quality" (Jackson, 1968,

p. 119). It is this factor that leads Jackson to conclude that "as

typically conducted, teaching is an opportunistic process" (1968, p.166).

Lortie's (1975) sociological study of the teaching occupation,

Schoolteacher, reinforces the theme of immediacy. He sees the system

of career rewards in teaching breeding a presentist orientation in

teachers. Since there are few stages to the classroom teacher's career,

and therefore few prospects of promotion within the classroom, the

primary rewards sought by teachers are psychic, found in the immediacy

of classroom encounters. Consequently, long-term benefits are often

sacrificed for short-term effectiveness, making presentism a very real

orientation for the classroom teacher. The following excerpt summarizes

Lortie's findings:

> The ways teachers define their tasks and the feelings they
> attach to them are largely congruent with the orientations induced
> by recruitment, socialization, and career rewards. Approaching the
> ethos [of teachers] from two different perspectives, we find the
> same themes. Conservatism, individualism and presentism are
> significant components in the ethos of American classroom teachers
> (1975, p. 212).

Lortie also found that teachers are prone to individualism and conserv-

atism. The impact of socialization into teaching, he posits, is

individualism, brought about by easy entry into the occupation and the
lack of technical knowledge for dealing with the problems that daily
confront the teacher. Patterns of teacher recruitment, Lortie concludes,
perpetuate an occupational conservatism because they favour attracting
women, young persons already disposed to schools as they know them, and
persons who have only marginal interest in teaching but chose it because
of its compatibility with other interests. As a consequence, "the ways
of teachers are deeply rooted in traditional patterns of thought and
practice" (1975, p. 2).

Wolcott's (1973) ethnographic description of the administrator
role, The Man in the Principal's Office, demonstrates that principals
are equally prone to dealing with the problems and pressures of the
immediate moment. Wolcott (1973, p. 316) notes that the principal's
behaviour "seemed to be guided by an unwritten rule that is at once the
'raison d'être' for the role of the elementary school principal and the
perfect obstacle to ever achieving a radical change in that role:
every problem is important." Wolcott's description of the principalship
portrays the school adminstrator as a petty practitioner immersed in
the trivia that comprise the daily life of schools; he is constantly
responding to "one emergency after another ... like an off-duty
fireman" (1973, p. 314), resolving minor conflicts, adjusting to
internal and external forces, continually buffeted by immediate problems,
and lacking any cogent conception of long-range plans or goals.

School superintendents and executive officers are no more
fortunate than administrators and supervisors in other institutions in
finding time to examine the nature of their work and the direction they
think it should take. Mintzberg (1973) contends that, if managers are

to become more effective, they must recognize what their job really
involves and then use the resources at hand appropriately. Mintzberg
found that the job of executive officers is often characterized by
quantity and pace; managers tended to adopt an open-ended workload at
an unrelenting pace. Further, the patterns of job activity tended to
be brief and fragmented; managers displayed a preference for brevity and
fragmented activity which lent itself to superficiality and lack of
thought. In the relationship between action and reflection, he found
that managers demonstrated a clear preference for live action. He
concludes:

> The pressure of the job does not encourage the development of
> a planner, but an adaptive information manipulator who works in a
> stimulus-response environment and who favours live action
> (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 52).

In the research cited, there are two distinct points of similar-
ity. First, the research of Jackson (1968), Wolcott (1973), Mintzberg
(1973), and, to a lesser extent, Lortie (1975), attempts to move away
from a theoretically based, deductive approach to one that describes
and analyses the situation and phenomena under study as they actually
appear to be. The researchers were less interested in exploring the
discrepancy between what is and what ought to be than they were in
developing a study which would yield fresh understandings out of which
a body of theoretical knowledge could eventually be derived. As such,
their inquiry is original and largely exploratory. Second, running
through the studies of all four researchers is the finding that both
classroom teachers and administrators as supervisors are caught up in a
flurry of activity that appears to proceed at an unrelenting pace. This
encourages a strong presentist orientation which causes teachers and
supervisors alike to work in an opportunistic manner. This particular

"modus operandi" leaves little or no time for reflection about the respective roles that teachers and supervisors have to play.

With little time for conceptual analysis and reflection, supervisory practice might be prone to follow traditional patterns which would not encourage supervisors to develop a freeing atmosphere for teachers to exercise initiative. Such a context would seem to influence the nature of current supervision practice.

Current Supervision Practice

Blumberg (1974), in a systematic reporting of four research projects examining supervisory behaviour, confirms that current supervision practice is characterized by traditional patterns. A study by Blumberg and Amidon (1965) attempted to discover whether or not the perceptions of teachers concerning the style of supervisors in supervisory conferences were related to the manner in which teachers viewed certain other dimensions of these conferences, e.g., communicative freedom, amount of learning, overall productivity. Four supervisory styles were identified:

A. High-direct, high-indirect: high emphasis on telling, suggesting, criticizing and asking for information, opinions etc.
B. High-direct, low-indirect: heavy emphasis on telling, little on eliciting information, opinions.
C. Low-direct, high-indirect: little stress on telling, but heavy emphasis on asking and reflecting.
D. Low-direct, low-indirect: a relatively passive supervisory stance, offering little direction, asking few questions. (1965, p. 4).

Blumberg (1968) used these findings related to perceived supervisory styles to hypothesize certain relationships between the perceived styles and the quality of interpersonal relationships that were seen to exist between teachers and supervisors. The findings indicated a positive evaluation by teachers of their supervisory interpersonal relationships

when they perceived either (a) a heavy emphasis on telling and asking, or (b) a low emphasis on telling but a high emphasis on asking. Negative evaluations came when teachers perceived the supervisor as (c) telling but not placing much stress on asking, and (d) neither telling nor asking.

Blumberg and Weber (1968) analysed the relationship between supervisors' styles and their concerns for control, engagement (problem-solving by collaboration), personal consideration, exclusion (problem-solving without collaboration), and evaluation. From this analysis, they derived conclusions relating to the effect of perceived supervisory style upon teacher morale. A ranking of high to low morale scores was related to perceptions of supervisory styles in the following order: low-direct, high-indirect (C); high-direct, high-indirect (A); high-direct, low-indirect (B); and low-direct, low-indirect (D). Whilst noting that it would be presumptuous to assert that the style of the supervisor is the most essential factor in teachers' professional fulfilment, Blumberg (1974, p. 67) cautiously suggests that the supervisor's behaviour is crucial.

Blumberg (1970) reports a study which examined what took place during the supervisory conference. Because his previous research had been based on the perceptions of participants, he recognized the need to pursue a study of supervisory behaviour based on direct observation. As a consequence, Blumberg and Cusick (1970) used Blumberg's (1970) "System for Analysing Supervisor-Teacher Interaction" instrument, and analysed tape recordings of fifty conferences between supervisors and teachers. The findings indicated that supervisors were basically directive in their orientation rather than attempting to establish a

collaborative atmosphere. Supervisors spent forty-five percent of the

conference period talking, and during this phase of the interaction their

verbal behaviour was directive sixty-three percent of the time. Super-

visory personnel engaged in telling four times more frequently than they

did in asking and were seven times more likely to direct teachers than

to ask them about possible alternatives. Blumberg comments:

> Supervisors rarely made statements which could help build a
> healthy climate between themselves and the teachers involved in the
> conferences. There was little encouragement by the supervisor;
> supervisors said little which conveyed any acceptance of feelings.
> When teachers exhibited defensive behavior during the conference,
> supervisors typically ignored this form of reaction (1970, p. 2).

The data from the 1970 study forced Blumberg to conclude that the super-

visory conference is unlikely to be an occasion that produces growth in

the teacher:

> Supervisors behave in ways which are antithetical to our
> accumulated knowledge about helping relationships. They do not
> seem to communicate the desire to understand the teachers with whom
> they work, nor do supervisors strive to develop a collaborative,
> problem-centred relationship with their teachers (1970, p. 3).

The 1970 study not only suggests a strong tendency on the part of super-

visors to control teacher behaviour during the conference but also

indicates that teachers appeared reluctant to ask any kind of question

of the supervisor. Noting that the supervisor expends a good deal of

energy attempting to induce a positive social-emotional climate,

Blumberg (1974, p. 108) poses the question: "Positive social-emotional

climate for what?"--since "only 2½ percent of the supervisor's

behavior is devoted to action." He continues:

> The data gave rise to a number of questions about the nature of
> interaction between supervisors and teachers, about supervisors'
> styles of solving problems, about the productivity of supervision,
> and about the assumptions that underlie it (1974, p. 108).

Blumberg and Cusick's (1970) study demonstrated that supervisors seldom

ask teachers for ideas about action or problem solving, with the result that teachers are not engaged by the supervisor in trying to solve the problems they face in the classroom. The interaction does not appear to be collaborative. The findings of this interaction analysis of the supervisory conference, together with previous studies (Blumberg and Amidon, 1965; Blumberg, 1968; Blumberg and Weber, 1968) led Blumberg "to question the ultimate productivity of interaction between supervisors and teachers" (1974, p. 110). It was on the basis of these research studies that Blumberg (1974) developed his thesis: that supervisors and teachers find themselves in an impasse which he terms "a private cold war" and that the crux of the problem and consequently, the potential solution, is the supervisor-teacher relationship. The cold war has its roots in two problems: first, teachers view supervision as "a waste of time", and second, teachers and supervisors do not trust one another. Blumberg concludes that it is the supervisor-teacher relationship that constitutes the crucial problem in supervision and proposes potential ways of minimizing the conflict. Far too often, the interpersonal transactions of supervisor and teacher are seen as subtle and strategic gamesmanship. Blumberg proposes a change towards a relationship that is characterized by openness and supportiveness, so that a supervisor's encounter with a teacher becomes a matter not of "who will win?" but of "can we solve the problem together?" (1974, p. 3).

One way of answering this question is provided by clinical supervision. The clinical conception is based on a tenet that characterized the 1950s and 1960s--the principle of collaboration. Teachers and supervisors are expected to analyse the teaching-learning situation conjointly, the clinical approach resting "on the conviction that

instruction can only be improved by direct feedback to a teacher on

aspects of his or her teaching that are of concern to that teacher

(rather than items on an evaluation form or items that are pet concerns

of the supervisor only)" (Reavis, 1976, p. 360). Clinical supervision,

however, differs significantly from the thinking of the 1950s and 1960s

in that it proposes a conceptual framework for instructional supervision

(see Goldhammer et al. 1980, Chapters 1 and 3) and places "its emphasis

on analysis rather than inspection" and presents "a model rather than

the smorgasbord of lists, charts, tables and examples which so often

occur in supervision literature" (Sullivan, 1980, p. 6).

CLINICAL SUPERVISION

Clinical supervision is a field-based approach designed to help

teachers improve instruction. It is "supervision up close" (Goldhammer,

1969, p. 54) in the "clinic of the classroom" (Wilhelms in Cogan, 1973,

ix), where teacher and clinical supervisor work together productively

in "colleagueship" bound by the common purpose of enhancing student

learning through improving the teacher's instruction (Cogan, 1973,

p. 68). It represents an approach to supervision that is "basically

analytical and whose principal mode of analysis comprises highly detailed

examination of teaching behavior" (Goldhammer, 1969, p. 368). The

emphasis in clinical supervision has tended away from summative eval-

uation towards the "analysis of teaching materials and practices" based

on the view that "the analysis of teaching can be rigorous and systematic,

that it should be ongoing, that it requires specific analytical skills

and that the professional teacher should be a careful critic of his own

practice" (Mosher and Purpel, 1972, p. 79). The analysis of teaching

therefore constitutes a significant component of the clinical conception

(see Cogan, Chapter 13; Goldhammer, Chapter 4: Mosher and Purpel,

Chapter 5).

The Rationale for and Purpose of
Clinical Supervision

Cogan (1973) defines clinical supervision in the following way:

Clinical supervision is focused upon the improvement of the
teacher's classroom instruction. The principal data of clinical
supervision include records of classroom events: what the teacher
and students do in the classroom during the teaching-learning
process. These data are supplemented by information about the
teacher's and students' perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, and know-
ledge relevant to the instruction. Such information may relate to
states and events occurring prior to, during, and following any
segment of instruction to be analysed. The clinical domain is the
interaction between a specific teacher or team of teachers and
specific students, both as a group and as individuals. Clinical
supervision may, therefore, be defined as the rationale and practice
designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. It takes
its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis
of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor
form the basis of the program, procedure, and strategies designed
to improve the students' learning by improving the teacher's
classroom behavior (p. 9).

Goldhammer et al. (1980) see clinical supervision as:

... that phase of instructional supervision which draws its
data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and
involves face-to-face (and other associated) interaction between
the supervisor and teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviors
and activities for instructional improvement (pp. 19-20).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) describe clinical supervision as

referring to:

... face-to-face encounters with teachers about teaching,
usually in classrooms, with the double-barreled intent of pro-
fessional development and improvement of instruction (p. 305).

MacKay (1971) views clinical supervision as:

... a blend of traditional administrative skills in human
relations, organization, and interpersonal communication, and the
skills of the psychological counsellor who works in the clinical
setting in a counsellor-client relationship (p. 28).

The clinical approach sets out to help teachers to become responsible for their own professional improvement. Krajewski (1976a) suggests that "clinical supervision is the support mechanism which if effected properly should eventually leave the teacher more self-sufficient in implementing curricular changes and better able analytically to improve his or her own teaching behavior" (p. 376). Simon (1977) is equally convinced that the clinical conception enhances professional effectiveness through teacher self-direction:

> Clinical supervision is based on the assumption that enhancing professional effectiveness is contingent upon the integration of thought and action .... The strategy of clinical supervision involves a relationship based on observation of teaching and dedicated to the welfare of the students. The focus of that relationship is on observing teacher strengths and the cultivation of teacher self-direction (p. 580, 582).

Cogan (1973, p. 12) similarly emphasizes the cultivation of the supervisor-teacher relationship, seeing the purpose of clinical supervision as "the development of a professionally responsible teacher who is analytical of his own performance, open to help from others, and withal self-directing" (p. 12). Essentially, clinical supervision makes the assumption that intervention will lead to an improvement of instruction when the supervisor-teacher relationship is a healthy one and where the atmosphere is non-threatening enough for teachers to take risks without fear of failure or recrimination. Reavis (1976) sees the two primary goals of clinical supervision as the supervisor facilitating improved instruction and teacher growth towards self-supervision:

> The emphasis in clinical supervision is on enhancing the professional status of the teacher in the supervisor-teacher relationship. It is the teacher who identifies the focuses of the observation, orients the supervisor to the class and the preceding lessons. The subsequent analysis and strategy, conferences, and even the evaluation stage are guided by the concern to give the teacher the information requested about teaching (p. 361).

Cogan (1976) stresses the primary emphasis accorded in clinical supervision to the establishing of a specific kind of relationship; the reason for it, he argues, derives from the fact that in-class supervision tends to generate high levels of anxiety among many teachers and too much stress defeats the purposes of clinical supervision (p. 15). In his view, the most productive relationship between the teacher and the clinical supervisor is the collegial type (p.16). This is not dissimilar to his 1973 emphasis on colleagueship:

> This relationship between teacher and clinical supervisor is maintained in force as long as they can work together productively as colleagues. It deteriorates significantly or ceases to exist when either assumes an ascendant role or is accorded an ascendant role by the other. This delicate balance in working together as equals does not imply that teacher and supervisor have similar and equal professional competences. On the contrary, they commonly have dissimilar and unequal competences. This heterogeneity is nurtured in their association and constitutes one of its principal strengths. In clinical supervision the interaction of similar competences at equal levels is generally less productive than the interaction of unequal levels of competence and dissimilar competences. Such productive heterogeneity may be observed when the clinical supervisor, highly competent in observation, the analysis of teaching, and the processes connected with the cycle of supervision, works with a teacher who is more competent in knowledge of the curriculum, his students, their learning characteristics and transient and persistent problems, and the school sub-societies to which they belong (Cogan, 1973, p. 68).

The advantage of this type of supervisor-supervisee relationship is that it establishes a freeing atmosphere in which teachers fear neither innovation nor failure. The clinical cycle was the mechanism designed to foster this kind of relationship.

The Clinical Cycle

The dominant pattern that has emerged appears to be the five step process proposed by Goldhammer (1969).

The pre-observation conference. This conference is intended

to provide the framework for the supervisory sequence to follow. As such, the supervisor is oriented to the class, teaching objectives and strategies, and lesson plan by the teacher. Ultimately, supervisor and teacher come to an agreement on their respective operational strategies in the form of a "contract" (Goldhammer, 1969, p. 60), which structures the subsequent observation, analysis, and post-conference phases.

Observation of teaching. The purpose of this phase is to enable the supervisor as a disengaged participant to collect accurate data about the teaching-learning situation. Data can be gathered using a research-based instrument, taking verbatim notes of the lesson's events, or using an instrument which supervisor and teacher design conjointly.

Analysis and strategy. This phase has two general purposes: first, analysis, to make sense of the observation data, to make them intelligible and manageable in light of the pre-conference agreement; second, strategy, to plan for the post-observation conference that is to follow. The analysis consists of discovering any patterns that might characterize the teacher's behaviour. The strategy planning involves a consideration of the supervisee's maturity and experience in determining the nature and timing of the critical feedback to be given.

Post-observation conference. The supervisor implements the strategy, dealing first with items pertaining to the pre-conference agreement and then, with the teacher's consent, introducing comments on patterns not part of the original contract that were identified during the analysis of the classroom data. This phase generally concludes with joint planning for the next lesson where supervisor and

teacher think through how mutually agreed-upon changes can be implemented.

"Post-mortem" analysis of supervisory performance. Either conjointly with the teacher or alone, the supervisor analyses his or her performance in the process and accordingly modifies the intervention strategy in ways that facilitate a more professional and productive supervision experience for both participants.

RESEARCH CONCERNING CLINICAL SUPERVISION

Much has been written about clinical supervision, yet little research has been carried out into the practical operation of the cycle. Harris (1963, p. 86) reports that from 1953 to 1963 an average of thirty-six articles per year was listed under "Supervision and Supervisors" in the Education Index. Most of that which is available does not focus on the actual process or activity of supervision. Harris and Hartgraves (1972), in a more recent review of research into supervision, stress that their search through the literature of the past years for studies dealing with the effectiveness of supervisors in improving instruction "reveals a paucity of reports" (p. 73).

Heald (1969), in the supervision article that appeared in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, cites only five articles that pertain to in-class supervision: Amidon, Kies and Palisi (1966); Bradfield (1959); Columbro (1964); Coody (1967); and Downing (1964). Of these, only Coody and Downing give reports of research; and their studies focus on general supervision conditions as opposed to the specific ones espoused by the clinical approach.

Crosby (1969) studied Educational Leadership 1960-1968 and

found only 60 articles published during that period that concerned

supervision, an average of fewer than seven per year. Few of these

articles actually used research or practical bases, leading her to

conclude that most of the publications had little or no practical value

to the working supervisor (1969, p. 51). Leeper (1970) looked at

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) public-

ations from 1943 to 1971 and found that articles on curriculum,

instruction and media strongly predominated over supervision and pro-

fessionalism.

Denham (1977) draws attention to the neglect of research in

clinical supervision, suggesting that Goldhammer's (1969) identif-

ication of clinical supervision as a discipline in its adolescence now

seems overly optimistic. She goes on to state:

> Since the appearance of Goldhammer's book only two significant
> pieces have been added to the literature of the discipline:
> Cogan's 1973 [sic] Clinical Supervision and a thematic issue of
> the Journal of Research and Development in Education ed. by
> Robert J Krajewski, 1976 [sic], in which all ten articles were
> devoted to the topic ... only a few other articles on aspects of
> clinical supervision have appeared and ... virtually no research
> studies have been conducted in supervision (1977, p. 33).

She supports this contention by reviewing the publications from 1970

onwards in the Review of Educational Research. She finds no articles

which contain "reviews of studies on supervision, improvement of

instruction, or efforts of any kind to help teachers change or improve"

(1977, p. 34). In a search of Contemporary Education she found three

articles, in addition to her own, that had the word supervision in their

titles: Bloom and Seager (1971); Myers (1973); Ohleson (1974). Bloom

and Seager's article concerned only the use of videotape recording in

teacher education, Myers' contribution was about supervision of student

teachers, and Ohleson described a programme for prospective counsellor

educators and guidance programme supervisors (Denham, 1977, p. 34).

Comfort, Bowen and Gansneder (1974) surveyed articles published in

Educational Leadership, Phi Delta Kappan, Today's Education, NASSP

Bulletin, and Harvard Educational Review from 1971 to 1973 and reported

that only two percent of the total publications dealt with supervision.

It is little wonder, therefore, that Krajewski (1976b) made such a

strongly worded plea for input from the members of the American national

organization of supervisors, calling on them to put the 'S' back into

the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The lack

of knowledge about instructional supervision has only been minimally

redressed by the limited research on clinical supervision available.

Such research as has been conducted falls into three categories;

studies based on participants' perceptions, studies designed to test the

effectiveness of the clinical approach, and studies which are explor-

atory. Each of these is described under a separate heading in the

following pages.

Studies Based on Participants' Perceptions

Eaker (1972) surveyed teachers and administrators in Tennessee

in order to determine the extent to which the basic assumptions and

procedures were accepted. His findings were that:

1. Most teachers and administrators agreed with the basic

    assumptions of clinical supervision.

2. Although the teachers tended to agree with the procedure of

    clinical supervision, they agreed more strongly with the

    assumptions than with the specific procedures.

3. Administrators tended to agree more strongly with the

    assumptions and procedures of clinical supervision than did

teachers (p. 3998-A).

Although Eaker's (1972) study contributes to our knowledge about the acceptability of the clinical model, it merely measures participants' reactions to the researcher's hypothetical description of clinical supervision (as distinct from measuring participants' reactions to actual experience of the approach) which was not contrasted with any other form of supervisory intervention.

A more carefully designed study was carried out by Myers (1975) who surveyed teachers to determine the effects of two supervisory approaches on their attitude towards evaluation. Thirty-two respondents answered questions about teacher self-image and their attitudes towards supervision. Before completing the questionnaire, members of the experimental group attended a two-day workshop session in clinical supervision. At the end of the project more positive attitudes towards evaluation were found in the experimental group than in the control group. Lovell et al. (1976) studied the perceptions of teachers, principals, and supervisors on the practice of supervision in Tennessee to ascertain the effects of clinical supervisor concern over teacher anxiety during classroom observation visits. They found that over eighty percent of the teachers surveyed reported no observations by or conferences with general or special supervisors. Of those conferences and observations reported, over ninety-three percent lasted between one and thirty minutes (p. 106). Only sixty-two percent of the teachers surveyed felt confident during observation. Sixty-nine percent of the teachers surveyed reported that they did not view observation visits as disruptive whereas thirteen percent did (p. 148). The results of this study suggest that, although the assumptions and procedures of clinical

supervision are acceptable to most teachers and administrators, they
are acceptable at the level of logic rather than in actual practice.

Arbucci (1978) attempted to correct for this when studying the
attitudes of teachers towards clinical supervision. Using qualitative
and quantitative analysis of participants' perceptions to examine the
relationship between clinical supervision and teacher attitudes towards
instructional supervision, he found that, while there was a significant
difference between control and experimental groups in the amount of
supervision actually undertaken, no significant difference was found in
attitude scores. Witt (1977) analysed teacher perceptions for a relat-
ionship between supervisory behaviour and leadership style as exhibited
in the conference phase of clinical supervision. Using supervisors
similar in leadership style, he found that teacher perceptions showed
no relationship between supervisor conference behaviour and supervisor
leadership style as measured by the LBDQ instrument.

Tests of the Effectiveness of
Clinical Supervision

Studies based on perceptual data, however, contribute little to
knowledge of what supervisors actually do whilst involved in the clinical
process. Eight researchers have attempted to examine the procedures and
activities of the clinical approach with a view to testing its effect-
iveness in instructional supervision. Coffey (1967) reported on an in-
service training programme where seventeen elementary teachers were
supervised along clinical lines. The specific objective was the
achievement of performance skills acquired during the training programme
and evidenced by a change in the teachers' verbal classroom behaviour as
measured by Flanders' (1960) Categories for Interaction Analysis.

Significant changes in teacher behaviour were found in only four of the ten categories on Flanders' instrument. Although his intent was to study the effect of supervisors on teacher behaviour, Coffey analysed that behaviour only in terms of what changes would take place as a result of a four-week long in-service programme. Essentially, he was more interested in changes in teaching methods to suit new course content in an elementary science programme rather than in analysing supervisory influence upon teacher behaviour during on-going clinical cycles.

Garman (1971) reported a study of five teaching assistants in college level English who received clinical supervision and lectures on teaching methods and five others who received only lectures on teaching methods. Four of the five receiving clinical supervision were able to implement behaviours covered in the lectures, but only one of the five receiving lectures only was able to implement the desired behaviours. Although this study set out to test successfully the clinical approach to educational supervision, it was, on close examination, a demonstration of the usefulness of some supervision as opposed to no supervision at all.

Skrak (1973) attempted to test whether the supplemental use of immediate secondary reinforcement during classroom observations effected a greater change in teacher behaviour than the normal clinical supervision practices. The experiment was conducted in two phases. First, the teacher and supervisor preselected a teaching behaviour. During five subsequent observation cycles, the supervisor produced an oral or visual reinforcer every time the teacher enacted the desired behaviour. The second phase involved a similar selection of teaching behaviour but during the next five observation cycles, no reinforcement was given.

Clinical supervision was practiced during both phases of the project.
Although four of the five teachers participating had successful results
with the secondary reinforcers, Skrak concludes that clinical super-
vision used without reinforcers appears to be just as effective in
bringing about teaching behaviour change.

Shuma (1973) conducted a study of nine teachers, three
receiving clinical supervision and six receiving the more conventional
approach. Significant differences were found in the students' perception
of changes in teacher behaviour within the experimental group. Since,
however, the students in the experimental groups were aware that their
teacher was receiving special supervision, the possibility of the
Hawthorne effect cannot be discounted. Moreover, differences reported
between the respective supervisor-teacher relationships of control and
experimental groups were based on Shuma's own perceptions rather than
on objective, reliable observations of trained judges or empirically
verifiable participant reflections.

B.J. Kerr's (1976) study investigated the use of feedback
within the clinical process to facilitate the diagnosis, implementation,
and evaluation of individualized instruction by four elementary teachers.
The results showed that supervisory feedback was vital in helping three
out of the four teachers participating to evaluate the individualization
they had achieved and also assisted them in selecting teaching
behaviours and strategies for further individualization. Turner (1976)
set out to test the usefulness of the clinical cycle. Using a case
study approach, she, as supervisor, used Goldhammer's (1969) emphasis
on the supervisory relationship. The methodological inadequacies of
this study, however, undermines the credibility of the researcher's

attempt to validate the clinical model.

Krajewski (1976a) reports a study of two groups of twenty teachers. The experimental group received training in Flanders' (1970) Interaction Analysis and received clinical supervision. Lessons were videotaped and analysed using the Flanders' categories. The control group received regular supervisory visits but no videotaping or training in interaction analysis. At the end of the project, the experimental group showed significant gains in indirect verbal patterns (the desired behaviour), positive attitude gains, and better pupil ratings, where the control group did not. Although the researcher concluded that clinical supervision helped to effect such changes, the research design was such that any results could be attributed to the training in the Flanders' system and the use of interaction analysis. These methods can indeed be incorporated into the clinical model; but a study that sets out to test the effectiveness of clinical supervision must have a tighter design than one which measures the results of training versus no training in the Flanders' system.

Reavis (1977) conducted a study to investigate possible differences in verbal exchanges between supervisors and teachers contrasting clinical supervision and traditional supervision. Since previous research had indicated that supervisors were predominantly authoritarian in their relationships with teachers, Reavis hypothesized that clinical supervision would create a more democratic relationship which would be observable in the verbal interaction. Seven supervisors each worked with one teacher in the clinical pattern and one in the traditional pattern. The post-observation conferences were taped and analysed by trained observers using Blumberg's (1970) "A System for Analysing

Supervisor-Teacher Interaction".

The results of this study revealed a significant difference favouring clinical supervision on Blumberg category 3--"[Supervisor] accepts or uses teacher's ideas". Because Blumberg's system was based upon Flanders' instrument and because Flanders found the accepting of student ideas to be a teacher behaviour that related significantly to pupil achievement, Reavis posits that this finding has great importance for supervision. The only other Blumberg category approaching significance was category 6--"[Supervisor] asks for opinions"--which also favoured the clinical approach. From these results Reavis infers that clinical supervision builds "more positive communication between supervisors and teachers" (1977, p. 315), a finding which, upon closer examination, appears tenuous and inconclusive.

The study purports to test clinical supervision by contrasting its effectiveness with traditional patterns of supervision. Since the analysis of the verbal interaction during the conference was based on a system adapted from Flanders' instrument, and since the teachers' instructional performance was also observed, the speculation that the significant finding relating to Blumberg category 3 indicates a positive effect by clinical supervision on teaching behaviour could have been proven empirically. By comparing interaction analyses of the actual instruction using Flanders with those of the conference based on Blumberg, Reavis could have tested the validity of his assumption that indirectness on the part of the supervisor fosters indirect teaching behaviours during instruction.

But this is a mere limitation of the study; there are also weaknesses. Because of the research design, the study was not comparing

varied supervisors exhibiting two different approaches to supervision but rather two alternative patterns exhibited by the same supervisors. Since the clinical supervision pattern had been taught to the participating supervisors, they would be conscious of the behaviours expected when asked to supervise along clinical lines. When supervising in the clinical mould, they would tend to ask more questions because they had been taught this behaviour in the pattern. When supervising in the traditional mould (for which they had received no training) this particular behaviour did not concern them at the conscious level of their thinking. It is possible, therefore, that, when placed in the clinical supervision situation, the supervisors were prone to role play what was expected of them as a result of prior training and that their behaviour was less realistic than when they were operating in the non-clinical mould. This line of argument is reinforced by the fact that Reavis dropped two supervisors from the study because they were not following the patterns correctly. This research may not be a test of different approaches to supervision but a test of whether the supervisors in the sample could adopt different patterns of behaviour when asked to do so by the researcher.

Exploratory Studies

Most of the studies that set out to test the effectiveness of clinical supervision are either subject to methodological weaknesses or to the possibility of the Hawthorne effect. This state of affairs may be attributable to the fact that our current knowledge about the clinical model is not adequate to mount a rigorous experimental-design study. This would seem to call for further exploration of the process and the remaining seven studies that have examined clinical supervision attempt

to generate this much-needed knowledge.

Mershon (1972) explored the concept of analysis as it is used in the clinical supervision process. Interviewing twenty-seven graduate students and four faculty members about how they analysed teaching-learning situations, he came up with fourteen analytical sub-skills. Mershon concluded that, while this set of sub-skills could be used to develop supervisor awareness and could compensate for difficulties arising from insufficient data, nevertheless "the quality and character-istics of each person's analytic process are unique" (p. 6793-A). Mattalino's (1977) study explored the key competencies required for effective practice in clinical supervision. Where Mershon (1972) had tapped the minds of practitioners, Mattalino (1977) used the theoretical framework of clinical supervision to derive the required competencies that effective supervisors would possess. He concludes by suggesting that the lack of definitive competencies and the paucity of empirical research combine to make clinical supervision less accepted than it could be.

Five studies have explored the supervisor-teacher relationship in the setting of the clinical supervision conference. Pierce (1978) examined the relationships between the verbal behaviour (defined as pedagogical moves) of twenty-eight supervisors during clinical confer-ences and aspects of their managerial abilities, motivational needs and personality traits as indicated by Ghiselli's Self-Inventory of Managerial Talent. Structuring and reacting, the two moves consistent with the assumptions of clinical supervision, were found to be signif-icantly related to a supervisor's decisiveness and self-confidence. Cook (1976) examined the question of whether supervisors evidenced

changes in perception and behaviour in terms of genuineness, empathy, and respect while undergoing training in clinical supervision. In addition, she was interested in detecting any trend in the changes that were observed. Five of the six supervisors in the sample gave evidence of increasingly accurate perceptions of classroom events and demonstrated developmental changes such as 'other-centredness' in their relationship with the teacher as they accepted the complex supervisory role. Acceptance of the supervisory role was also found to enhance the supervisors' self-concept.

Zonca (1972) explored the effects of openness in a clinical supervision relationship on one student teacher. Openness, which was defined in terms of disclosure, directness, and honesty, was found to have positive effects on the student teacher's attitude towards supervision, on her ability to analyse classroom teaching behaviours and on her progress towards self-supervision. The one area where the condition of openness did not produce a positive effect was in the student teacher's ability to analyse changes made in her classroom teaching behaviours. This finding may be the result of defining openness in terms of directness, since unsolicited, directive communications tend to take away the autonomy supervisees need to appraise their own behaviour changes. Squires (1978), in a phenomenological study of how supervisors gave positive meanings to clinical supervision, concluded that the "colleagueship" relationship begins to develop when the supervisee becomes more autonomous. Openness, then, might more appropriately be defined in terms of communication patterns that elicit from the supervisee a considered analysis of behaviour observed during instruction rather than in terms of honest directness.

T.G. Kerr's (1976) study would appear to support this. Exposing twenty teachers in clinical supervision to Flanders' (1970) Interaction Analysis System, Kerr set out to determine whether teachers with high and low dogmatism scores could, as a result of training, move from direct teaching behaviours to indirect teaching behaviours. He found that all teachers, regardless of their dogmatism score, could adopt to more indirect patterns but found that the more open-minded teachers (those with low dogmatism scores) displayed a greater willingness to enter into two-way communication with the supervisor.

Summary

The preceding sections have discussed the available research on clinical supervision. Studies based on participants' perceptions were found to contribute little to knowledge of what takes place during the process. Research designed to test the effectiveness of clinical supervision were subject to methodological weaknesses or the possibility of the Hawthorne effect. Exploratory studies contributed to empirical knowledge of the analytical competencies required and to an understanding of the supervisory relationship.

It would appear from the exploratory studies mentioned that openness in the supervisor-teacher relationship is a key variable in contributing to effective intervention; but it is openness that is defined in terms of communication patterns that increase the autonomy and open-mindedness of the supervisee. Supervisors who accept the complex role of structuring such openness in the conference appear to influence positively the relationship and the supervisee's attitudes towards clinical supervision, whilst facilitating collaborative dialogue and enhancing their own self-concept.

How do supervisors structure such "openness"? More signif-
icantly, since T.G. Kerr (1976) found that open-mindedness in supervisees
leads to willingness to enter into dialogue, how do supervisors
structure the conference to promote open-mindedness in supervisees who
may be more inclined towards dogmatism. Indeed, could a pre-requisite
for conference openness involve an open-minded attitude on the part of
the supervisor as well as the supervisee?

A possible answer to these research-raised questions may be
found in developing and exploring the link between clinical supervision
and conceptual development theory and research. Joyce et al. (1980)
have developed a link between conceptual systems theory and models of
teaching to show how flexibility and adaptability to student learning
needs are prime criteria of teaching effectiveness. Since Mosher and
Purpel (1972, p. 64) and Goldhammer et al. (1980, pp. 27-29) develop
the metaphor of the clinical supervisor as a "teacher of teachers", it
would seem logical to explore the potentiality of a link between con-
ceptual development and clinical supervision.

<div align="center">STUDIES OF CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT</div>

The developmental perspective has been part of educational
theory for some time. Because of the recent upsurge of research on
teaching, however, it has assumed a more significant role. The following
sections discuss the rationale for conceptual development and demons-
trate how Conceptual Level has become an important variable in the study
of teaching.

Rationale for Conceptual Development

The rationale for development as the aim of education, whether

of classroom pupils or in-service teachers, has been advocated by Dewey
(1938), Piaget (1970), and Kohlberg (1971). As Dewey (quoted in
Kohlberg and Mayer, 1972) suggests:

> Only knowledge of the order and connection of the stages in
> development of the psychical functions can insure the full
> functioning of the psychical powers. Education is the work of
> supplying the conditions which will enable the psychical functions,
> as they successfully arise, to mature and pass into higher functions
> in the freest and fullest manner (p. 454).

At high stages of development an individual tends to function more
abstractly, complexly, comprehensively, and caringly. Higher stages of
development are viewed as desirable since theoretically they encompass
more perspectives and allow for more empathic role-taking and effective
problem-solving.

> Development defined in this way is obviously very important for
> teachers [supervisors] as they work to promote growth and learning
> in their students [supervisees], as they continue to grow personally
> and professionally, and as they participate in regenerating both
> the educational ends for their schools and the means for teaching
> these ends (Witherell, 1977, p. 32).

Developmental theorists describe conceptual functioning in terms of
stages. Many have derived schemes which map the developmental changes
in cognitive or conceptual systems that take place from childhood
through adolescence to adult maturity. Piaget (1970) uses the phrase
"schema" to describe stages of cognitive development showing the pro-
gression from concrete to formal operations. Kohlberg (1971) describes
stages of moral development demonstrating changes from pre-conventional
to principled thinking. Loevinger (1976) defines stages of ego
development progressing from the pre-social or autistic to the autonomous
and integrated stages. Harvey et al. (1961) describe conceptual levels
as belief systems ranging from a concrete, absolutist system to an
abstract or integrated and differentiated system.

Although the terminology used for these varied views of conceptual development differ slightly, there appears to be considerable overlap in substance. Rest (1974) has identified the particular set of assumptions and theoretical constructs that developmental theorists appear to have in common when they describe the kinds of thought processes that learners would be expected to exhibit at each particular stage. This framework consists of three central ideas: 1) structural organization, 2) developmental sequence, and 3) interactionalism.

Structural organization. This involves the study of persons' problem-solving strategies and conceptual functioning. It consists of observing the stimuli that individuals attend to, the manner in which they classify or process the stimuli that are understood, and the groundrules and integrating principles that individuals use to make sense of their experience. Cognitive structures are viewed as internalized conceptual frameworks and each individual's conceptual framework is regarded as the mediating structure which determines how the person translates external reality.

Developmental sequence. This is the notion relating to the various stages that cognitive/conceptual theorists have defined. Glassberg and Oja (1981) identify the following characteristics which define each stage:

1) Each stage is qualitatively different in structure from the preceding stage;
2) The different structures form an invariant sequence in individual development;
3) Each of these different and sequential modes of thought forms a structural whole;
4) Stages are hierarchical integrations (higher stages reintegrate the structures found at lower stages) (p. 61).

Development, then, is viewed as progression through a sequence of hier-archical stages with each stage representing a qualitatively different way of thinking. The goal of development is towards higher stage conceptual functioning which represents more complex and integrated ways of processing information.

Interactionalism. This describes the process whereby people's existing cognitive structure is expanded through interaction with the environment so that individuals discover more adequate ways of comprehending experience. The role of the environment is crucial in creating the mental disequilibrium required to force individuals to alter their cognitive structure so as to allow for greater complexity of thought.

Although the sequences of stages postulated by developmental theorists differ, there are many recurring similarities.

> All the conceptions project an abstract continuum that is both a developmental sequence and a dimension of individual differences in any given age cohort. All represent holistic views of person-ality and see behavior in terms of meaning or purpose .... All are more or less concerned with interpersonal relations and with cognitive preoccupations including self-concept (Loevinger, 1974, p. 23).

Developmental theory is therefore based on the assumption that people's actions are governed by an internal mediating cognitive process, that the quality of such mediation will vary according to age and stage of development, and that at higher stages individuals will function more comprehensively and empathically. An increasing interest in cognitive development has led to the emergence of conceptual level as a key variable in the study of teaching.

Conceptual Level as a Variable in Teaching

"Of the variables studied, Conceptual Level seems the most

promising as a basis for optimizing matching teachers and students"

(Brophy and Good, 1974, p. 269). This statement supports the applic-

ability to education of one of the conceptual development schema

previously mentioned, that of conceptual systems theory developed by

Harvey et al. (1961). This developmental personality theory describes

each stage in terms of the individual's level of conceptual functioning.

Hunt (1978) contends that several characteristics of conceptual systems

theory contribute to its potential value for education:

> 1) it identifies present information-processing skills; 2) it
> indicates the specific process goals to be developed; 3) it specifies
> the training environment most likely to facilitate such development;
> 4) it applies both to students and to teachers; and therefore 5) it
> permits a reciprocal analysis of the teaching/learning process
> (p. 78).

Joyce et al. (1980) contains series of papers by Hunt and a lengthy

review of the investigations carried out by Hunt and his associates and

by Hunt and Joyce to determine the relationship between conceptual level

and student response to a variety of models of teaching. Specifically,

it is the work of Harvey (1961, 1967, 1968, 1970), Hunt (1966, 1972,

1974, 1975), Joyce (1966, 1972, 1973), and Hunt and Joyce (1967) that

has provided the connection between developmental concepts and class-

room teaching. This research demonstrated that teachers at higher

stages of conceptual development functioned in the classroom at a more

complex level; that such teachers were more adaptive in their teaching

style, more flexible and tolerant; that they were more responsive to

individual differences in students than teachers at lower stages of

development and employed a variety of teaching models, such as small group

discussion, inquiry, role-playing etc.; that such teachers were less

authoritarian, more empathic, capable of responding to the emotions of their students and generally rated as effective teachers.

Murphy and Brown (1970) took Harvey's (1966) definitive stages of teaching and related them to teaching behaviours. Teachers functioning at stage one tended to view authority as the highest good, all questions as having one answer, and thus discouraged divergent thinking and rewarded conformity and rote learning. Stage two teachers were characterized by inconsistency and uncertainty, while still treating students in a manner similar to teachers at stage one. Stage three teachers displayed high affiliative needs based on mutuality and group consensus rather than rules. Teachers functioning at stage four regarded knowledge as tentative rather than absolute, were able to consider many perspectives on a situation and tended to encourage more complex thought. Murphy and Brown further found that the amount of information handled by teachers helping students to think critically was at its greatest at the lowest stage and tended to decrease with each higher conceptual level. Similarly, an increase in teacher complexity of thought led to less reinforcement of attainment behaviour and more encouragement of search behaviour. These findings by Murphy and Brown (1970) were largely a replication of Hunt and Joyce (1967). Measuring teaching style by a reflective index which assesses how much a teacher helps a student process information and generate hypotheses, Hunt and Joyce (1967) found that teachers functioning at high conceptual levels were higher in reflective index scores than those functioning at low conceptual levels. Teachers at the higher levels could "radiate" a greater variety of learning environments by employing "a variety of models of teaching" (Joyce, 1980, p. 25).

In a study that is a straight replication of that by Tomlinson and Hunt (1971) on example-rule versus rule-example order of presentation, Gordon (1976) reported that low conceptual level student teachers preferred to teach using a highly structured rule-example order, whereas high conceptual level student teachers opted for the more inductive example-rule order. From these studies it would appear that teachers tend to structure their teaching in ways that they themselves would need or prefer; in other words, a low conceptual level teacher would teach in a way that low conceptual level students would prefer to learn and a high conceptual level teacher would cater to the learning needs of high conceptual level students.

Research also suggests that high conceptual level individuals are able to identify a course of action and alternatives to that action when presented with the same elements of information (Schroder, 1971), are more tolerant of job stress (Suedfeld, 1974), better able to develop multiple perspectives in problem-solving (Wolfe, 1963), and function effectively in discovery approaches to learning (McLachlan and Hunt, 1973). Bents and Howey (1981) report two doctoral studies which found that when two different kinds of information were presented to low conceptual level teachers, they were most affected by what they experienced first; they conclude that "less mature, less complex teachers process experience differently and may not do well in certain inservice contexts" (p. 18).

Research examining the effects of teaching on students suggests a relationship between the teacher's stage of development or conceptual level and learning gains in the classroom. Harvey et al. (1968) found that students of teachers functioning at high conceptual levels were

more cooperative, active and involved in their work, higher in achieve-
ment, more helpful and less dependent than students in classrooms with
teachers functioning at lower conceptual levels. A recent development
of this research has been to change from viewing the process as a one-
way effect on teachers of students to examining the reciprocal, inter-
dependent nature of teacher-student interaction. Hunt (1976) explores
how students affect teachers--what he terms "student pull"--and how
teachers react to such "pull"--a process he describes in terms of
"reading", i.e., being sensitized to the student, and in terms of
"flexing", i.e., modulating to a perceived student frame of reference.
A study by Rathbone (1970) demonstrated that students functioning at a
high conceptual level "pull" twice as much reflection from teachers
regardless of the teacher's conceptual level.

Since the clinical approach views "supervision as teaching"
(Goldhammer et al. 1980, p.27), conceptual development theory and
research would be applicable to the supervision of teaching.

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE
SUPERVISION OF TEACHING

The thrust of conceptual level research towards the reciprocal
analysis of teacher-student interaction would seem transferrable to an
examination of the supervisor-supervisee interaction that takes place
in the clinical conference. Where supervisors are also building-level
administrators, this would seem appropriate since Silver (1975) found
that principals at high conceptual levels were more effective in demo-
cratic leadership styles than lower conceptual level principals. She
also found that high conceptual level principals tended to display more
person-oriented and professional characteristics while including demo-

cratic decision-making processes in their leadership. Despite the
potential link between supervisor-teacher interaction and conceptual
levels of supervision participants, only two studies have attempted to
explore this relationship. Abbey and Weiser (1977) report a study where
they examined the relationship between the conceptual level of super-
visors, as measured by Kolb's (1975) Learning Style Inventory, and the
strategies they utilized in a psychotherapeutic counselling clinical
supervision intervention. They found that supervisors were consistent
in their preference for students exhibiting different learning styles
and that they tended to prefer students who were like themselves in
terms of learning style. They conclude, however, that:

> Our attempts to code supervisory behavior appear to be useful
> if not rustic. Further work to show how supervisors''learning
> styles affect their choice of intervention strategy is needed. It
> is clear from the present study that their responses [intervention]
> are related to their own learning styles but just how remains the
> subject of another study (Abbey and Weiser, 1977, p. 23).

Thies-Sprinthall (1980) reports a study which distinguishes
elements differentiating educative from mis-educative supervision. She
grouped student teachers and supervisors according to their conceptual
level (Hunt, 1977) and their moral principled thought (Rest, 1974).
Four groups were used in all: group one consisted of high Conceptual
Level/Principled Thought (CL/PT) supervisors and high CL/PT student
teachers; group two consisted of high CL/PT supervisors matched with low
CL/PT student teachers; group three was made up of low CL/PT supervisors
and high CL/PT student teachers, a deliberate mismatch; and group four
comprised low CL/PT supervisors matched with low CL/PT student teachers.
The results demonstrated that high CL/PT student teachers were more
flexible, more responsive and more indirect (according to a ratio derived
from Flanders' (1970) Interaction Analysis System) than their low CL/PT

colleagues. The unique finding in the Thies-Sprinthall study, however, was that, although groups one and three had high CL/PT student teachers whose teaching performance had been objectively rated by trained observers at a similar Flanders' indirect ratio of forty-five, the subjective $\bar{x}$ rating given by the supervisors differed markedly from one group to the other. Supervisors in group one rated the student teachers highly whereas supervisors in group three (low CL/PT) rated the student teachers as mediocre in their instructional performance. Thies-Sprinthall concludes that "supervisors who themselves are at the modest levels of psychological development may misperceive or misunderstand the teaching performance of more developmentally advanced student teachers" (1980, p. 19). Her study suggests then that the evidence that teachers at higher conceptual levels can "radiate" more abundant educational environments, can accurately "read" individual differences in students, are more susceptible to student "pull", and employ a greater repertoire of teaching models, may also be true for supervisors and student teachers.

The process of clinical supervision, it seems, would require the use of higher-order complex professional skills where supervisors can accurately "read" supervisory situations and "flex" to supervisee personal and professional needs within a distinctively human environment designed for positive growth. Yet no study has attempted to understand how supervisors actually "read" and "flex" in the naturalistic setting of the clinical conference or how supervisees exert "pull" on supervisors as they enter into the collaborative nature of a "colleagueship" relationship. In short, we do not know how clinical supervision participants cognitively mediate their behaviour as they dialogue about the teaching-learning situation under observation and as they relate to

each other as professional colleagues. Do clinical supervisors make use

of higher-order conceptual thinking? Are supervisees adversely affected

by a marked absence of higher-order thought processes on the part of the

supervisor? Are supervisors consciously aware of their own behaviour in

the conference? Do they mentally note its impact on the supervisee's

personal and professional confidence? Do supervisors pick up cues in

supervisees and modulate their behaviour accordingly? Do supervisees emit

cues to supervisors? Are supervisees conscious of the behavioural cues

they may give during the clinical conference? Do supervisors ever

deliberately "tune out" to supervisee communication when, for one reason

or another, they may have to restructure their conference strategy? Do

supervisors monitor their own teaching performance?

Marland's (1977) study of teacher thought processes found that

classroom teachers rarely monitored their instructional performance. It

will be of interest to find out whether clinical supervisors, acting in

their role as "teacher of teachers", also devote only three percent of

their total interactive thought processes to deliberations that comprise

a self-monitoring activity. More significantly, the relationship between

such deliberations and the supervisor's conceptual development level

could prove a useful one to explore.

<p style="text-align:center">SUMMARY</p>

This chapter consisted of four major sections. The first section

examined the context and practice of supervision to find that current

practice is characterized by traditional patterns of behaviour that result

from a lack of reflection by teachers and supervisors alike about their

professional activities. The second section involved a review of the

literature and research relating to clinical supervision, a possible answer to the shortcomings of current practice. This review examined the rationale for and purposes of clinical supervision and described briefly the cycle designed for this approach. There appeared to be a dearth of research on clinical supervision except for studies based on participants' perceptions, studies designed to test the model's effectiveness, and studies that explored the process. The notion of openness generated in the exploratory studies suggested exploring the potentiality of a link between participants' conceptual development and what takes place during the clinical process.

The third section, then, outlined the theoretical underpinnings of cognitive/conceptual development and reviewed teaching-learning related research that focussed on conceptual level as a key variable. The final section integrated conceptual development and clinical supervision to substantiate the need to explore how clinical supervision participants cognitively mediate their behaviour during the pre- and post-conferences of the cycle.

Chapter 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The clinical supervision process provides both supervisors and
supervisees with new learning experiences which they attempt to structure
in ways that are consonant with their existing "cognitive map" (Tolman,
1948). The cognitive map serves as a psychological yardstick to which
the impinging world is compared, differentiated and integrated, and
ultimately constitutes the "routes and paths and environmental relation-
ships which finally determine ... responses" (Birch, 1969, p. 26). Put
differently, it provides the conceptual structure through which reality
is defined and interpreted. Without conceptual ability, survival itself
would be rendered, if not impossible, markedly difficult, for "concepts
contribute this assessment of the world; indeed, they are perhaps the sole
embodiment of it ... one's system of concepts provides a nexus through
which one anchors oneself in space and time" (Harvey and Schroder, 1963,
p. 99).

Yet, given similar amounts of information and fulfilling similar
roles, different people use different conceptual rules in thinking,
deciding, and interrelating. This is particularly true of instructional
supervision along clinical lines. What participants think about may not
in the final analysis be as significant as how they think. In other words,
as important as the "content" of supervision participants' thought
processes may be, the differences in conference performance may be more
readily explainable by the "structural variations" of the thought

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processes as participants attempt to differentiate and integrate aspects of the events they are experiencing in clinical supervision. Indeed, Schroder et al. (1967) found that when the task environment was sufficiently complex, "persons process information in different ways under different situational conditions, and different persons use different ways of processing information under the same conditions" (p. 5), and that "the level of information processing, or the conceptual level, varies between individuals and within the same individual under certain conditions; for example, under stress" (p. 7). It was through a detailed analysis of structural variations in conceptual processes that Harvey et al. (1961, pp. 85-112) postulate certain developmental stages.

STRUCTURAL VARIATIONS IN CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

The process of conceptual development has been described as a saccadic one of differentiation and integration, of breaking down and interrelating (Harvey et al., 1961, p. 18). During this saccadic process, variations occur along the important dimension of concreteness-abstractness. The more concrete end represents the conceptual use of "static structures with fixed rules" while the more abstract end of the continuum employs "emergent rule structures" (Schroder et al., 1967, p. 6). Static structures with fixed rules are exemplified by instincts, by lower centres of the central nervous system, and by rigid thought patterns indicative of an inability to process more than one perspective at a time. These structures may differ in terms of the amount of information processed and the speed with which it is processed, e.g., computers compared with narrow-minded persons, but they are similarly concrete in that the rules of information processing are rarely modified within the system. Emergent

rule structures, however, are exemplified by exploratory and creative

behaviour emanating from integratively complex thought processes where

many perspectives and ways of interrelating these perspectives evidence

themselves. As with static structures, the emergent rule structures may

also differ in terms of the amount and speed of information processed but

are similarly abstract in that the system itself is capable of generating

new rules for decision-making and information processing.

Variation in the level of concreteness-abstractness results in

differences in "stimulus boundedness" (Kounin, 1970), i.e., the extent to

which the receiving and responding supervision participants are restricted

to or can transcend the physical characteristics of the immediately

impinging stimuli in organizing their appraising and experiencing of an

experience. As such, it may be determined by two interdependent prop-

erties of information-processing structures: dimension of differentiation

representing the content of thought and the integrating rules representing

the conceptual structure (Schroder et al., 1967, p. 7). When interpreting

phenomena, the number of dimensions differentiated by a mind of low

complex, more concrete thought processes may vary considerably; the

salient feature is that it is characterized by a hierarchical form of

integration in which the conceptual schemata are relatively fixed. In

other words, the interrelationships among dimensions are somewhat static

because the structure for developing alternate sets of conceptual rules

or superordinate concepts does not exist, as demonstrated in Figure 1.

Greater concreteness, Goldstein and Scheerer (1941, pp. 87-93) suggest,

has as its "outstanding" characteristic the closeness of responses to

"immediate reality"; this is demonstrated in such ways as rigid dependence

upon the familiar, responding to an object more in isolation than as a

member of an abstracted class, greater concern with specific details, and a tendency to evaluate objects in terms of their personal use to the subject rather than being grouped according to a more abstract characteristic such as organizational impact of a teaching behaviour on classroom ethos.

A. Low Integration Index   B. High Integration Index
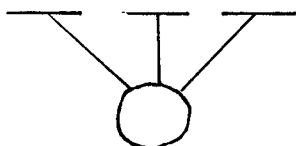
Rules are in a fixed relation-   Rules are in an interdependent
ship so that the whole process   relationship; each can influence
can be reduced to one rule.   the other singly and in combin-
                                     ations producing new connections
                                     and new rule structures.

Figure 1. Variation in Level of Conceptual Structure (Schroder et al., 1967, p. 8).

High complexity and abstractness of thought, on the other hand, evidences more interrelationships among conceptual rules, thereby providing the schemata for forming new hierarchies of conceptual integrations. As such, the structure allowing for greater degrees of freedom of thought through more dynamic interrelationships among the differentiated dimensions of particular phenomena is present.

Greater abstractness, then, enables the clinical supervision participant to enact the following conscious and volitional modes of behaviour:

1. To detach our ego from the outer world or from inner experiences.
2. To assume a mental set.
3. To account for acts to oneself; to verbalize the account.
4. To shift respectively from one aspect of the situation to another.
5. To hold in mind simultaneously various aspects.
6. To grasp the essential of a given whole; to break up a given whole into parts, to isolate and to synthesize them.
7. To abstract common properties reflectively; to form hierarchic concepts.
8. To plan ahead ideationally, to assume an attitude towards the more possible and to think or perform symbolically (Goldstein and Scheerer, 1941, p. 4).

Level of conceptual structure is used to refer to the way an individual processes information. Conceptual level is seen by many researchers (Harvey et al., 1961; Schroder et al., 1967; Brophy and Good, 1974; Hunt, 1978) as a critical factor in explaining why two persons given the same information or possessing a similar attitude use it differently in thinking and making decisions. It focuses not so much on what persons consider in complex interpersonal settings but on how they think about a given set of stimuli. Consequently, conceptual level becomes an important determiner of self-definition. In other words, conceptual level defines the level of awareness that clinical supervision participants have of themselves as causal agents.

Levels of Conceptual Development

Harvey et al. (1961, p. 85) view concepts as jointly determined by the internal state of the organism and conditions of the relevant environment. In other words, concepts evolve out of the interdependence of dispositional (the internal state of the individual) and situational (the demands and constraints placed upon a person by an experience) determinants. Individual level on the concreteness-abstractness or conceptual complexity dimension influences the way in which a person responds to the situational demands of a new learning experience. Harvey

et al. (1961, pp. 85-112) thus present extensive theoretical and experimental bases from which they deduce four basically different levels of concreteness-abstractness which they describe as different conceptual stages. (see also Appendix D for a further explanation).

Level I: unilateral dependence. This stage represents the more concrete end of the continuum. This level of conceptual functioning, closely akin to high authoritarianism, seems to result from conditions in which supervisors exercise complete (or near complete) fate control over supervisees. This investment of supervisors with control over the rewards and punishments of supervisees allows the former to define the nature of the reward and punishment as well as the means by which they are attained. Administration of this power takes the form of rewarding for highly specific performances and punishing for the much wider range of performances not compatible with the restrictive criteria of the supervisor, standards which are justified to the supervisee, when at all, as coming generally from such an extrapersonal force as society or the organization. The criteria are made known in such a piecemeal fashion that supervisees never gain an overview of their means-ends relations. They only come to recognize that the route to rewards and avoidance of strong punishment lies in following the narrowly defined prescription of the supervisor.

Greater dependence on external authority and sources of causality results. The conceptual and self system remains fairly undifferentiated and poorly integrated. Evaluative schemata are categorical, either-or, good-bad, right-wrong, etc. Criteria of conduct are those gained from formal authority: the parent, the teacher, God, the group, conventional norms, or the organization. Authority and status per se confer omniscience and omnipotence. Hence, those who have it dominate; those who

do not, submit. The need for highly structured situations is great; the search for specific and absolutely correct answers follows. Positive self-worth becomes synonymous with conformity to the externally prescribed rules and codes of conduct. Violation of these engenders feelings of guilt, sin, and unworthiness, accompanied by tendencies of self-denunciation and castigation. The search for multiple and realistic criteria is consequently prevented. Stereotypy in approaching problems is one result. Resistance to change and environmental inputs is another; and further, the likelihood of "going to pieces" under high stress is increased.

Level II: negative dependence. Stage II arrested functioning seems to evolve from conditions which, with the significant exception of greater capriciousness and unpredictability in supervisory administration of rewards and punishments, are much like those that give rise to Level I functioning. Somewhat unlike the individuals who become arrested at Stage I functioning, the persons who evolve a Level II orientation as their most characteristic approach to situations are unable to delineate any clear routes to reward attainment because of the inconsistency of supervisors. One time supervisors might reward an act; the next time they might punish it; and the next they could, following punishment, over-indulge supervisees for brief periods as a means of assuaging feelings of guilt. Satisfaction by supervisees of what tenuously seemed to be one of the supervisor's predictable criteria results in the standard being changed, dropped, or shifted upward.

Out of these conditions of ambiguity, capriciousness, and vacillating expressions of authority, few positive guidelines to reward attainment emerge. As in Level I, but for different reasons, few avenues

for acquisition of positive self-worth are open. Because of the forced

necessity of relying more on their own resources than an unpredictable

authority, however, representatives of Level II functioning possess better

differentiated selves than persons at Stage I functioning in addition to

being somewhat less dependent upon external control. This greater freedom

from external control and the assertion of self characteristic of Stage II

involves a high degree of negativism and rebellion in a strong attempt to

avoid dependence, especially on authority and external control. Instead

of acquiescence to authority and its perceived agents, persons operating

at Level II tend more to move towards an avid denunciation of them: God,

society, the group, and convention. As it turns out, however, in their

blind drive to avoid dependence on and win freedom from these agents of

authority, such individuals wind up being almost as dependent on them as

are the representatives of Stage I. Hence, the very beacons which Stage

II persons decry afford them the crucial guidelines in defining their

selves and their world; instead of having approach tendencies towards them,

as do Stage I persons, their inclinations towards them tend to be strongly

avoidant in nature.

Thus, while representatives of conceptual Levels I and II are, in

terms of content, very dissimilar, the former possessed of approach and

the latter of avoidance tendencies towards the same referents, structur-

ally they are quite similar, both possessed of poorly differentiated

conceptual systems, strong avidities, high sterotypy, and inability to

delineate and try alternate approaches to complex problems.

Level III: conditional dependence and mutuality. Stage III

functioning emerges out of conditions in which rules and other extra-

personal forces are not so influential. The assumed omnipotence and

omniscience of supervisors so characteristic of the conditions surround-

ing the preceding stages, are markedly reduced in Stage III. Because of

this, supervisees come to articulate their selves further and to perceive

themselves more as causal agents in the control of their fate, the

attainment of rewards, and avoidance of punishment. Extreme Level III

functioning comes from the situation where the supervisee in crucial areas

is over-indulged and overprotected by the supervisor. In the afore-

mentioned conditions the line of influence was almost exclusively

unilateral from supervisors to supervisees, with consistency in the case

of Stage I and inconsistency in the case of Stage II outcomes. In Stage

III the lines of influence between supervisors and supervisees become

more reciprocal. In limited respects the influence is greater from the

supervisees to the supervisors than in the reverse direction. This occurs

when supervisors effect certain ends desired by the supervisees upon the

task environment. This very willingness, or, in some instances, eagerness,

of supervisors to be so influenced by supervisees results in a symbiotic

dependence of the supervisor upon the supervisee. It means that in those

areas of overprotection supervisees come to have only minimal experience

with the reality outside of their oversheltered environment. Because of

failure to develop ways of coping with the outside world, Stage III

representatives are fearful of facing the situation alone where their

attainments would be dependent on their own task or performance skills

rather than on their ability to get someone else to cope with the

situation for them. Consequently, such persons tend to seek dependency

relationships with others so that they can rely on the help of others in

defining and solving a situation. Indicative of their attempts to

establish a mutual dependency is readiness to compromise judgments in a

conformity-type situation (Harvey et al., 1961) and to disclose facets

of their self to others (Cunat, 1960). Strong are the efforts of these

individuals to be liked and to establish mutual dependencies, but it is

important to note that their dependency is on other finite people rather

than on rules, etc., as is the case for Stages I and II individuals.

Further, because of their environment, inflated as it is, System III

representatives have a more highly differentiated and integrated conceptual

functioning than do persons of Levels I and II and are less categorical

in their evaluative schemata.

Level IV: interdependence (integration of mutuality and autonomy).

Stage IV, characterized more by an information or task orientation to

situations, represents the most abstract level of functioning which will

be described here, although levels more abstract than this are theor-

etically possible. This level of functioning is assumed to grow out of

conditions where the supervisee gains rewards from exploration rather

than from overt responses that match narrowly prescribed criteria of the

supervisor. Within the confines of health and general welfare, super-

visees at this level are rewarded for developing and exercising

independence. Intrinsically valued by supervisors, they are treated as

individuals in their own right, their demands and reasons are considered,

but are not met in the overindulgent fashion of Stage III practices.

Hence, the supervisor neither dominates nor is controlled by the super-

visee. A reciprocity develops such that each obtains certain things from

the other, but not at the expense of either's autonomy. Supervisees are

encouraged to seek their own solutions to problems within the range of

their capacity; and the solution is treated with respect by the super-

visor but is not overextolled.

Because their positive self-worth is not dependent on some external criterion, supervisees at this level are able to try alternate approaches to the environment without fear of rejection or punishment. Their direct experience with the environment more than external dicta serves as the source of correction and reward. This self-correction through environmental feedbacks comes from an openness to the environment and from a lack of fear of it. The self or conceptual functioning that emerges from these conditions is more highly articulated and integrated, capable of coping with more varied conditions because of learning through understanding rather than from catechismic reproduction of overt responses prescribed by a powerful and capricious supervisor. Mastery of the problem rather than of rules or of people is adapted under these conditions as the means of obtaining rewards sought by the supervisee. Information is highly valued and therefore sought out. More than any of the previously described levels, the individuals functioning at Stage IV are more truly independent, committed neither negatively nor positively to particular external criteria, neither in control of others nor controlled by them. They are both autonomous and interdependent. Their conclusions are made conditional upon relativistic premises, and their approach to problems is varied and adaptive.

The Sequence of Conceptual Development

Figure 2 demonstrates the sequence of conceptual development from the more concrete end of the continuum to the more abstract. At Stage I a person interprets a particular stimulus configuration according to a single conceptual schema which does not allow for conflict and differentiation. Transition between Stages I and II brings about conflict between the single schema and its opposite, so that at Stage II there is

Order and Stage of | Graphic Representation of Structure | System Characteristics
System Development

Stage I   scx →

Absolutistic schema, conflict minimized, world maximally distorted to fit schema. Schema for self and other minimally differentiated.

First Transition   scx →

Conflict between single schema and its opposite. Initial emergence of opposition to absolutism.

Stage II   scx →

Emergence of many alternate independent differentiated schema. Minimum of integration of schemas. Problem of choice and probability ushered in.

Second Transition   scx →

Conflict between maintenance of independent schema and integration via compromise of alternatives. Initial emergence of simple integrative organization.

Stage III   scx →

Weak integration linkages emerge. Conflict present and resolved by compromise or weighting; multivariate approach. Schema for other and other's intentions differentiated from self.

Third Transition   scx →

Conflict between an empirical multi-variate orientation and the emergence of new supraordinate schemas as a basis for integration.

Stage IV   scx →

The emergence of new highly integrated schema for the resolution of conflict. A maximum of conflict in the system. Plus a maximum of potential for integration. Integration of alternatives for schema relevant to self and others.

scx -- A particular stimulus configuration, e.g., a tone, a person, or a group.

a, b, c -- Concepts or dimensions along which the stimulus configuration is read or evaluated.

s1, s2 -- Conceptual schemas representing an organization of the single conceptual evaluations. Generates the interpretation of the event.

-- Conflict between.

-- Supraordinate schemas evolved through the integration of conflicting schemas.

Note: This figure indicates a direct relationship between the number of differentiated dimensions or concepts along which a stimulus configuration is read and the number of alternate integrated schema which they generate. While this relationship is positive it is not necessarily perfect.

Figure 2.   Sequence of conceptual development (Schroder & Harvey, 1963, pp. 136-137).

an emergence of differentiated schema but little integration through

higher-order concepts. Stage II is then characterized by confusion and

inconsistency when a person has to choose one course of action over

another. Transition to Stage III is characterized by conflict between

the maintenance of independent conceptual schema and their integration,

resulting in the initial emergence of a simple integrative organization.

Stage III then sees the emergence of weak integration linkages where

conflict is resolved by compromise or weighting. Transition to Stage IV

comes about as a result of conflict between the multivariate schemata

characteristic of Stage III and emerging supraordinate conceptual schemata

serving to develop further the process of integration. Stage IV is then

characterized by the emergence of new highly integrated schemata for the

resolution of conflict, thus allowing for a maximum of conflict and a

maximum of potential for integration.

SUPERVISION CONDITIONS AND CONCEPTUAL LEVEL

The clinical approach would appear to foster supervision

conditions that facilitate the progressive development of supervisees.

But what are such conditions as they pertain to levels of conceptual

functioning? Schroder and Hunt (1963, pp. 142-162) identify certain

"interdependent" conditions that are favourable to openness and pro-

gression to structural abstractness; they also delineate those "unilateral"

conditions which are more disposed towards closedness and arrestation

at more concrete levels. Figure 3 demonstrates how conditions can be

effected in a protective fashion or in an informational manner, while

unilateral conditions tend to be carried out in either reliable or

unreliable ways.

Unilateral			Interdependent	
1. Supervisor determination of absolute criteria 2. Rewards and punishment directed towards achievements of external standards 3. "Extrinsic" evaluation: little concern for "person" 4. Maximizes behavioural manipulation			1. Reality or relative determination of criteria 2. Rewards directed towards exploratory behaviour 3. "Intrinsic" evaluation: concern for "person" 4. Maximizes task environment manipulation	
Reliable	Unreliable		Protective	Informational
1. Consistent rewards for behaviour within range of supervisor acceptance 2. Consistent punishment of behaviour outside that range	1. Inconsistent rewards for behaviour within range of supervisor acceptance 2. Inconsistent punishment of behaviour outside that range 3. Supervisor performance expectations beyond supervisee ability and potential 4. Lack of affinity between supervision participants; presence of distrust and resistance to self-disclosure 5. Supervisee diffuse and misleading cues; alternatives generated to off-set intervention		1. Supportive feedback used to reward and mould supervisee behaviour 2. Dual accountability 3. Role modelling 4. Evaluation relative to supervisee experimental behaviour	1. Supervisor manipulation of task environment within supervisee ability limits 2. Supervisor approval directed towards instrumental achievements 3. Supervisee free to experience consequences of his own actions 4. Supervisor role of feedback source to facilitate supervisee clarification of behavioural consequences

Figure 3. Supervision Conditions

Unilateral-Interdependent Dimension

This dimension along which the supervisory conditions can be scaled extends from a point where supervisors present supervisees with ready-made solutions to instructional problem situations (unilateral) to a point where supervisors do not provide the supervisees with an externally-derived solution for meeting the needs of an instructional situation (interdependent). Under unilateral conditions, supervisees learn to look solely outside of themselves for criteria on which to base an appraisal of their instructional performance, leading to a reluctance to initiate self-appraisal. Under interdependent conditions, supervisees learn to view their own behaviour as a causal factor in their professional development and value input from other sources as a source of information that they can appraise. If unilateral conditions foster an external causation, interdependent conditions nurture internalization. In coping with unilateral conditions supervisees learn to tailor their responses to the situational demands that arise out of the teaching behaviour proposed by the supervisors. In other words, they are rewarded for agreeing with the supervisors but punished when their responses do not fit the proposed solution. In coping with interdependent conditions, supervisees have nothing preestablished or inflexible to learn. Because supervisors do not provide ready-made answers for the supervisees, the environment is so arranged that the supervisees experience, in an informational way, the kind of consequences (of their exploratory behaviour) that lead them to develop appropriate instructional solutions for themselves. Consequently, the role of supervisors working towards interdependent conditions is to manipulate the task environment and encourage exploration on the part of supervisees.

Unilateral conditions. Operations for unilateral supervision
involve 1) external source determination of absolute criteria for
behaviour, 2) rewards and punishments directed towards these ends and 3)
extrinsic evaluation of the supervisee (Harvey et al., 1961, p. 121).
Unilateral supervision then is characterized by a greater rigidity,
immediacy, and explicitness in the way that supervisors react to what
they observe in the instructional behaviour of supervisees. In other
words, the criteria of teaching effectiveness used as a base for
instructional appraisal are explicitly and directly determined by the
supervisors alone, causing supervisees to be evaluated by standards to
which they have provided no input. Further, supervisors would use the
formal authority vested in their position to reward supervisee behaviour
that complied with the externally-derived criteria and to punish any
experimentation that digressed substantially from what they, the super-
visors, had proposed. Unilateral conditions for supervision are
characterized by a maximum of behavioural manipulation of supervisees and
a minimum of task environment manipulation by supervisors. To gain
supervisory approval, supervisees have to implement successfully the
teaching behaviour that has been unilaterally proposed and judgment of
supervisee success leans towards the categorical.

Interdependent conditions. Three major operations pertain for
interdependent supervision: 1) reality or relative determination of
criteria, 2) rewards directed primarily towards means and exploratory
acts, as distinct from end products, and 3) intrinsic evaluation where
supervisees not only participate in the evaluation but are actually
valued as persons by the supervisors (Harvey et al., 1961, p. 123). The
nature of interdependent supervision can be characterized by those

techniques that induce interdependence between supervisors and super-
visees by differentiating the supervisory role from the control exercised
by criteria of teaching effectiveness. The extent then to which the
instructional task environment is manipulated prior to supervision is an
indicator of interdependent conditions. This really bespeaks preventive
supervision in that supervisors will not wish to observe teachers when
they are not psychologically ready for such intervention. A further
indicator is the extent to which professional norms applying to teacher
classroom behaviour are imposed in an impersonal way. Under conditions
of impersonal imposition, supervisors are acting as interpreters of
reality rather than as formal authority figures. Supervisees then learn
to look to the consequences of their own instructional behaviour as a
basis for expanding their understanding of effective teaching. The extent
to which supervisors provide informational interpretations of classroom
reality, i.e., developmental feedback, is also an indicator of inter-
dependent supervision conditions. Without this, evaluation cannot take
place; but it is an evaluation that is directed more towards reinforcing
autonomous instrumental activity rather than rewarding supervisee attain-
ment to externally imposed criteria. Exploration and experimentation
become the focus of interdependent supervision conditions and are
consequently encouraged and rewarded.

Dimensions of Imposition

The manner in which unilateral or interdependent conditions are
imposed by supervisors determines whether supervisees make good progress
or are arrested in their professional development at any given stage.
Unilateral conditions vary along a dimension of reliable to unreliable
imposition, while interdependent conditions can be effected in a

protective or an informational fashion (Harvey et al., 1961, pp. 113-157).

Reliable unilateral conditions. These conditions involve the imposition of reliable and consistent criteria so that supervisees can learn to behave in accordance with these external standards. Any behaviour outside the supervisor imposed range of acceptance is consistently punished and any behaviour within that range consistently rewarded. Ideas proposed by supervisees as potential alternatives to supervisory suggestion are either ignored or punished. Although these supervision conditions tend to dominate supervisees, they are also reliably consistent. The result is the use of legitimate supervisory authority to keep supervisees "in their place" and to minimize the generation of conflicting and divergent evaluations.

Unreliable unilateral conditions. These conditions are perceived by supervisees rather than by supervisors. As such, they would involve an inconsistency of control, supervisory expectations that are beyond supervisee ability and potential, and a complete lack of affinity between supervisor and supervisee. Because of the inconsistent patterns of rewards and punishment and because of the excessively high performance expectations or perfectionism of supervisors, the supervisees find themselves in a consistent situation of failure. Because they perceive themselves experiencing an inordinate amount of failure epitomized by lack of praise or approval on the part of their supervisors, any source-attractiveness that supervisees may initially have held for their respective supervisors dissipates rapidly.

As a consequence of no consistent route to performance satisfaction and authority approval, supervisees develop negative feelings

about supervisory intervention. Any supervisor suggestion is weighted negatively, any professional norms or research-derived criteria that relate to instructional performance are viewed as restrictive shackles. Because of punishment and/or scorn when doing their best, supervisees develop a distrust of anyone who might affect their fate, along with a great resistance to self disclosure (Cunat, 1960). In addition, they would tend to give off diffuse and misleading cues designed to prevent the supervisor from acquiring any information that might be used to control them. Supervisees who have been subjected to these supervision conditions are forced by their consequent negativistic attitudes to depend on their own resources and experiences as the only trustable guidelines. This causes them often to explore and generate alternatives for themselves, for the purpose, however, of defying and off-setting supervisory intervention rather than improving their classroom instruction.

Protective interdependent conditions. Under interdependent conditions supervisees are rewarded for exploratory, instrumental behaviour. Where these conditions are protective, supervisors tend to enter more closely into the autonomous exploratory behaviour of supervisees. In other words, supervisors attempt to use supportive feedback both as a reward and as a means of channeling supervisee experimental behaviour in certain directions. This would involve the notions of dual accountability and role modelling: supervisors would help supervisees in lesson preparation as required and would attempt to provide a model for the teaching behaviours to be explored. Where they anticipate potential failure on the part of the supervisee, supervisors would enter into the latter's experimentation as helpful, supporting figures before failure occurred. This they do to safeguard the self-concept and progressive

development of supervisees rather than to ensure that the ends defined
by external criteria are met; (this distinction between emphasis on
instrumental behaviour and emphasis on the end products imposed by the
supervisor is the critical differentiation between reliable unilateral
conditions and protective interdependent conditions).

Failure under these conditions is therefore judged relative to
the supervisee's experimental behaviour. Since, however, the supervisory
relationship that exists is based on a definite degree of interpersonal
affinity, failure may be perceived by supervisees as rejection or a
withdrawal of supervisor support. Hence the protective stance adopted
by supervisors in their manipulation of the task environment.

Informational interdependent conditions. Under these conditions,
supervisors manipulate the task environment so that the supervisees'
experimentation leads to a meaningful development of skills within their
ability limits. In other words, supervisees are encouraged to learn
through independent exploration of progressive activities. Because it is
not tied to evaluating according to externally-held criteria, informational
interdependence fosters supervisee discovery of many alternative solutions.
That is not to say that supervisors are neutral or, in Roger's (1971)
terminology, "non-directive"; rather, they explicitly direct their
approval to instrumental achievements.

> Approval in this condition is neither personal nor extrinsic
> but refers to what may be called informational participation. If
> the control of the environment is coordinated with the ability of
> the subject, protection is unnecessary. Therefore, failure as well
> as success can be treated in an informational context with a minimum
> of evaluation or absolutistic control (Harvey et al., 1961, p. 130).

What this means is that supervisors nurturing informational inter-
dependent conditions allow supervisees to experience the consequence of

their own actions, including failure. They are not only unprotected but also the consequences have meaning for them in terms of reality based on their own past experience. When such consequences are evaluated by supervisors against externally-given criteria (as in reliable unilateral conditions), supervisees are forced to manipulate their behaviour in reference to a fixed standard. In informational interdependent conditions, however, the supervisory role is that of a feedback source clarifying the information consequences of the supervisee's behaviour in terms of the supervisee's reality world (Cantril, 1950).

Unilateral supervision that is imposed in a reliable and consistent fashion generally issues from supervisors functioning at the Stage I level of conceptual development while unreliable unilateral supervision emanates more from Level II functioning supervisors. Protective interdependent conditions are closely associated with the source-attractiveness premise that undergirds the Stage III level of conditional dependence and mutuality, whereas informational interdependence presupposes supervisors, committed to mutuality, and individual professional autonomy, functioning at Level IV.

CONSTRUCTIVE OPENNESS IN CLINICAL SUPERVISION

The purpose of clinical supervision is "the development of a professionally responsible teacher who is analytical of his own performance, open to help from others, and withal self-directing" (Cogan, 1973, p. 12). There is, by design, a built-in propensity towards modes of interpersonal communication that increase supervisee sense of collegiality. Consequently, the verbal communication of clinical supervisors is calculated not to bind supervisees to a set position, where a sense

of subordination is inculcated and their autonomy is restricted, but rather to free them to exercise initiative in making professional decisions.

This places a great deal of emphasis on constructive communication where openness is not valued as an end in itself but rather as an instrumental means to the end of helping supervisees develop a greater sense of self-direction. Such openness, however, involves a willingness to risk one's self-esteem. In order to make the encounter into a learning situation, supervisees are encouraged to be themselves, and the ensuing dialogue may become intense and personal. Accordingly, certain constraints or structures are recommended to keep the openness constructive. Communication is deemed more helpful if statements are specific rather than general, tentative rather than absolute, and informing rather than ordering. The most helpful kinds of information are seen to be 1) behaviour description--the reporting of specific acts, 2) description of one's feelings, 3) perception-checking responses, and 4) paraphrasing the other's comments in order to ensure that one understands in the way that is intended. At the other end of the continuum, generalizations, name calling or trait labelling, accusations, and commands and orders are regarded as the least helpful kinds of statements and therefore not conducive to constructive openness.

The Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses

Figure 4 demonstrates the various verbal communication skills along a freeing-binding continuum. The practice of such skills by supervisors is an important vehicle for developing supervisee competency in the analysis of teaching. At the freeing end, supervisors are information seeking rather than giving, they attempt to check their

FREEING EFFECTS: Increases other's autonomy as a person; increases sense of equality

Active, attentive listening: Responsive listening, not just silence

Paraphrasing: Testing to insure the message you received was the one he sent

Perception check: Showing your desire to relate to and understand him as a person by checking your perception of his inner state; showing acceptance of feelings

Seeking information to help you understand him: Questions directly relevant to what he has said, not ones that introduce new topics

Offering information relevant to the other's concerns: He may or may not use it

Sharing information that has influenced your feelings and viewpoints

Directly reporting your own feelings

Offering new alternatives: Action proposals offered as hypotheses to be tested

BINDING-CUEING EFFECTS: Diminishes other's autonomy by increasing sense of subordination

Changing the subject without explanation: For example, to avoid the other's feelings

Explaining the other, interpreting his behavior: "You do that because your mother always...." Binds him to past behavior or may be seen as an effort to get him to change

Advice and persuasion: "What you should do is...."

Vigorous agreement: Binds him to present position--limits his changing his mind

Expectations: Binds to past, "You never did this before. What's wrong?" Cues him to future action, "I'm sure you will...." "I know you can do it."

Denying his feelings: "You don't really mean that!" "You have no reason to feel that way" Generalizations, "Everybody has problems like that."

Approval on personal grounds: Praising the other for thinking, feeling or acting in ways that you want him to, that is, for conforming to your standards

Disapproval on personal grounds: Blaming or censuring the other for thinking, acting, and feeling in ways you do not want him to; imputing unworthy motives to him

Commands, orders: Telling the other what to do. Includes, "Tell me what to do!"

Emotional obligations: Control through arousing feelings of shame and inferiority. "How can you do this to me when I have done so much for you?"

THE EFFECT OF ANY RESPONSE DEPENDS UPON THE DEGREE OF TRUST IN THE RELATIONSHIP

The less trust, the less freeing effect from any response. The more trust, the less binding effect from any response.

Figure 4. Interpersonal effect of various responses (Wallen, 1972).

perceptions of the inner feelings of supervisees without making either party ill at ease; whenever the supervisee has said something, they are likely to paraphrase to insure that they have heard the message correctly. Ultimately, they concentrate on active, attentive listening, interspersed by encouragement or probing questions. Such listening is hard work; there is little about it that is mechanical. If supervisors are to manifest this freeing communication skill, then they dare not be pre-occupied for that would prevent them from giving their fullest attention. Moreover, such listening involves hearing the way things are being said, the tone used, the expressions and the gestures employed. In addition, listening includes attempting to hear what is not being said, what is only hinted at, and what is possibly being held back. Such listening enables supervisors to perceive what "lies beneath the surface" and thereby frees them to be empathic helpers in the analytical process. As Ekman (1964, p. 299) puts it: "We hear with our ears, but we listen with our eyes and mind and heart and skin and guts as well." These communication skills free supervisees because they do not manipulate them into a decision or a position with which they disagree; on the contrary, these skills facilitate their entering fully into the analysis of teaching.

At the other end of the continuum are verbal skills that have a binding, imposing effect on supervisees. These skills militate against the transfer of the analytical skills because they coerce the supervisee into a state of dependency upon the authority figure, in this case the supervisor as superordinate, competent analyst of the teaching process. Supervisee feelings are unwittingly or wittingly denied, supervisors express value judgments from their own frame of reference, evincing approval or disapproval of the teaching behaviour of supervisees.

Because they are ultimately responsible for the maintenance of the instructional programme, supervisors may lose all patience and use their authority to command supervisees to make certain changes or threaten them of the consequences should they, the supervisees, persist in their erring ways. The ultimate binding effect, however, is where the supervisors express arrant disbelief or engage in ridicule, attempting to control supervisees by arousing feelings of shame or inferiority, thereby binding them into abject passivity. In short, this would involve berating and debilitating behaviour. The employment of such skills by the supervisor guarantees the dependency of the teacher. Because they are not free to enter into the analytical process, supervisees resort to compliance; as a consequence, they fail to learn how to analyse teaching for themselves.

Interactive Level of Constructive Openness

The interactive level of constructive openness in the clinical conference may be measured by coding the supervisor-supervisee verbal communication according to Wallen's freeing-binding continuum of behaviours. Since the arrows in Figure 4 represent degrees of binding and freeing, i.e., the behaviours furthest from the centre are most binding and most freeing, a frequency count of various behaviours used in conference interaction is not sufficient in determining the level of constructive openness. Raw counts of verbal behaviours have to be weighted according to their respective position on the freeing-binding continuum. In other words, a moderate frequency of "active, attentive listening" by the supervisor may contribute more productively to a high level of constructive openness than say a high frequency of "offering new alternatives". By transferring the weighted scores onto a graph that

plots the interaction of freeing and binding behaviours (see Appendix A) the interactive level of constructive openness can be determined for each supervision participant in the conference.

Preactive Level of Constructive Openness

The preactive level of constructive openness, i.e., a prognosis of the level of constructive openness at which participants anticipate communicating during the conference, may be measured by posing before the conference questions that elicit responses that can be categorized according to Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding continuum, (see Appendix A for details of the Preactive Behaviour Instrument, P.B.I.). By weighting the data and transferring the adjusted scores to a graph similar to that used to determine the interactive level, the preactive level of constructive openness can be ascertained.

Since the preactive level of constructive openness represents a prognosis of conference interaction, there may be a relationship between the preactive and interactive levels of constructive openness a participant displays. Similarly, there may be a relationship between supervision participant preactive thoughts and the thoughts they recall going through their mind during conference interaction.

Any supervisory intervention will naturally influence the supervisee one way or another. Most supervisors, it can be safely assumed, would wish to have a positive impact on the teaching-learning situation, but not all do. The critical determinant of supervisor influence in the clinical conference may be the interactive level of constructive openness.

INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE PROCESS

The process of influence at work in clinical supervision has been described by Wallen (1972) as comprising three definitive thrusts: compliance, identification, and internalization. These thrusts, in turn, lend themselves to analysis in terms of the conceptual schema used thus far. Level I supervisors, nurturing reliable unilateral conditions and displaying a preponderance towards binding communication patterns would tend to influence supervisees towards what Wallen (1972) and Kelman (1961) have termed "compliance". The process of compliance is induced by supervisors who have means-control over the supervisees where the latter's choice of behavioural alternatives is externally limited. This means that supervisees change their behaviour to receive rewards and avoid punishment. Publicly, their behaviour is different, but internally their attitudes remain unchanged. Compliance, as such, only continues to take place while supervisees are under the unilateral control of supervisors. Once supervisory intervention ends and supervisees perceive themselves as no longer under surveillance, their behaviour returns to what it was. In other words, when the rewarder or punisher is no longer present, the behaviour is not genuinely changed.

Wallen (1972) and Kelman (1961) describe two other forms of influence possible in interpersonal settings: identification and internalization. Identification occurs when the supervisee is attracted to the role played by the supervisor and an interpersonal affinity has begun to develop. As such, this influence process would seem to emanate from Level III supervisors who foster protective interdependent conditions and lower-order freeing communication patterns in that supervisee motivation for behaviour change would not just revolve around gaining rewards and

avoiding punishment but rather would derive satisfaction from the

definition of the self in the relation to the supervisor.

> Identification can be said to occur when an individual conforms
> because he wants to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining
> relationship to another person or group (Kelman, 1956, p. 175).

Identification is thus induced by supervisors who possess source attract-

iveness, as far as the supervisee is concerned; it is most operative when

supervisees place a high premium of maintaining the relationship they have

with a supervisor. Identification then brings about a private as well as

a public change in behaviour and attitudes. It differs from compliance

in that supervisees actually believe in what they are doing and can

support it with their own values. It is similar to compliance, however,

in that the changed behaviour has not been accepted for its own sake but

because of an external referent, in this case, a liked supervisor.

Because identification with a new behaviour is not firmly based on

internal referents, it leaves supervisees in a position of conflict if

the supervisory relationship undergoes drastic changes or if they, the

supervisees, change their attitude towards their respective supervisor.

Consequently, change based on identification can sometimes have disastrous

effects if the supervisory relationship is discontinued. The major draw-

back of identification as a process of influence is that change invariably

depends on the continued relationship of the supervisor. This drawback

in itself is a distinctive feature of protective interdependent conditions

and Level III conditional dependence conceptual functioning.

> Internalization, on the other hand, is the result of informational

interdependent supervision conditions nurtured by supervisors functioning

at Level IV.

> Internalization can be said to occur when an individual conforms
> because the content of the induced behavior--the ideas and actions

of which it is composed--are intrinsically rewarding. He adopts
the induced behavior because it is congenial to his needs. Behavior
adopted in this fashion tends to be integrated with the individual's
existing values (Kelman, 1956, p. 176).

Kelman goes on to describe the antecedents of the internalization process

as a communication from highly credible and competent supervisors under

conditions where the supervisees are reorganizing their cognitive field.

These conditions are similar to the informational interdependent

conditions outlined by Harvey et al. (1961) where supervisees are

encouraged to modify their behaviour in light of new information and to

discard any changes when they are no longer perceived as useful. Intern-

alization thus leads to the changed behaviour becoming part of the

teaching repertoire of supervisees; it becomes their very own behaviour

rather than something that is dependent upon supervisor unilateral

control or charismatic presence. New behaviours are not adopted through

fear or through desire for reward; nor are they adopted because the

supervisor is an attractively compelling authority-figure with whom they

wish to identify. Supervisees adopt new behaviour because it helps them

solve a salient problem.

These three processes of interpersonal influence would seem then

to relate very closely to the various stages of conceptual development

outlined by Harvey et al. (1961). Compliance relates to the reliable

unilateral control exercised by a Level I functioning supervisor where

the supervisee yields to the external criteria imposed by a legitimate

authority-figure; identification relates to the protective interdependent

conditions fostered by a Level III functioning supervisor where the

supervisee wants to conform to the behaviours exhibited in an attractive

role model; and internalization relates to the informational interdependent

conditions nurtured by a Level IV functioning supervisor where the

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supervisee chooses to adopt a particular behaviour as a result of a no-risk experimentation and rigorous evaluation of its potential for improving instruction. Where, however, does this place Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder's (1961) Level II? This would seem to precipitate a process of influence that lies somewhere between compliance and identification. Although a supervisor functioning at this level would set out to control supervisee behaviour, the very nature of the conditions it produces--unreliable unilateral--would render supervisee compliance quite difficult. Because rewards and punishment would be administered inconsistently, the supervisee would come to resent supervisory intervention as an imposition of restriction. Consequently, the possibility of the supervisee wishing to identify with supervisor-suggested behaviours would be very slim. It would seem, then, that with supervisors functioning at Level II, a process of non-identification takes place in that, because a supervisor represents an unreliable and unattractive source, the supervisee purposefully refuses to conform with anything, positive or negative, that is deliberated upon during supervisory interaction. In the final analysis, non-identification may precipitate an impasse between supervisor and supervisee, rendering the intervention ineffectual.

Wallen (1972) sees a relationship between the level of con-structive openness evident in the clinical conference and the process of interpersonal influence effected on the supervisee. This would suggest that supervisor emphasis on higher-order binding behaviours would possibly work towards supervisee compliance. Similarly, supervisor emphasis on lower-order freeing behaviours would tend to precede the process of identification, while excessive use of lower-order binding behaviours would, potentially, precipitate supervisee non-identification with

behaviours required to improve the teaching-learning situation. Figure

5 demonstrates the possible general interrelationships among supervision

conditions, verbal communication and influence processes.

Supervision Conditions	Communication Patterns	Processes of Influence
Informational Interdependent	Higher-order Freeing	Internalization
Protective Interdependent	Lower-order Freeing	Identification
Unreliable Unilateral	Lower-order Binding	Non-Identification
Reliable Unilateral	Higher-order Binding	Compliance
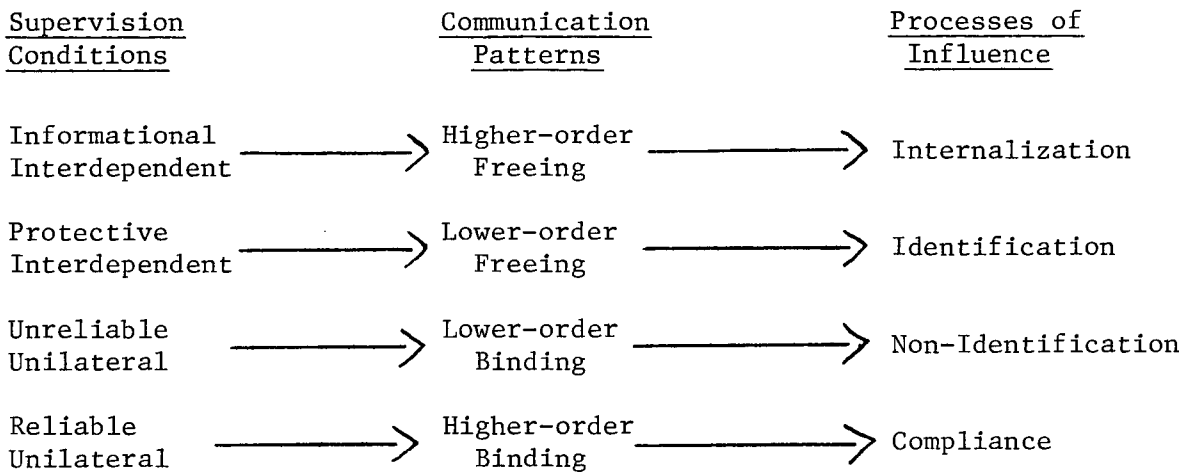
Figure 5. Possible Interrelationships of Supervision Conditions, Communication Patterns and Processes of Influence.

SUPERVISEE DEVELOPMENTAL GROWTH

Supervisee Roles

In outlining the three processes of influence first identified

by Kelman (1956, 1961), Wallen (1972) describes four roles that super-

visees or learners can play: realistic dependency, unrealistic dependency,

counterdependency and independence.

Realistic dependency. This occurs when supervisees temporarily

need special skills but are not likely to need them often; they therefore

depend on the supervisor to provide them. If, for example, the super-

visor is also an expert resource person in a specific teaching-related

area, e.g., curriculum implementation, the supervisee will rely on the

supervisor's suggestions for addressing any short-term problem or issue

pertaining to that area of expertise. Such realistic dependency helps

supervisees increase their personal and professional autonomy.

Unrealistic dependency. This occurs when supervisees need a skill e.g., analysis of teaching competency, that they will continue to use and which they can begin to acquire for themselves, yet continue to depend upon the supervisor for it. Such unrealistic dependency leads to a lowering of self-esteem and a loss of professional growth and autonomy.

Counterdependency. This occurs when supervisees reject supervisor suggestions without testing, without expressing their opinions or feeling, or without considering changes or modifications of it. Essentially, it is a form of anti-compliance; thus counterdependent behaviour is still controlled externally in that the supervisee feels constrained to oppose forcefully and deliberately any suggestions a supervisor may make.

Independence. Sometimes called "responsible independence" (Grimmett, Storey, and Housego, 1979) in relation to clinical supervision, this is where individuals accept or reject a supervisor suggestion only after examining it. They want to make sure that they understand it, have questioned and expressed their opinions about it, have changed, amplified or added to it in some way. Wallen (1972, p. 105) describes this attitude as a "provisional try" and maintains that persons who are willing to make a provisional try are the persons who will internalize their behaviour. By testing the behaviour against their own experiences and values, then modifying it, they ensure that their changed behaviour will be congruent with their own values. It is in this sense that Wallen suggests that supervisees can exhibit independence.

Potential Links between Influence Processes
 and Supervisee Role Behaviour

Although Wallen's (1972) article focuses on the process of
interpersonal influence, at no time does he attempt explicitly to relate
the four learner roles he identifies to the three processes of influence,
compliance, identification, and internalization, under discussion. If
supervisors are to evaluate their impact on supervisee professional
learning and growth and modify the conditions they nurture accordingly,
then a link between the processes of influence and supervisee roles would
appear vital.

The process of compliance, issuing from a supervisor fostering
reliable unilateral conditions and employing higher-order binding
behaviours would appear to influence the supervisee towards unrealistic
dependency upon external criteria such as supervisor suggestions, advice,
and approval. It would not appear to work towards the development of
professional autonomy in the supervisee. Such an influence would stem
from the process of internalization where the supervisor nurtures
informational interdependent conditions and employs higher-order freeing
behaviours. This process would then appear to effect in the supervisee
the roles of responsible independence and realistic dependency: respons-
ible independence because that is the height of professional growth and
autonomy, and realistic dependency because the supervisee bases the
decision to become dependent on a careful appraisal of the knowledge and
expertise the supervisor brings to bear on a problem situation.

A discussion of interpersonal influence processes and their
effects on supervisee roles would be straightforward (and no criticism
of Wallen could be extended) if the remaining process, identification,
proved to be the antecedent to supervisee counterdependency. But this

cannot be the case for the very role of counterdependency belies the process of identification; how is it possible for a supervisee who develops an affinity to a supervisor to counter wilfully every suggestion that is made. Just as previously a fourth process of influence had to be identified, so a fourth supervisee role has to be articulated if any sense is to be made of the complex interpersonal influence at work in the clinical conference.

The supervisee role of counterdependency would appear to result not from the process of identification but from the process of non-identification. In other words, where the source of critical feedback is unreliable and unattractive in the eyes of the supervisee, and the supervision conditions are of the unreliable unilateral kind, the influence process tends to effect a role of counterdependency in the supervisee. The process of identification, on the other hand, where the supervisee finds the supervisor an attractive source, would seem to bring about a role model dependency in the supervisee. This means that supervisees attracted to the personality and professionalism of the supervisor, try to imitate the behaviour exhibited and accept critical feedback and suggestions because they are backed by perceived exemplary supervisory practice, the kind that the supervisees would wish to incorporate into their own dealings with students in the classroom. Figure 6 shows the linkages between processes of influence and supervisee roles that have been delineated.

Supervisee Role Behaviour and Professional Growth

The role a supervisee plays in the clinical conference may be regarded as indicative of the level of conceptual development that a specific supervisory intervention allows the teacher to attain.

| Influence Process | | Supervisee Role Effects |

Internalization   ⟶   Responsible Independence
Realistic Dependency

Identification
(Source attractive)   ⟶   Role Model Dependency

Non-Identification
(Source unreliable, ⟶   Counterdependency
unattractive)

Compliance   ⟶   Unrealistic Dependency
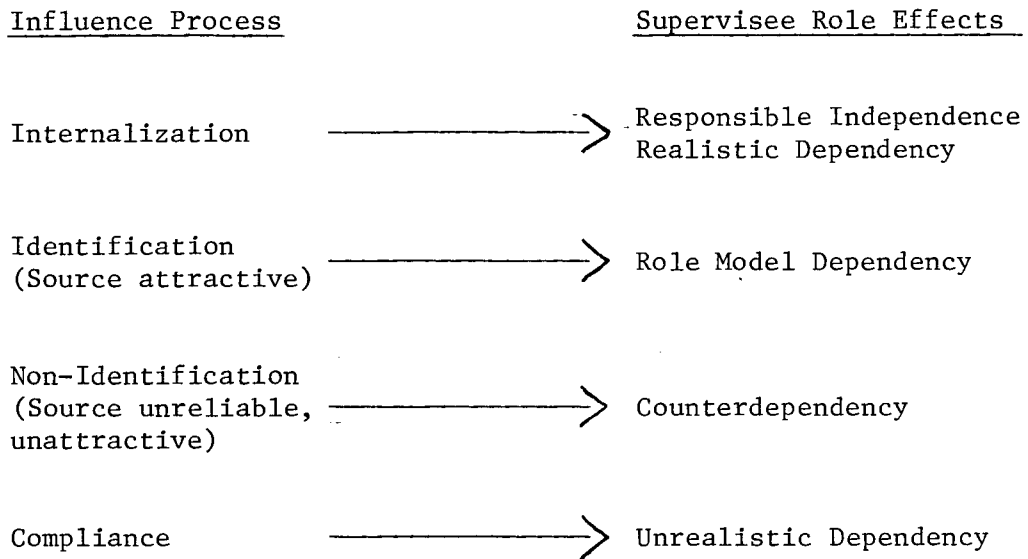
Figure 6. Influence Processes and Supervisee Role Effects.

Supervisee conceptual development level, in turn, may be seen as a useful indicator of professional growth and autonomy. Figure 7 demonstrates the effects of the rolë played by supervisees in the conference on the level of their professional growth and conceptual development.

Supervisees who, willingly or unwillingly, adopt the role of unrealistic dependency develop a conceptual system that is characterized by poor discrimination between themselves and supervisor. Since the supervisor fostering reliable unilateral conditions determines the teaching behaviours to be implemented in an autocratic fashion, the unrealistically dependent supervisees' concepts take on a more absolute and compartmentalized nature. The effect of this is to induce maximal openness in supervisees to changes suggested by the supervisor but closedness to internal initiatives that would oppose the external supervisory control. If supervisees are willingly unrealistically dependent upon the supervisor, then the process of compliance would merely serve to increase the rigidity of their personality, i.e., they would resist

Influence Process	Supervisee Role Effects	Supervisee Conceptual Development	
Internalization	Responsible Independence Realistic Dependency	Maximizes potential for progression to Level IV (open to differentiation and integration at all levels)	Level IV Interdependence
Identification	Role Model Dependency	Maximizes potential for arrestation at Level III (closed to personal and professional autonomy)	Level III Conditional Dependence
Non-Identification	Counter-Dependency	Maximizes potential for arrestation at Level II (closed to control and interdependence)	Level II Negative Dependence
Compliance	Unrealistic Dependency	Maximizes potential for arrestation at Level I (closed to opposition to absolute, external control)	Level I Unilateral Dependence

Figure 7. Supervisee Role Behaviour and Professional Growth. (Adapted from Harvey et al., 1961, pp. 113-157).

changes that came through supervisor modification of the task environment but would gladly implement changes suggested by a powerful supervisor of high-ranking office. As a consequence, unrealistic-dependency-inducing compliance maximizes the potential for supervisee arrestation in their conceptual and professional development at the Stage I level of functioning. Although it is possible for supervisees to enter a clinical supervision experience with unrealistic dependency tendencies, one would not expect the supervisor to nurture conditions that would propagate such a role.

The role of counterdependency, stemming from the process of non-identification which accompanies supervisor emphasis on unreliable unilateral conditions, produces in supervisees a conceptual system characterized by minimal differentiation between themselves and the supervisor. They attach little weight to supervisory opinions and suggestions since they distrust supervisors implicitly. The tremendous resistance to change by counterdependent supervisees is due to their inability to value the information contained in critical feedback and is quite different from the rigidly fixed criteria that characterize an unrealistic dependent's opposition to environmentally-evolving change. The counterdependent supervisee is tenaciously closed to both external supervisory control and to interdependent collaboration with the supervisor; the counterdependency-inducing process of non-identification maximizes the potential for supervisee arrestation at the Stage II level of conceptual functioning, that of negative dependence.

Supervisees who play a role model dependency role develop a conceptual system that is characterized by greater differentiation between themselves and external conditions. They begin to view themselves as agents of causality whilst at the same time viewing the

supervisor as a relevant, supportive person capable of supplying, largely through example, the criteria for behaviour in the absence of internal referents. Since the supervisor nurtures the protective interdependent conditions that produce identification and supervisee role model dependency, the supervisory relationship is extremely important to both participants. Although change is often induced by the supervisor (as the role model), it issues from a person who is perceived as.a source of support rather than as a source of external power. Consequently, role model dependent supervisees differentiate more effectively between them-selves and the supervisor than those who are unrealistically dependent; conceptually, they are less absolutist and more abstract. Supervisor feedback is not received as approval or disapproval based on externally-derived criteria but rather is conditional upon the supervisory relation-ship itself. Role model dependency-inducing identification therefore maximizes the potential for supervisee arrestation at the Stage III level of conceptual development, where they are very much open to the influence of relevant others but closed to personal and professional autonomy.

The roles of responsible independence and realistic dependency would appear to maximize the potential for supervisee progression to the Stage IV level of conceptual development because they have learned to view autonomous exploratory behaviour as a means of solving problems. Responsibly independent supervisees do not necessarily need to rely on an interpersonal relationship or on recipe-like solutions to problems they face in classroom instruction. They learn to experiment and value the information contained in feedback, even in difficult or apparent failure situations. Through the process of internalization, they appraise an instructional setting in terms of the internal referents

they have developed through experiencing the consequences of their own experimentation. Because their referents are based on informational feedback from the task environment, responsibly independent supervisees are sensitive to situational changes, i.e., as the nature of a given problem changes, so would supervisee analysis and exploratory behaviour. Likewise, supervisees subject to informational interdependent conditions and the process of internalization would be capable of recognizing a lack in their own expertise which could be temporarily compensated by drawing on the competence of the supervisor. Such supervisees would possess a conceptual system that was highly differentiated and integrated at all levels; this would mean that they were not only capable of functioning at an interdependent level but also of adapting to lower levels of conceptual functioning if the supervisory situation demanded it.

SUMMARY

Figure 8 represents a diagrammatic summary of this chapter. Preactive and interactive constructive openness is divided into seven sequential levels to match the four levels of conceptual functioning and the three intermediate transitions identified by Harvey et al. (1961). To these seven levels is added a further level to accomodate Hunt's (1977) finding that in school populations there exists a "Sub I" stage of conceptual development. In this stage, students are self-centred, unorganized and unable to understand the general groundrules for acceptable behaviour. In other words, they have not acquired the generalized standard that defines Level I functioning. Since Hunt only found this to be present in school children, this level is merely included to be true to the recent research on conceptual functioning.

Conceptual Level	Supervision Conditions	Verbal Communication	Preactive/ Interactive Constructive Openness Level	Influence Process	Supervisee Role	Supervisee Conceptual Level
Interdependence Level IV	Informational Interdependent	FREEING	7	Internalization	Responsible Independence & Realistic Dependency	Level IV
Transition			6			Transition
Conditional Dependence Level III	Protective Interdependent		5	Identification (Source Attractive)	Role Model Dependency	Level III
Transition			4			Transition
Negative Dependence Level II	Unreliable Unilateral		3	Non-Identification (Source Unattractive Unreliable)	Counter-Dependency	Level II
Transition			2			Transition
Unilateral Dependence Level I	Reliable Unilateral	BINDING	1	Compliance	Unrealistic Dependency	Level I
Level Sub I			0			Level Sub I

Figure 8. Diagrammatic Summary of Conceptual Framework

Each conceptual level relates with particular supervision conditions. Potentially, freeing verbal communication behaviours, evidenced in high levels of constructive openness, may associate with interdependent supervision conditions just as low levels of constructive openness may associate with unilateral conditions. The level of constructive openness fostered by the supervisor is regarded as the determinant of the influence process at work in clinical supervision, which, in turn, may determine the role behaviour and consequent professional growth of the supervisee.

The conceptual basis for the current study is depicted in Figure 9. The conference dialogue and thought processes of supervision participants will be analysed for their content and for their structural variations. The content analysis will focus on conference critical incidents (those stimulus points in the conference where both participants recalled processing interactive thoughts) and the possible relationships that may exist with the interactive level of constructive openness present in the conference. The structural variations analysis will focus on supervisor level of conceptual functioning and supervision conditions with the view to exploring what links exist between supervision conditions and interactive constructive openness level and between supervisor preactive constructive openness level and interactive level of conceptual functioning. The structural variations analysis will also focus on supervisee level of conceptual functioning as an indicator of the role behaviour they are adopting and the professional growth they are deriving from the supervisory encounter. The analysis will also explore the possibility of a relationship existing between supervisee preactive level of constructive openness and their interactive thought processes. The
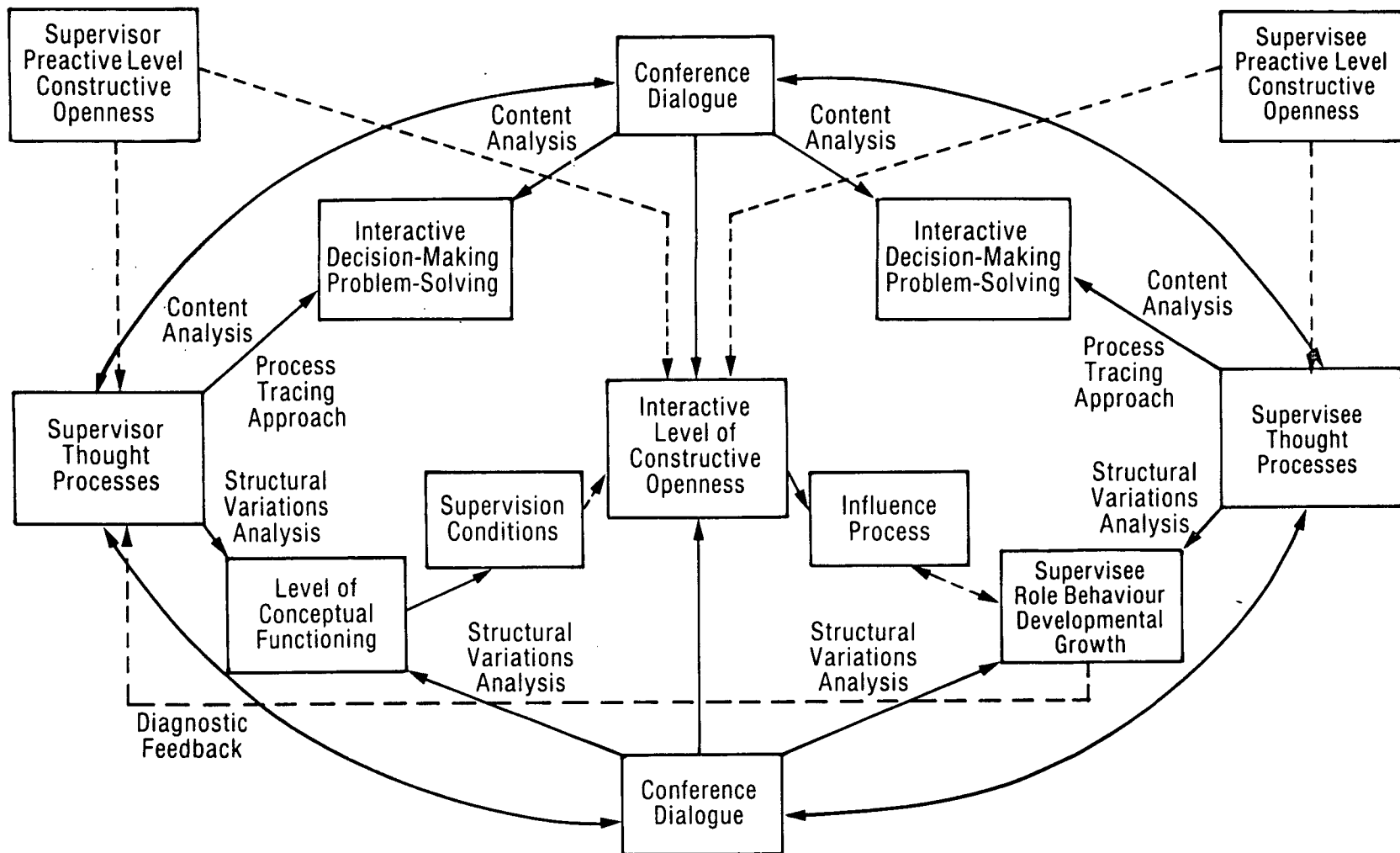
Figure 9   Conceptual Basis for the Study

conference verbal interaction and influence process will be analysed

with a view to exploring the potential relationship between supervisor

influence and supervisee growth and between participant preactive and

interactive levels of constructive openness.

In sum, the unbroken lines represent the type of analysis to be

undertaken and the relationships between variables that previous

research has shown to exist. The broken lines represent potential

relationships between variables which the study will attempt to explore.

Chapter 4

PROCEDURES AND ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES

The purpose of this study was to examine the clinical super-
vision relationship and its impact on the teaching-learning situation
under analysis. Because the literature on clinical supervision lacks
an empirical basis and because the more general area of instructional
supervision cannot be regarded as possessing a theory, the study design
was of an exploratory nature. One leading social scientist supports
such an approach:

> But what if there appear to be a much larger number of
> potential variables of interest, with little previous knowledge or
> theory that would tell one where to begin? In these kinds of
> situations, ... a much more flexible and exploratory approach will
> be needed (Blalock, 1979, p. 35).

STUDY DESIGN

An Exploratory Approach

In providing a critique of traditional research methods in
psychology, Giorgi (1970) suggests that there are two broad approaches
that a scientist can adopt to study human phenomena:

> One way, which is the route of the natural sciences, is to
> take the concepts, viewpoints, techniques, etc., of the natural
> sciences and apply them to the phenomenon and then see how well
> they fare. Another way is to go directly to the phenomenon and see
> what concepts, viewpoints, methods, etc., emerge as a necessary
> result of studying ... them (Giorgi, 1970, p. xiii).

Although Giorgi's major purpose is to broaden the meaning of science
as it was understood (1970, p. 53), he develops a trenchant argument
for a "human scientific approach" where the information derived

reflects the qualitative aspects of actual human behaviour because it is based on the involvement and perceptions of the humans concerned. This argument is particularly relevant to the current study because it presupposes that the research "subjects" are viewed as "knowing beings":

> The [exploratory] perspective holds as a chief assumption about much complex behaviour, that the "subjects" being studied must, at a minimum, be considered knowing beings, and that this knowledge they possess has important consequences for how behaviour or actions are interpreted ... This knowledge is further assumed to have a complex set of referents and meanings that also must be taken into account when the scientist is studying human actions or behaviour (Magoon, 1977, pp. 651-652).

Magoon further suggests that "much important complex behaviour ... might be best understood as being constructed purposely by the 'subjects' and cannot adequately be studied without accounting for meaning and purpose" (p. 652). Consequently, this study attempted to focus upon what Kaplan (1964, pp. 358-363) has articulated as act meaning, the interpretation of meaning and purpose of an act to the subject, as distinct from action meaning which he describes as the interpretation of meaning of an act to the research observer.

Because the research was an intensive, small-scale exploratory study, the case study method was used. This method seemed to offer the most effective framework for investigating the basically unknown nature of clinical supervision participants' thoughts within the context of a typical conference interaction conducted as one of a series of clinical cycles. The case study design of the current exploratory research has its theoretical underpinnings in Glaser and Strauss's (1967) concept of "grounded theory" and uses an introspective research methodology called "stimulated recall". Both of these features will be discussed briefly.

Grounded theory. This approach is generated from the actual

practice of those under study. Glaser and Strauss (1967) view theory

as a strategy for describing and explaining the phenomena they observe.

As such, grounded theory describes and explains everyday practice, there-

by providing an intimate link between theory and practice. Glaser and

Strauss further argue that case study data documented through qualit-

ative techniques broaden the grounded theory so that its applicability

is more widespread and its potential for explanation and prediction is

increased. This approach then encourages researchers to focus on fewer

participants but with greater detail and in-depth analysis; generality

is not established primarily through the number of participants in the

sample but rather by use of theoretical reasoning. In other words, the

researcher can argue that, given similar situational and interpersonal

constraints, it is quite probable that the explanation of the phenomena

observed and described will be applicable to other cases. Should the

constraints differ markedly, however, so that the grounded theory no

longer presents an adequate depiction of practice, then the explan-

ation's general applicability is controvertible.

This approach, then, allows for systematic inquiry into the

practice of clinical supervision. To this end, the data in the present

study were collected on the basis of a proposal to investigate how

clinical supervision participants relate in the clinical conference

and on a hunch that their interactive thoughts might reveal something

of significance to understanding that relationship. At the point of

data collection, no notion of conceptual functioning and various

developmental levels of complexity had been considered. These concepts

were to emerge as a result of the data analysis where different

sentences of conference dialogue and participants' thoughts were
systematically compared in order to conceptualize the data into
categories that could possibly and eventually be integrated into a
theoretical framework.

Stimulated recall. Tuckwell (1980b) draws together the
theoretical underpinnings of stimulated recall as a research methodology.
He describes stimulated recall as involving a subject whose thought
processes are to be disclosed and an interviewer whose role is to
facilitate the disclosure. A videotaped recording of each conference is
replayed to assist participants in recalling the mental activity that
accompanied their overt behaviour:

> The technique of stimulated recall is predicated on the
> assumption that subjects are able and willing to recall and
> articulate their thought processes, and to do so as accurately
> and completely as possible (Tuckwell, 1980b, p. 2).

Bloom (1953) first pioneered the use of stimulated recall. He
described the basic idea of stimulated recall as one in which "a
subject may be enabled to relive an original situation with vividness
and accuracy if he is presented with a large number of cues which
occurred during the original situation" (1953, p. 161). Bloom, however,
merely experimented with audio recordings. Some ten years later, Kagan,
Krathwohl and Miller (1963) introduced videotape recordings as a means
of maximizing cues for would-be counsellors.

Some researchers (Gaier, 1954; Wilson and Nisbett, 1978)
question the accuracy of verbal reports elicited through introspective
techniques. They claim that when the situations are ego-involving,
subjects give inaccurate reports by censoring, according to what will
best represent their social desirability and increase their self-

esteem, what they are prepared to verbalize. Bloom (1953), however,

suggested that the rapport established in the interview situation helps

eradicate the discrepancy which may exist between participants' recall

and their verbal report: "the extent to which a student will report the

most private of his thoughts is largely a function of the rapport which

is established in the interview situation" (p. 162).

How valid then are thoughts recalled by this introspective

methodology? Bloom (1953) found that his subjects could, within a time

period of forty-eight hours, recall their overt activities with approx-

imately ninety-five percent accuracy. This caused him to infer that

"the recall of one's own private conscious thought approximates the

recall of the overt, observable events" and he notes that "this

inference ... has led to the anticipation that the accuracy of the

recall of conscious thought is high enough for most studies" (p. 162).

Other research in the area of medical inquiry (Shulman, 1974, Sprafka

and Elstein, 1974, Shulman and Elstein, 1975, and Elstein, Shulman and

Sprafka, 1979) verified the accuracy of the verbal reports of cognitive

processes elicited from physicians through stimulated recall by use of

a complex method of triangulation. The current study proceeded, then,

on the assumption that the verbal reports of interactive thoughts by

clinical supervision participants could be regarded as accurate

representations of their actual thoughts.

Tuckwell (1980b) reports fourteen studies in education that

have used this introspective research methodology but is forced to

qualify that "stimulated recall has not been used widely in naturalistic

settings" (p. 5). Only Marland (1977), Connors (1978), Nolan (1978),

Cooper (1979), King (1979) and Tuckwell (1980c) actually used this

technique in the classroom. No research has previously used stimulated recall on clinical supervision participants; more significantly, no research has used this methodology to explore the clinical supervision process in the naturalistic setting of the conference.

Sample

The sample of four clinical supervisors (and their respective supervisees) was drawn from persons who had voluntarily studied clinical supervision at the graduate level and who had become convinced that this was a process which would benefit and improve their instructional supervision practice. Of these, two supervisors were principals in a northern British Columbia school district, a third was an elementary sponsor teacher in south-west British Columbia, and the final one was a longstanding faculty member and student teaching supervisor at an Eastern Canadian university. Except for the university representative, all supervisors had studied clinical supervision in the same graduate programme and, over time, had developed considerable rapport with the researcher, a fellow graduate student. Consequently, no sampling procedures were used in the selection process; rather, known clinical supervisors were contacted to volunteer two cycles of their regular practice for research purposes. The supervisory relationship was therefore well established by the time of data collection. The exception to this was the faculty member; she had not previously supervised a colleague and had, in fact, studied clinical supervision at a different graduate school.

Assumptions

This preliminary investigation of supervisory conference inter-

action is based on several assumptions:

1. that teachers, therapists, and supervisors can be regarded as generically similar in dealing with their respective clients and such a view can increase knowledge about intervention processes through interprofessional cross-stimulation.

2. that the relationship that exists between supervisor and supervisee can be examined through an analysis of overt conference behaviour and concurrent thought processes.

3. that the interactive thought processes of clinical supervision participants are essentially the determinants of conference verbal and nonverbal behaviour.

4. that the information and the ways in which clinical supervisors process it are a product of the interactions between preactive levels of constructive openness and interactive perceptions of supervisee conference behaviour and the task at hand.

5. that the information and the ways in which supervisees process it are a product of the interactions between preactive role expectations and interactive perceptions of supervisor conference behaviour and the task at hand.

6. that the verbal reports of conference interactive thoughts, elicited from clinical supervision participants through the introspective research method called stimulated recall, may be regarded as accurate representations of the actual thought processes.

Limitations

The major limitations of the study stem from the fact that the sample of supervisors and conferences was small and not randomly selected.

Generalizations about the four supervisors and their supervisees cannot then be derived with certainty, nor can any definitive comparison be effected between the sample group and the larger population. Further, no attempt was made to control the contextual variables such as type of school, grade level, etc., in order to standardize the task environment in which supervisory intervention takes place.

DATA SOURCES

Videotape Recordings of Conferences

One of the major purposes of this study was to gather data describing how clinical supervision participants relate and function conceptually under conditions that represented rather than distorted the behavioural and cognitive ecology of conferences. Thus, the source of data for this investigation was the clinical conference as it was experienced by supervisors and supervisees participating in that conference, and these same participants' subsequent reporting of their interactive thoughts during the process. Plans were made to videotape sixteen conferences, two pre-conferences and two post-conferences per supervisor. However, the first pre-conference conducted by the elementary sponsor teacher was the victim of sound failure and the supervisor mistakenly omitted the pre-conference from the second cycle. Because the researcher wanted to maintain high-fidelity naturalistic conditions, he chose to abide by the supervisor's decision. Thus sixteen videotaped conferences were reduced to fourteen. Similarly, one supervisor, the elementary principal, disregarded the researcher's request for two cycles with one supervisee with whom he, the supervisor, had worked for at least two months; instead, he conducted one cycle

with two supervisees, both of whom had been in a relationship with the supervisor for almost seven months. While the supervisor's reasoning that this would give the study greater diversity seemed plausible, the researcher went along with this for different reasons; namely to safeguard the naturalistic conditions of the study.

After the fourteen available videotape recordings of clinical conferences had been used to stimulate recall of participants' interactive thought processes, the audio part was transcribed. These transcripts of conference verbal dialogue, together with the time-coded videotape recordings, comprised a major source of the study's data.

To facilitate data analysis, the videotape recordings of conferences were time-coded. This enabled events to be pinpointed to a precise time during the conference and consequently, this time-coding system is used throughout Chapters 5 and 6 to denote the precise time at which a particular phenomenon occurred, e.g., 12:45 represents at a point twelve minutes and forty-five seconds into the conference.

Audiotape Recordings of Verbal Reports of Interactive Thought Processes

The other major source of data in the study consisted of audiotape recordings of participant verbal reports of the thoughts they recalled processing during conference interaction. Following on as soon as possible after the conference (and always within twenty-four hours), each supervision participant was taken in turn through a stimulated recall interview. The participants were shown the video recording of the conference and asked to stop the tape at any point where they recalled processing a thought. The pre-interview directions encouraged them to "think out loud" the thought they recalled and an audiotape

was running continuously to record these verbal reports. During the stimulated recall interview, the only stimulus for cuing the supervision participants' thoughts was the conference videotape itself. On the advice of Clark (personal communication, March 1979), the interviewer refrained from stopping the tape and from posing questions until the very end of the session. This was done to off-set any bias which a researcher intrusion might have precipitated and also to protect the participants from any sense of not being in control over the inter-pretation of their conference experience. These twenty-eight audiotape recordings were then transcibed to constitute the second source of data for this study.

Preactive Behaviour Instrument and Supervisee Role Behaviour Prognostication

All supervision participants were administered the Preactive Behaviour Instrument (see Appendix A) before the first clinical cycle was conducted. Both supervisors and supervisees were directed to answer the initial questions on the instrument as if they were in the supervisor role. The resulting measurement then gave an indication of the level of constructive openness at which participants anticipated communicating during the conference.

In addition, supervisees were asked to complete a brief questionnaire (see Appendix B) designed to elicit which of the four roles described by Wallen (1972), i.e., realistic dependency, unrealistic dependency, counterdependency, or independence, most appropriately characterized their behaviour as supervisees during previous supervisory interventions.

The P.B.I. measures and supervisee role behaviour prognost-

ications constituted the third source of data in this study.

EVOLUTION OF THE STUDY

Pilot Testing Phase

The pilot testing phase included the design and trial of the
Preactive Behaviour Instrument, together with practice in the use of
the stimulated recall methodology and in the coding of verbal behaviour
in videotaped conferences.

Preactive behaviour instrument design and trial. The Preactive
Behaviour Instrument was designed to measure how clinical supervision
participants think they will function verbally in the ensuing conferences.
Derived from Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding continuum (see Figure 4,
Chapter 3) it plots on a scale of 0-8 (see Appendix A) the particular
blend of verbal behaviours that participants think will constitute their
conferencing level of constructive openness.

The instrument was piloted in six graduate classes at the
university where three of the supervisors in the sample had studied
clinical supervision. These six classes accumulatively provided a pilot
sample of sixty-six subjects who were asked to predict their level of
constructive openness before completing the instrument. (Since all
subjects in the pilot sample were familiar with Wallen's freeing-
binding continuum and the concept of constructive openness, this
request was not deemed unreasonable). At the time of piloting the meas-
urement was merely broken down into eight levels; further differentiation
within levels was subsequently deemed necessary when it was recognized
that broad level measures were not precise enough for the study's
purposes. Out of the sixty-six subjects who completed the P.B.I., thirty-

four (51.5%) scored at the level they had predicted and thirty-two (48.5%) scored at within one level (up or down) of what they had predicted. These pilot findings were taken as evidence that the Preactive Behaviour Instrument was adequate for measuring with reasonable accuracy participant preactive level of constructive openness.

Stimulated recall sessions. Relying heavily on the work of Kagan et al., (1967), Marland (1977), Connors (1978), and Tuckwell (1980b), (see Appendix C for Stimulated Recall Procedures), the researcher undertook a pilot study with two sponsor teachers. The first trial using a portable video recorder was unsuccessful because of poor sound reproduction. A second trial was undertaken, this time using non-portable video recording equipment, and this successfully demonstrated the viability of using videotape recordings of clinical conferences to stimulate supervisor recall of interactive thoughts.

The difficulty of conducting a conference in front of a camera was also addressed at this time. All four participants in the pilot study stated that they were aware of the camera at the very beginning but that, once engrossed in the interaction (approximately three to five minutes into the conference) it was no longer an intrusion. In order to mitigate the intrusion effect of the camera, two further conferences were conducted but this time without the researcher operating the camera. The camera was merely set up and turned on by the researcher who then left the conference room. Conference interaction did not begin until the researcher had left and both participants felt ready. As a result of this procedure, all four participants reported being oblivious to the camera. In other words, the camera seemed to represent an intrusion only when it was operated by the researcher. Once

the human factor was removed, the side-effects associated with video-recording the conference appeared to dissipate. It was decided then, to implement this procedure in the regular data collection phase of the study.

Verbal analysis of conferences. The four conferences video-taped in the pilot phase of the study were coded for levels of constructive openness in preparation for the data analysis phase. Practice in the use of Wallen's freeing-binding continuum continued for three days until a criterion of 0.80 intracoder reliability (see Appendix A for formula) was achieved. Since the researcher was the only coder used in the study, it was not possible to determine intercoder reliability. Hence, conferences were coded on different days to establish the level of consistency with which the freeing-binding categories were being applied.

Acclimatization and Final Preparations

Each supervision dyad was met individually by the researcher before any data collection was undertaken. The purpose of this meeting was for the participants, particularly the supervisees, to get to know the researcher (and vice-versa) on a personal basis. In addition, the researcher used the opportunity to outline the purposes of the study and explain the nature and objectives of the stimulated recall interview. It was emphasized that absolute confidentiality and anonymity would be guaranteed and safeguarded to the extent that no supervisor would find out what a supervisee had thought and vice-versa. At this time participant questions about the stimulated recall interview were encouraged in order to clarify their role in the process and set them

at ease about the introspective methodology.

Supervision arrangements were then shared and a schedule for videotaping pre- and post-conferences and conducting stimulated recall interviews was drawn up. The final preparation was to ask each participant to complete the Preactive Behaviour Instrument and each supervisee to answer the brief questionnaire pertaining to his or her previous role behaviour during supervisory intervention.

Data Gathering

In the case of three British Columbia based supervisors, data were collected during the months of February and March 1980. In the case of the other supervisor, data were gathered during October and November 1980.

Conference videotaping. Based on the findings of the pilot study, the researcher absented himself from conferences once he had set up the camera, checked its focus and started the recording process. This enabled supervision participants to forget about the camera and to concentrate on the conferencing process. But for the unexpected sound failure of one pre-conference recording and the unforeseen loss of the pre-conference in the second cycle, this phase of the study proceeded as expected.

Stimulated recall interview. Each stimulated recall session was conducted behind locked doors to ensure quietness and freedom from interruption. Bloom (1953) maintains that this is absolutely essential if a subject is to relax and feel free to recall and report "the most private of his thoughts" (p. 162). At the beginning of each stimulated recall interview, the researcher engaged in brief social interaction

with each participant in order to maintain the rapport established

during the acclimatization phase and to help participants feel at ease

about the process they were about to undertake. He then reminded them

of the study's objectives so as to reduce the danger of data distortion:

> ... if not told, [subjects] may construct their own theory
> about the interviewer's intentions and could respond accordingly
> in ways which may distort the data, and subvert, unintentionally,
> the investigator's purposes (Marland, 1977, p. 40, cited in
> Tuckwell, 1980b, p. 7).

After reiterating the guarantee of anonymity and confidentiality, the

researcher assured supervision participants that he was interested not

in evaluating their conference performance but rather in eliciting

information that would facilitate an understanding of the clinical

supervision process at work. The final instruction, prior to starting

the video replay, was to ask participants to watch the visual recording

in order to "relive" the conference and recall the thoughts, feelings

and reactions that they experienced during the interaction. In verb-

alizing their recalled thoughts, participants were encouraged to

distinguish, as far as was possible, between thoughts that occurred

during the actual conference and those which the video replay had

prompted subsequently.

As previously stated, the conceptualization of stimulated

recall as a methodology used in this study borrowed heavily from the

work of Kagan et al. (1967), Marland (1977), Connors (1978), and

Tuckwell (1980b). This conceptualization was adhered to except in one

important regard. Where Kagan et al., Marland, Connors, and Tuckwell

all followed a definitive interviewer role description that allowed

either subject or interviewer to stop the tape at any time, this study

adopted a procedure whereby only the participants had control over what

constituted a stimulus point. This was implemented on the advice of

Clark of Michigan State University (personal communication, March 1979)

and was confirmed by Tuckwell (1980b) who citing from Marland's (1977)

study, noted that Kagan (also of Michigan State University) now claimed

that:

> ... what little is gained by having the inquirer stop the tape
> is lost in that the inquiree loses some sense of control in being
> the ultimate interpreter of his/her own experience (Marland, 1977,
> p. 284, in Tuckwell, 1980b, p. 14).

Consequently, participants were directed to stop the tape at any point

in the replay that they recalled processing a thought during conference

interaction. The interviewer's role was to be supportive, to ensure

that the audio cassette recorder was functioning proficiently, and to

listen attentively to what was being articulated in order to determine

which aspects of the reported thought processes required further clar-

ification through follow up questions at the end of the session. With

the exception of supervisees 'M' and 'O', for whom the first two to

three minutes of the first tape were replayed for the purpose of

familiarizing them with their role in stimulated recall, this procedure

worked well.

Data Analysis Phase

The analysis of data collected through videotaping conferences

and stimulated recall interviews progressed through the six stages

shown in Table 1.

The first stage consisted of analysing the conference verbal

behaviour according to the Interactive Behaviour Instrument (contained

in Appendix A) to determine levels of interactive constructive openness.

The next five stages all pertained to the complex analysis process

Table 1

Stages of Data Analysis in the Study

Stage 1	Analysis of conference verbal behaviour using Interactive Behaviour Instrument (see Appendix A and Figure 4, Chapter 3).
Stage 2	Initial examination of transcribed conference dialogue and thoughts while observing videotaped conference interaction.
Stage 3	Application of Marland's (1977) System for Analysing Teachers' Interactive Thoughts (SATIT).
Stage 4	Discarding of SATIT and conceptualization of data. Emergence of "Conceptual Level" as core category.
Stage 5	Retrieval of information pertaining to emergent core category and derivation of structural variations analysis system ClinSuPICLAS (Clinical Supervision Participant Interactive Conceptual Level Analysis System).
Stage 6	Analysis of participants' conference dialogue and thoughts using ClinSuPICLAS (see Appendix D).

involved in making sense of the voluminous data contained in the tran-
scripts of conference dialogue and participant thoughts.

The second stage involved examining the transcripts of confer-
ence dialogue and participant thought processes while watching the
videotape recordings of the conference interaction. In addition to
providing the researcher with an overall "feeling" for each conference,
this stage enabled him to make extensive notes and interpretations
about the interaction displayed in the videotapes and commented upon
in the stimulated recall interviews. The goal of this second stage was
to be as inclusive as possible in representing the range of behavioural
and cognitive features characterizing the conference relationship.

Using the interpretive notes made in the previous stage, the
videotapes were again viewed and examined for similarities and dissim-
ilarities across the fourteen exhibits of conference interaction. Since
the intent of this third stage was to produce an initial code for
describing and categorizing conference events in a manner that would
allow for general comparisons of one event with another, the researcher
experimentally applied SATIT (a System for the Analysis of Teachers'
Interactive Thoughts designed and tested by Marland, 1977). It followed
naturally from the dictates of the research proposal to use a content
analysis system developed to trace the problem-solving and interactive
decision-making processes at work in participants. In coding the
conference dialogue and thought process transcripts according to the
categories contained in SATIT, Tuckwell's (1980a) technical report on
the application of content analysis to stimulated recall data was
followed very closely. This report included explicitly formulated
guidelines for the unitization and categorization processes involved

in coding and for the differentiation of interactive from non-interactive

thoughts in the stimulated recall data. Over time, however, it became

clear that the application of SATIT to clinical supervision participants'

interactive thoughts was not yielding substantive insights into the

supervisory relationship.

As a consequence, SATIT was discarded. Because the study was

investigating the relationship between clinical supervision participants,

as evidenced in their interactive thoughts and not the thoughts of

individual supervisors and supervisees, the primary focus of SATIT on

tracing participant problem-solving and interactive decision-making was

inappropriate. What was required was not a coding system that focused

on the substantive content of participants' thoughts but one that helped

explain the structural content, i.e., how they processed the varied

information and multitudinous interpersonal stimuli that existed in

every conference.

The fourth stage involved then further examination of the data

to establish a coding system that would "conceptualize the underlying

pattern of a set of empirical indicators within the data" in a manner

that would discover "the essential relationship between data and theory"

(Glaser, 1978, p. 55). The goal of this stage was to generate an emer-

gent set of core categories and their properties which fitted the data

and were relevant for understanding and explaining the complex

phenomenon of the clinical supervision relationship. During this process

of analysing the data in the transcripts line by line, certain questions

were kept in mind: "what is this [sic] data a study of? ...what category

does this incident indicate? ...what is actually happening in the data?"

(Glaser, 1978, p. 57). These questions kept the research analyst

theoretically sensitive by forcing him "to focus on patterns among

incidents which yield codes" (Glaser, p. 57). As a consequence of a

conscious search for "what sums up in a pattern of behaviour the sub-

stance of what is going on in the data" (Glaser, p. 57), a core variable

began to emerge. The researcher began to sense that new discoveries

might lie in understanding how each participant handled the varied

ambiguities and stresses that were evident in the relationships on tape.

The perplexing phenomenon of why different participants processed

similar kinds of information in very different ways even when fulfilling

similar roles became the focus. It seemed that the data were demon-

strating with increasing compulsion that the breakthrough would occur

in attempting to understand how clinical supervision participants think

rather than focusing on what they consider. This emphasis on the

structure of participants' thoughts was similar to what Joyce (1980) and

Hunt (1979) describe as the variable "conceptual level" or CL. This

fourth stage then culminated with one further examination of the data

to verify the grounded nature of this variable's nuclear role.

The fifth stage then involved the researcher in wide reading of

all research studies, articles and books that related to the notion of

conceptual functioning level. The purpose of this further reading was to

facilitate a conceptualization of the data in a manner that was con-

sistent with existing theoretical formulations and that would allow for

the integration of other variables (i.e. preactive and interactive

constructive openness) with the core category of conceptual level. The

framework that emerged through this process became the conceptual basis

for the study, as presented in Chapter 3. Further, much of the related

research and literature on conceptual development was integrated into

the existing review of clinical supervision contained in Chapter 2. The conceptualization of the data that took place in this stage also involved the derivation of categories for the subsequent analysis of participants' conceptual functioning level. This category system ClinSuPICLAS (Clinical Supervision Participant Interactive Conceptual Level Analysis System) is described in Appendix D.

The final stage of the data analysis phase of the study consisted of analysing the data contained in the conference dialogue and thought process transcripts according to the categories derived to represent the different levels of conceptual functioning. This process did not focus primarily on an analysis of content but rather on an analysis of the structural variations present in each participant's reported thoughts and recorded dialogue.

The six stages of the data analysis phase of the study extended over a period of twenty months and provided the researcher with unlimited opportunities to experience the depressing frustration that Glaser (1978) suggests is very much a part of the "grounded theory" approach to research:

> After awhile [sic] the analyst starts drawing blanks and does not know what he is reading [in the data]. He begins to feel it is a waste of time, comparing generates nothing, becoming a researcher seems foolish. He becomes irritable. He may even go into a somewhat deep depression and feel a disturbing identity loss (Glaser, p. 23).

ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES

Analysis of Conference Verbal Behaviour

Initially, the verbal behaviour of each clinical supervision participant was analysed according to Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding

continuum (see Figure 4, Chapter 3). The frequency of behaviours on each category on the continuum was then multiplied by a weighting factor (see Appendix A for an explanation of weighting factors) and transferred onto a graph that plots the interaction of freeing and binding behaviours (see Appendix A for description of transposition process), rendering the interactive level of constructive openness for each participant in the conference. Since Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding continuum was originally designed and weighted to analyse a facilitating role, however, the initiating role adopted by most super-visess in the conference tended to place them at a lower level of inter-active constructive openness than they might espouse if they were supervisors. Consequently, analysis of supervisee level of constructive openness was discontinued on the grounds of inappropriate measurement and the premise that the nature of the influence process at work in the conference is largely determined by supervisor level of constructive openness (Wallen, 1972).

Using the formula for inter- and intra-coder reliability contained in Appendix A, two conferences (A-L post-conference #2 and B-N pre-conference #2) were recoded two months apart and intracoder reliability calculated. Coefficients of 0.89 and 0.85 were recorded, providing a high index of stability for the researcher's coding of supervisor interactive constructive openness levels.

Analysis of Conference Dialogue and
  Thought Process Transcripts

Although directions were issued prior to the stimulated recall interviews exhorting participants to distinguish between the thoughts they recalled having during the conference and those which occurred

subsequent to the interaction, both interactive and non-interactive thoughts were reported. Because the study was primarily investigating how clinical supervision participants related to each other during the conference, data contained in transcripts were initially classified as interactive or non-interactive according to Tuckwell's (1980a) "Guide-Lines for Differentiating Interactive from Non-Interactive Thoughts" (included in Appendix E).

As the data analysis phase progressed, however, it became clear that to limit the research to an investigation of the conceptual level evident in clinical supervision participant interactive thoughts would deprive the study of meaningful information. Consequently, it was decided to analyse both the conference dialogue and interactive thought processes for indicators of conceptual functioning level and further to examine all data contained in the transcripts i.e. non-interactive as well as interactive, for general patterns of behaviour that might provide useful insights into the clinical supervision process. The former micro-level analysis is reported in Chapters 5 and 6, while the latter macro-level analysis comes in Chapter 8.

ClinSuPICLAS. Clinical Supervision Participant Interactive Conceptual Level Analysis System (see Appendix D) is a structural variations content analysis system relying heavily on the thinking of Harvey et al. (1961), Schroder et al. (1967), and Harvey and Schroder (1963). In its derivation it follows very closely the tradition of content analysis systems but its focus in application is somewhat different. Where a "pure" content analysis system would be used to analyse what the substance of conference communication and interactive thought processes contains, a structural variations content analysis system

would examine that same substance for indicators of variability in the conceptual schemata that participants use in thinking and communicating. Although subject to the same guidelines for unitization and categorization as "pure" content analysis, a structural variations system attempts to uncover how a person processes the information and interpersonal stimuli that make up the substance of communication.

Three generally agreed upon requirements for content analysis system identified by Holsti (1969) were applied to the derivation of ClinSuPICLAS:

1. Objectivity stipulates that each step must be carried out according to explicitly formulated rules and procedures to minimize the possibility that the findings reflect the analyst's subjective predisposition rather than the content of the material under analysis.
2. Content analysis must be systematic, which means that content or categories are included or excluded according to consistently applied criteria.
3. Generality requires that the findings have theoretical relevance (Holsti, 1969, p. 3, cited in Tuckwell, 1980a, p. 1).

Equally similar to content analysis, structural variations analysis systematically divides the substance of communication into units which are subsequently categorized. Each category is, by definition, clearly distinguishable from all other categories and contain certain properties peculiar to itself. The dual process of unitization and categorization has been described as:

... the process whereby raw data are systematically transformed and aggregated into units which permit precise description of relevant content characteristics. The rules by which this transformation is accomplished serve as the operational link between the investigator's data and his theory and hypotheses. Coding rules are thus a central part of the research design (Holsti, 1969, p. 94).

Guetzkow (1950) maintains that the central problems in this kind of research are choice of unit and the selection of categories for classifying units, adding that the fruitfulness of the transformation is

dependent upon the clarity and precision with which the rules for unitization and categorization can be articulated. He further maintains that category selection and choice of unit size are related decisions:

> The development of a set of categories into which the qualitative material may be classified is always accompanied explicitly or implicitly by a decision as to the size of the unit into which the material shall be divided before it is categorized. Yet, selection of unit size seems more dependent upon the category-set employed than choice of category-set upon unit size (Guetzkow, 1950, p. 47).

Tuckwell (1980a, pp. 3-4) cites Marland (1977) and King (1979) whose studies confirmed the interdependence of unit and category. King suggests that in coding data:

> ... the procedure to be used involves one of examining the transcripts and determining each unit on the basis of a section of the data complying with one of the categories of interactive thought. The unit is only established when a segment of the transcript matches with the characteristics of a category (King, 1979, p. 385).

Marland takes the matter further, claiming that the categories largely establish the unit:

> ... the distinction between the two stages of segmentation [unitization] and categorization is blurred because the unit selection is best understood in terms of the categories (Marland, 1977, p. 304).

Selection of categories and sub-categories becomes then an important component of the coding process. The following guidelines were followed in the selection and definition of categories for structural variations analysis. Categories must:

1. Reflect the purpose of the research. The analyst must define the variables being dealt with (conceptual definitions) and specify the indicators which indicate whether a given content datum falls within the category (operational definition);
2. Be exhaustive so that all relevant data can be classified;
3. Be mutually exclusive so that no unit can be placed in more than one category;
4. Be derived from a single classification principle which stipulates that conceptually different levels of analysis be kept separate (Holsti, 1969, p. 95).

Following these guidelines, the categories in ClinSuPICLAS, a structural variations content analysis system, were selected and developed in close reference to the data transcripts and the thinking of Harvey et al. (1961) and Schroder et al. (1967). A more detailed explanation of the motivational principles and supervision conditions on which the category-sets are based is to be found in Appendix D (principles) and Chapter 3 (conditions). Essentially, then, the categories and brief definitions presented here were used for an initial classification of the data. In many instances, the superficial definitions compiled in ClinSuPICLAS were sufficient to categorize the data meaningfully but, at other times, the structural variations content analysis was forced to rely on the fuller descriptions contained in Appendix D and Chapter 3. It should be noted, then, that ClinSuPICLAS is more useful for rendering an "overview" categorization than a detailed analysis. With this caveat in mind, the analysis system is presented in Table 2. The ten categories allow for variation according to the four levels of conceptual development; namely, Level I unilateral dependence, Level II negative dependence, Level III conditional dependence, and Level IV with its combination of autonomy and inter-dependence.

Examples of unitization and categorization. The unit of analysis used by Bloom (1954) was the thought or ideational unit which he defined as "that proportion of the report which is centered on a single idea, activity or thought" (p. 27). Taba et al. (1964) defined a thought unit as "a remark or series of remarks which expresses a more or less complete idea and serves a specified function" (p. 115). Depending upon the category, then, an ideational unit may be constituted by a single

Table 2

CLINICAL SUPERVISION PARTICIPANTS' INTERACTIVE CONCEPTUAL LEVEL ANALYSIS SYSTEM

1. Sensitization

Level I	- closed to personal, open to institutional power.
Level II	- resenting control as interpersonal threat.
Level III	- open to sought-out others.
Level IV	- open to differences in experiences, in task difficulty levels, and in other participant's competence.

2. Confirmation

Level I	- unambiguous prescription for behaviour.
Level II	- successful control of other participant.
Level III	- other participant approval.
Level IV	- rigorous, interdependent task analysis.

3. Refutation

Level I	- no clear prescription for behaviour.
Level II	- evaluative feedback.
Level III	- other participant rejection or pressure towards autonomy.
Level IV	- restriction of autonomy.

4. Neutralization

Level I	- blocking out or distorting critical feedback with categorical judgments.
Level II	- deliberate indifference to own responsibility and other participant's reputation
Level III	- denial of other participant's responsibility or rejection.
Level IV	- denial of relevance of other participant's standard.

5. Bolstering

Level I	- impersonal reaffirmation of duty.
Level II	- setting excessively high performance goals to reaffirm competence.
Level III	- reaffirmation of social acceptance.
Level IV	- reaffirmation of concern with information in feedback.

6. Behavioural Responses

Level I	- rigid and uncritically submissive.
Level II	- other participant devaluation and problem avoidance.
Level III	- excessive reliance on sought-out other's evaluation.
Level IV	- provisional self-correction and information seeking.

(Categories 7-10 inclusive are for analysis of supervisor dialogue and thoughts only)

7. Criteria Determination

Level I	- absolute; supervisor rigid imposition.
Level II	- absolute; supervisor subtle imposition.
Level III	- relative; conjoint evaluation of exploratory behaviour.
Level IV	- relative; supervisee clarification of behavioural consequences.

8. Direction of Rewards

Level I	- external standards; consistent application.
Level II	- external standards; inconsistent application.
Level III	- supervisee exploratory behaviour; supportive feedback.
Level IV	- supervisee exploratory behaviour; conjoint approval of instrumental achievements.

9. Concern for Supervision

Level I	- supervisee ideas ignored, quashed.
Level II	- lack of interpersonal affinity.
Level III	- du al accountability.
Level IV	- supervisee free to experiment.

10. Supervisor Manipulation

Level I	- supervisee behaviour manipulation.
Level II	- expectations beyond supervisee ability.
Level III	- role modelling.
Level IV	- task environment manipulation within supervisee ability.

word, a phrase, a sentence, a number of sentences, or even an entire

paragraph.   The following examples are presented to illustrate how

thought units vary in length according to category selection:

> (I was just thinking about the week at this point, how I'm
> going to plan all the week because I plan usually no more than two
> lessons ahead pretty well because for one thing it's my first year
> and it's easier just to plan a couple of lessons at a time.) (I
> guess in a way I don't want him [the supervisor] to know that.)
> (So, for example with my day-book, I have it open ... to the lesson
> for today, and sometimes I'm hoping that he won't ask me how I'm
> going to continue it tomorrow because I don't have that planned out)
> (Supervisee 'L' thought processes, 9:09), A-L pre-conference #1).

This segment of supervisee 'L's interactive thought processes

contains three units (denoted by parantheses). The first unit relates

to Level II neutralization, where he displays an indifference to his own

professional responsibility to plan ahead and attempts to rationalize

this indiffernece by reference to his status as a beginning teacher.

The second unit, much shorter than the first, addresses Level II sens-

itization where 'L' interprets his concern about planning in terms of an

interpersonal threat. The third unit is an example of a Level II

behavioural response where the suprvisee issues thoughts that relate to

the idea of avoiding the prospect of planning analysis and improvement.

A second example is taken from supervisor 'A', post-conference

#1:

> A: (I know he's taken aback there but ... it doesn't bother me
> because that's what you have to do if you want to get in there,
> then I think you have to take the plunge at that point ... and
> I'm quite comfortable with that ...) (He's covering his mouth
> the whole time he's talking to me when he gets nervous; he's
> obviously nervous right now because he doesn't have time to
> think about this ... he didn't know before hand that I was
> going to ask him that. And his other hand is moving around as
> well. I really don't know what it signifies ... but I took it
> as being nervous.) (Really I think he's searching for a way to
> say "no" at this point) (Supervisor thought processes, 15:48).

The first unit in this segment is illustrative of Level IV supervisor

manipulation, where 'A' displays an information orientation designed to manipulate the supervisee's task environment within the limits of his ability. The second unit is an example of a Level IV behavioural response; 'A' processes the supervisee's verbal and nonverbal behaviour in a tentative manner that addresses provisional self-correction and does not abscind his information-seeking strategy. The third unit, again much shorter than the others, evidences Level III sensitization where he is open to the feelings being experienced by the supervisee during this press.

The last example is the coding of supervisee 'L's thoughts that occurred simultaneously to 'A's reported above:

> L: (I'm thinking right there that this is my best class that he's seen, a group of seven kids who are keen, well, if not keen, at least very bright ... I have a couple of bigger classes that are not the same way, there's a different atmosphere in them; one of them isn't very much into learning and another one I've had a few discipline problems with.) (So I'm thinking that if he comes in the room in this one, it might be a totally different atmosphere and that's kind of threatening to me) (and I sort of would like it to end here since it went so very well)-- but that's me, 'A's not a threatening human being, it's just my reaction, that's the way I think) (Supervisee thought processes, 15:54).

The first unit contains thought revolving around the idea of coping with the supervisor press towards supervisee autonomy, i.e., Level III refutation. The second unit evidences Level II sensitization and the third unit demonstrates a Level II behavioural avoidance response. The fourth unit is a case of Level III neutralization where 'L' exonerates 'A' from any responsibility for his, 'L's, reaction to the supervisor press.

Reliability. Because all transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes were coded by the researcher (who

worked independently on the study), the only index of coding stability possible was intra-coder reliability. Sample segments from the transcripts were coded at two different times to establish a measure of intra-coder reliability. Scott's formula for calculating a reliability coefficient:

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{P_o - P_e}{1.00 - P_e}$$

was used, where P_o represents the agreement between two observers (or one observer on two occasions) and P_e represents the agreement between two observers (or one observer on two occasions) that occurs simply by chance (Ober et al. 1971, p. 80).

Since Tuckwell (1980a, p. 12) cites Marland (1977) and King (1979) as having established a reliability coefficient of 0.70 as an acceptable level of reliability, the intra-coder measure of 0.83 calculated in this study would appear to be at an appropriate level. Four segments of the stimulated recall data were recoded for supervisors 'A', 'B', and 'D', and supervisees 'L', and 'P'. In addition, two segments of data were recoded for supervisor 'C' and supervisees 'M', 'N', and 'O'. Over all twenty-eight segments that were coded at an interval two months apart, an intra-coder reliability coefficient of 0.83 was established.

Chapter 5

COMMUNICATION IN CONFERENCE INTERACTION

This chapter presents the research data. The verbal data are
presented in terms of participants' preactive and interactive levels of
constructive openness and the data contained in conference dialogue and
thought process transcripts are presented in the form of eight
representative case studies.

Four supervisors (A, B, C, D) undertook two complete clinical
cycles with their respective supervisees (L, M, N, O, P). Prior to the
conference data gathering period, supervision participants completed a
Preactive Behaviour Instrument (see Appendix A) designed to rate how they
think they would behave verbally in the supervisor role during the
clinical conference. (Since the Preactive Behaviour Instrument, based as
it was on Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding continuum, merely measures the
verbal climate established by a facilitator, supervisees were instructed
to fill out the instrument as if they themselves were in the role of
supervisor). This rating indicates, before conference interaction, the
level of constructive openness (see Figure 8, Chapter 3) at which clinical
supervision participants think they will function. In addition, each
supervisee completed a brief questionnaire designed to characterize the
role he or she had adopted in previous supervisory intervention.

Each of the fourteen available conferences was analysed for
supervisor verbal behaviour to determine the interactive level of con-
structive openness fostered in the conference. The same procedure was

initially enacted with supervisee verbal behaviour but, since Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding continuum was specifically weighted in favour of a facilitating role, the initiating role adopted by most supervisees in the conference tended to place them at a lower level of interactive constructive openness than they might espouse if they themselves were supervisors. Consequently, analysis of supervisee interactive level of constructive openness was discontinued on the grounds of inappropriate measurement and the premise that the nature of the influence process at work in the conference is largely determined by supervisor level of constructive openness (Wallen, 1972).

After each conference, participants were shown, at separate times, a videotape recording of the interaction. This procedure was used to stimulate their recall of the thoughts they were having during conference interaction. The participants' verbal articulation of thoughts was recorded on audiotape and these introspective recordings, together with the videotaped recordings of the conference dialogue, comprise the principal data in this study. These data, on which the analysis of interactive thought processes and conference dialogue is based, are presented in the form of synoptic case studies. Because of the immense amount of data contained in the fourteen available conferences, a representative sample of eight conference case studies will be presented in this chapter. Although the structural variations analysis of conference dialogue and participant thought processes in Chapter 6 will, of necessity, only focus on four of these eight conferences, the data of all fourteen conferences will be used to derive generalities relating to clinical supervision in Chapter 8.

CONSTRUCTIVE OPENNESS LEVELS

Supervision levels of constructive openness were derived for the preactive and interactive phases of clinical supervision (see Appendix A for procedures). Preactive constructive openness levels indicate the anticipated conference blend of freeing and binding verbal communication behaviours and the interactive levels represent the actual blend observed in conference interaction.

Preactive Level

Table 3 demonstrates participant preactive levels of constructive openness together with their different stages of professional development. The data, e.g., 0-2.41 representing supervisee 'O's score at 2.41 on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument, are organized according to categories first identified by Yarger and Mertens (1980).

Supervisor 'A', male principal of a senior secondary school in northern British Columbia, scored at 6.12 while his supervisee, 'L', a first year male teacher, scored at 5.27 and indicated a preference for the supervisee role of responsible independence.

Supervisor 'B', male principal of an elementary school in northern British Columbia, produced a score of 3.01 in preactive constructive openness. His first supervisee, 'M', a first year male teacher, scored at 4.14 and chose counterdependency as a characterization of the role he had played as a supervisee. Supervisor 'B's second supervisee, 'N', a female teacher of many years standing who had recently given up a rural principalship for her current urban-based classroom teaching position, had not only supervised along clinical lines herself before but also scored at 5.08 and indicated a strong preference for the supervisee

Table 3

Experience of Clinical Supervision Participants and
Preactive Levels of Constructive Openness

Experience as Teacher \ Experience as Supervisor	Supervisor in Training	Beginning Supervisor 1-2 years	Practicing Supervisor 3-5 years	Experienced Supervisor 5-30 years
Pre-Service Student Teacher	O-2.41 : C-3.86			
Beginning Teacher 1-2 years		M-4.14 : B-3.01	L-5.27 : A-6.12	
Practicing Teacher 3-8 years				P-6.37 : D-6.02
Experienced Teacher 8-30 years		N-5.08 : B-3.01		

role of responsible independence.

Supervisor 'C', a male elementary classroom teacher in south-west British Columbia, produced a score of 3.96 while his supervisee, 'O', a final year pre-service female student teacher scored at 2.41 and indicated a preference for unrealistic dependency as a supervisee role.

Supervisor 'D', a long-standing female member of faculty at an Eastern Canadian university, scored at 6.02 in constructive openness while her supervisee, 'P', a beginning male faculty member at the same institution, scored at 6.37 and indicated a preference for responsible independence as a supervisee role.

Interactive Level

The focus of this analysis was on the interactive levels of constructive openness that all four supervisors fostered as they conferenced with their respective supervisees. Table 4 displays supervisors' interactive levels of constructive openness and the associating influence process in each conference, together with the preactive scores of supervisors and supervisees. (The asterisks indicate the conferences selected for case study presentation). It demonstrates the variation observed between each supervisor's preactive and interactive levels and among the different conferences that supervisors respectively conducted.

Supervisor 'A' functioned interactively at level 5 (5.84, 5.74, and 5.27) in his conferencing with supervisee 'L', except during the first pre-conference when his interactive constructive openness level registered at 6.21. Although supervisor 'A' started off working towards internalization, in the latter three conferences he appeared to be leaning more towards a process of identification and the fostering of a role model dependency in supervisee 'L'.

Table 4

Preactive, Interactive Levels of Constructice Openness and
Corresponding Influence Processes in Conference

Supervisor	Preactive	Interactive		Influence Process	Preactive	Supervisee
A	6.12	6.21	pre-conf #1	Internalization *	5.27	L
		5.84	post-conf #1	Identification *		
		5.74	pre-conf #2	Identification		
		5.27	post-conf #2	Identification		
B	3.01	4.61	pre-conf #1	Identification *	4.14	M
		3.48	post-conf #1	Non-Identification *		
		4.33	pre-conf #2	Identification	5.08	N
		3.86	post-conf #2	Non-Identification		
C	3.86		pre-conf #1		2.41	O
		3.62	post-conf #1	Non-Identification *		
			pre-conf #2			
		3.91	post-conf #2	Non-Identification *		
D	6.02	7.06	pre-conf #1	Internalization *	6.37	P
		6.54	post-conf #1	Internalization *		
		7.11	pre-conf #2	Internalization		
		6.59	post-conf #2	Internalization		

Supervisor 'B' fostered interactive constructive openness at levels 4.61 and 4.33 in his pre-conferences with supervisees 'M' and 'N' respectively but consistently functioned at level 3 (3.48 and 3.86) in the post-conferences. While he would appear to espouse identification in the pre-conferences, his post-conference verbal behaviour would likely cause a process of non-identification, with the accompanying supervisee role of counterdependence, to be in effect.

Similarly, supervisor 'C', whose first pre-conference video recording was lost due to equipment failure and who subsequently, for reasons which were contested but not overruled by the researcher, decided not to conduct a second pre-conference, functioned interactively at constructive openness levels 3.62 and 3.91 in the post-conferences. Supervisee 'O', then, would most likely be subject to the influence processes of non-identification and the counterdependent effects it produces in her behaviour.

Supervisor 'D' also shows the tendency evidenced by 'A' and 'B' where the level of interactive constructive openness is higher in the pre-conference than in the post-conference. In the pre-conferences, 'D' functions at levels 7.06 and 7.11, whereas in the post-conferences her interactive communication drops down to levels 6.54 and 6.59. This tendency may be explained by the fact that the pre-conference, by its very design and intent, allows for greater facilitation on the part of the supervisor; the post-conference, however, because of the need to generate courses of action for instructional improvement, may often require the supervisor to push and probe in a direction that is not always initiated by the supervisee. The pre - post conference discrepancy notwithstanding, supervisor 'D' used verbal behaviour in all four

conferences with 'P' that fostered the process of internalization and the accompanying supervisee role of responsible independence.

CONFERENCE CASE STUDIES

The following eight case studies (two from each supervisor) are based on the data contained in the transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes. Consequently, references made to participants' thoughts, feelings, inner states, etc., are done only on the basis of documented responses to the video stimulus. Each point at which participants stopped the tape to report a thought is referred to as a "stimulus point" and events in conference interaction that stimulated in both supervisor and supervisee the recall of interactive thoughts are characterized as "critical incidents".

A-L Pre-conference #1

This conference had a duration of 20 minutes 25 seconds. It begins with supervisee 'L' initiating conversation about some recently suspended students. Principal/supervisor 'A' appears reluctant to talk about this subject (verified in his thought processes) and turns the conversation to karate, a topic of mutual interest.

After 2 minutes 38 seconds of general introductory talk, supervisor 'A' initiates dialogue around a previous class where supervisee 'L' has experienced discipline problems. In addition, he sets the supervisee at ease by suggesting that 'L' use an outline developed by two other Social Studies teachers to satisfy the Department Head's demand for a course outline. Then supervisee 'L', professing an impatience for the day's lesson focus in his thoughts, brings up 'Block D'--the class where he had had discipline problems--of his own volition. Supervisor 'A' is

concerned that 'L' not allude to what was a difficult episode too much,
and, in attempting to help supervisee 'L' realize that he must put it
behind him, supervisor 'A' points out the difficulties that other
teachers have had with that very class to illustrate that the problems
'L' encountered as a first year teacher were not his fault at all.

At 4:50 in the conference, the lesson focus for that day comes.
As background information about the English 11A class is shared, super-
visee 'L' mentions that there are no discipline problems to speak of.
In other words, discipline appears to be still very much on his mind and
his thought at 5:26 reveals that he feels quite nervous about the class-
room visitation. His thought at 5:57 reveals further anxiety about how the
class will perform once the supervisor is present and, during the half-
minute that he alludes to discipline in the class, his inner nervousness
is communicated nonverbally through sighs and pauses and verbally through
statements that essentially qualify his predictions about class performance
and participation. At 7:10 supervisor 'A' sets 'L' at ease about the
discipline concern by suggesting that it no longer appears to be a problem.

In addition to wanting to set supervisee 'L' at ease, supervisor
'A' perceives the conference at 7:10 to be at a point where the supervisee
should do most of the talking. Consequently, he wants supervisee 'L' to
get beyond discipline anxieties and focus more on the substance of the
day's lesson. To facilitate that expression, supervisor 'A' consciously
withdraws verbally and deliberately increases his nonverbal encouragement
(largely nodding of the head) for the supervisee to continue talking. As
a result, supervisee 'L' talks without interruption about the background
to the day's lesson and the details of its focus for 1 minute 15 seconds.
However, after successfully prompting the supervisee to take the initiative

for so long, supervisor 'A' responds to something that has been said just as supervisee 'L' is beginning to talk further about the lesson and interrupts him. In so doing, supervisor 'A' redirects the focus of conference dialogue and, after answering the question, supervisee 'L' waits for the supervisor to initiate. It is possible, then, that supervisee 'L' reads the interruption at 8:26 as a cue for him to stop talking.

Supervisor 'A' then focuses on the reading programme in the school and asks supervisee 'L' what he is doing to encourage reading in the class in question. Supervisee 'L' responds by saying that the students are required to read a novel other than a class text and begins to elaborate on the time he allocated for the reading programme. In so doing, he indicates that he occasionally gives the students free reading periods in class. This point registers strongly in supervisor 'A's thoughts as being unnecessary but he decides to withhold commenting about it. Instead he allows supervisee 'L' to talk uninterruptedly for 1 minute 3 seconds. During this time, 'L' tries to demonstrate how flexible he is in allocating time for the reading programme when, in his thoughts, he recognizes that he does not plan very far ahead. Supervisor 'A' merely listens and sometimes, unbeknown to the supervisee, appears agitated. Three seconds before he begins to initiate the dialogue again, supervisor 'A' coughs nervously, then asks the supervisee what he is specifically going to do today.

At 10:10 supervisee 'L' pulls his day-book towards himself and supervisor 'A' and the latter leans across to adjust the day-book's position to where both are looking over it. Supervisee 'L' is not unsettled by this sharing of the lesson plan even though his forward planning is scant and supervisor 'A' questions about where the students

are in the novel to be dealt with in the day's lesson. Supervisee 'L' describes how the day's lesson will revolve around the four theme essay questions from which the students will choose one to tackle as an assignment. First, he and the students will discuss them, then he will allow students to spend some time on the assignment towards the end of the period. Because only one of the students in the class originally knew what a theme essay was, 'L' goes through an explanation of the progression of how he introduced students to this type of literary composition. He acknowledges that the students have come up with "some startling stuff", the kind of insights that surprise him when he looks back on the Block D class in the previous semester. On hearing this, the second reference to Block D (and its accompanying memories of discipline problems) in the last two minutes, supervisor 'A', having ignored the first reference, now deliberately changes the subject at 11:49 in the conference.

Rather than precipitate a further discussion of discipline concerns, supervisor 'A' asks 'L' how the students perform in their essays once they have organized the material along thematic lines. This question not only serves to avoid a potentially disruptive digression but also keeps the conference focussed on the details of the lesson to be observed. Supervisee 'L' responds that the students writing is generally very good but that there are some "atrocious writers" in the other classes he teaches. Supervisor 'A' betrays (in his thoughts only) that such a remark bothers him but he chooses not to express his opinion on the matter, opting instead to probe how 'L' gives corrective feedback to students who are required to re-write their essays. 'L' articulates what he has done with students to improve their writing of thematic essays and

'A' asks if he, 'L', has noticed a difference between the first and second semesters in student essay writing. Supervisee 'L' verbalizes that, because he is more familiar with the material, there is a difference in his teaching and in student response.

Supervisor 'A' continues to probe the details of the day's lesson by attempting to paraphrase what he thinks is going to take place. Supervisee 'L' quickly jumps in to correct an inaccuracy and 'A' allows him to continue talking without interruption for 48 seconds in the hope that 'L' will explain how he expects the students to tackle the theme essay assignment. But the focus of supervisee 'L's remarks is on the content of the assignment rather than the method, causing 'A' to question him about his expectations for student participation, as the assignment is explained and unpacked during the course of the lesson. The mention of student participation, however, causes a certain perplexity to register in supervisee 'L's thoughts at 16:04. Despite his covert perplexity, supervisee 'L' answers the question in a way that describes what the students are expected to do during the lesson; he expects them to come up with specific details that could be included in the actual essay assignment.

Supervisee 'L's perplexity increases when 'A' asks him how the students will react to the assignment task: "Do they enjoy doing essays?" (Conference dialogue, 16:59). Once again 'L' wonders why 'A' posed that specific question but does not fathom an explanation. He does, however, verbalize his view that few students actually like doing essays but that they get into the assignment once they realize it has to be done. Supervisor 'A's reason for this line of questioning is to help 'L' overcome a tendency towards discouragement about student interest in English

literature that he has sensed in the supervisee during their supervisory relationship.

After further review through paraphrasing of the assignment expectations, supervisor 'A' asks at 17:56 if there is anything that 'L' wants him specifically to look for. The supervisee mentions a concern he has about whether, during a fast flowing discussion, he becomes unduly repetitious as he attempts to orient the lesson. He also asks 'A' to observe for his manner in leading the discussion to see if he is too demanding and therefore intimidating. 'A' promises to check 'L' out on these matters and ends the conference by stating that he'll be in the classroom before the beginning of the period.

A-L Post-conference #1

This conference had a duration of 17 minutes 29 seconds. It begins with 'A' breaking the ice very quickly with a reference to his having just got out of the shower and then asking 'L' what he thought of the lesson. The supervisee shares his impressions suggesting that the lesson was not as fluid as previous ones and that Richard, one of the students, tended to say more than the others. He further articulates that the class missed a girl student named Anita who generally contributes much to the discussion but that he thought the lesson had gone well. Supervisor 'A' agrees with supervisee 'L's appraisal and is impressed in his thoughts that 'L' had spotted the problem of Richard for himself. In the conference dialogue, 'A' tells 'L' how impressed he was during the lesson with the calibre of responses given by students, thus sharing a positive appraisal with the supervisee within the first minute of the post-conference.

After saying that Richard isn't afraid to answer, supervisor 'A'

explores his sensing that the student's constant contribution to the

discussion was bothering 'L'. The supervisee admits that it did but

primarily because he thought it might concern the supervisor. 'A' asks

him what he did consciously to prevent the student from dominating the

discussion and 'L' relates how he deliberately cued off Richard onto the

faces of other students to assess their level of interest and readiness

to add something to the discussion. 'A' further suggests that the other

students do not seem afraid to offer their opinions, his intent being to

probe how supervisee 'L' involved them in the discussion. What supervisor

'A' had noticed (and he articulates this in his thoughts) was that, as he

kept his eyes off Richard, 'L' directed the discussion to other students

by asking them directly. 'A' probes this point then in order to elicit

from 'L' whether this was a deliberate strategy or whether it merely

happened that way because of his concern to spread the discussion around.

Because supervisee 'L' does not articulate what 'A' had noticed,

the supervisor redirects his probe of how 'L' handled the class discussion

to focus on how the girl students respond when Anita, one of the brighter

girls, is present. 'L' explains that they tend to take their cue from

Anita and consequently are more involved when she is not absent, but

adding that one of the girls (Vicki) hardly ever involves herself.

Supervisor 'A' remarks about how impressive it is that the boy students

were quite uninhibited even with him as principal in the room. He had

even talked with the boys before supervisee 'L' arrived and they carried

on as if he, 'A', were not there--behaviour he finds most impressive.

'L' responds that he tries to cultivate this atmosphere in the class and

relates how he structures the lessons for continuity and for facilitating

a naturalness in students during discussion. A noticeable aspect of the

conference interaction in the first three and a half minutes (verified in both participants' thought processes) is the relaxed pose that both supervisor and supervisee have adopted.

When 'L' finishes talking, supervisor 'A' suggests that the supervisee broke the lesson up in an interesting fashion. Not at all certain what the supervisor means by this, 'L' asks him to clarify. 'A' explains that the lesson flowed and that he would like to know how 'L' consciously broke up the period so that it did not appear "jerky" (this representing a concealed reference back to pre-conference discussion of lesson break-up). Supervisee 'L' explicates his deliberate planning for lesson transition; when drawing up his questions, he asks himself which aspect of the discussion will lead into the next question. In this way, he feels prepared enough to go with the flow of the discussion. 'A' mentions that the level of student insights emerging in the discussion appear to be beyond that of Grade eleven and supervisee 'L' agrees, adding that it's incredible. 'A' singles out the student knowledge on the subject of literary symbolism and supervisee 'L' moves forward in his seat at this point, apparently keen to talk about what is going through his mind, i.e., symbolism and how he got the students doing a good deal of work in this area. For 55 seconds, supervisee 'L' talks uninterruptedly about how he found in the first semester that he could not take student knowledge for granted and how he directly taught them all about literary symbolism and its specific vocabulary before they began studying the text for this semester. Throughout this talk, 'L' registers particular satisfaction with the way in which he has taught the students about symbolism.

After attempting unsuccessfully at 6:38 to bring up again the question of the girl student responses, supervisor 'A' turns to probe the

purpose of the assignment questions on the board. Talking uninterruptedly for a further 45 seconds, 'L' answers the supervisor's question by verbalizing a strategy for putting the questions on the board. To 'A's probing about why he specifically required the students to copy the questions down, 'L' answers, to the satisfaction of his supervisor, that the questions are close to his test questions so that, in effect, he is giving the students an opportunity to prepare for the final examination without telling them as such. He goes on to expound how the students often switch their choice of essay topics and he finds that giving them four questions from which to choose helps to foster this kind of autonomous thinking. In his thoughts, 'L' admits to being positively startled by how the students in this class choose their essay topics; their independence of thought as they consider first one and then another question and what they each involve is very rewarding to him as a teacher.

Supervisor 'A' then directs the focus to part of the pre-conference agreement, namely 'L's manner in handling the class. Both participants agree that 'L' is much more relaxed and 'A', suggesting that the supervisee is not being too harsh with the students at all, asks if he started out in a tough fashion. Supervisee 'L' answers that he did not start out that way; rather he tries to feel out a new group on the first day and he felt with the group in question (a small group of accelerated students) that he had no need to be as harsh as he would be with a larger group. For 1 minute 16 seconds, 'L' articulates how he introduced the course and his expectations for student performance at the beginning of the semester stressing the academic nature of the course and stressing that the students in the class had the potential for holding their own in second year university.

Following this, supervisor 'A' brings in feedback relating to a further aspect of the pre-conference agreement, namely,'L's tendency to jump around and repeat himself in the discussion. 'A' shares his impression that there was no evidence of such behaviour in the lesson observed, describing how one question led to another and how, as a result, the lesson flowed and the discussion contributed to the objective of unearthing details that they could utilize in their essays. 'L' is pleased at this feedback and further waxes about the hidden structure he applies to orchestrate discussion, a structure that the students resisted initially.

For the next 2 minutes and 3 seconds, the conference discussion appears to become tangential in its focus. Responding to a question about what happened in the class after the supervisor left, supervisee 'L' describes how one student had asked a question about British boys (the novel under study was Golding's Lord of the Flies) and how the class had discussed this. The conference focus then shifts, largely at the initiative of the supervisee, to a lively discussion of British private schools and their particular ethos. During this discussion, 'L', who sees this topic as exposing an interesting alternate life-style to students who live in northern British Columbia, does most of the talking with 'A' merely emitting three short retorts.

During this section of the conference dialogue, supervisor 'A' has allowed 'L' to unwind for over two and one half minutes as he thinks about putting a strategic question: namely, to ask if he can observe 'L' teaching the Block D Social Studies class. As such, the last two and a half minutes of this post-conference contain a most significant critical incident. At 15:08, 'A' first thinks that the time has come to put the

question; at 15:18 he seizes an opening to lead into the question. 'A' says that he would like to try something on for size because the lesson just observed was tremendous and he cannot see much that needs improvement. He goes on to add that a lot of the things they were concerned about in his teaching the previous semester had totally disappeared, causing the supervisee to feel elated about how well the lesson had gone. At 15:48, supervisor 'A' puts the question but initially in a general, tentative manner: "I would like to, if you're agreeable, not come tomorrow [Wednesday] but come Thursday to one of the larger classes?" Supervisor 'A' takes the supervisee one step at a time--first the change from the small English class to a larger class (it is some time later when he specifically asks to come to the Socials 11 class held in Block D).

Because the supervisee is taken aback by this unexpected turn of events, supervisor 'A' continues to talk about possible pre-conference arrangements for Thursday's visit. This filling of the gap while 'L' is deep in thought is a conscious strategy on the part of supervisor 'A'; he reported thinking that to have an empty silence could have proved uncomfortable and highly embarassing for the supervisee. Supervisee 'L' merely says "Thursday? Thursday?" and supervisor 'A' keeps talking about how they could key in on some of 'L's concerns in a different class so as to effect a comparison. 'L' counters that he had only planned to be using videotapes for the rest of the week; 'A' asks if that is in the English classes and 'L' answers in the affirmative. Supervisor 'A' then puts a further general question: "What about the Socials class?" (This general question comes at 16:20 in the conference, following on the initial request first voiced at 15:48). 'L' responds that he would be covering Louis Riel and 'A' quickly mentions a more experienced teacher's class he

had visited where a useful film was used to introduce the subject. This

is then followed at 16:33 by 'A' articulating a specific request to come

to the Social Studies class, 45 seconds after the initial request for a

change in the visitation schedule and 13 seconds after first alluding to

the Social Studies class as a possible alternative.

The dialogue at this point reveals the difficulty that supervisee

'L' is experiencing:

L: (responding to 'A's request) Hum ... uhmm (long and drawn out) ...
   on Thursday?
A: On Thursday yes, not tomorrow.
L: Let me think ... (pause of 2 seconds) sure, I think so, it's a
   different class.

'A' agrees with 'L' that the Social Studies class is very different and

attempts to disarm the situation by talking about the fact that there are

two or three students in the class that make it different but that he

feels he can help the supervisee more in that situation. While super-

visor 'A' is talking in this manner, 'L' sighs deeply and is visibly

"tuned out". 'A' continues by discussing pre-conference arrangements

but the supervisee appears to have difficulty in following what 'A' is

saying. Nevertheless, supervisor 'A' continued to talk about logistics

in order, as he put it, to settle supervisee 'L' down and this process

extended into the time that followed the conference videotaping. In

other words, supervisor 'A' shut off the video-camera at 17:29 so that

he could talk more confidentially with the supervisee so as to settle

him down and make him feel less uncomfortable about the next cycle.

B-M Pre-conference #1

This conference lasted 12 minutes exactly. It begins with super-

visor 'B' posing two curt questions (What am I going to see today? Do

you have a piece of scrap paper?) followed by a pause of twelve seconds

where both participants attempt to organize themselves. Supervisee 'M'
begins to describe his new remedial group, naming the individual students
that supervisor 'B' has not yet seen in this particular classroom, stating
that these students will be working on subtraction. At this 'B'
interrupts to ascertain if this is a Math lesson. 'M' appears taken
aback somewhat by this but continues by talking about another group in
the class to be observed. Supervisor 'B' tries unsuccessfully to focus
the supervisee and confesses in his thoughts at 1:01 in the conference to
debating whether to come out and ask 'M' for the lesson objectives.

By 1:16, however, 'B's need for a focus appears to be satisfied
when 'M' mentions that he had done addition with the remedial group in
previous lessons, that today he would give them a worksheet on subtraction
and they would be working independently, and that next week he intended
to move them on to multiplication. Supervisee 'M' then goes on to talk
about the Grade 5 students starting a brand new unit and hesitatingly
asks at 1:37 if these students would have been introduced to fractions in
the Grade 4 curriculum. Supervisor 'B' retorts: "they've probably had
some, how much is another question," and encourages 'M' not to assume
too much.

Immediately following this, supervisee 'M' brings up at 2:04 the
fact that he has not pre-tested the Grade 5 students for their knowledge
of fractions. This he did not think was necessary because when he put
some fractions up on the board for the Grade 6 students, few of the class
knew anything about them. As 'M' is explaining his reasons for not pre-
testing, a remarkable incident occurs. At 2:14 he is beginning to say:

    M: ... but one thing that will be different for them is ...
    B: (interrupts) What's happening with them then?
    M: I'm going to be introducing them to fractions.
    B: So you're going to be direct teaching them then? (Conference
        dialogue, 2:14).

The supervisee mumbles an affirmative answer and then describes the

materials that he'll be using with the Grade 5's for the purpose of

introducing fractions to them. Supervisor 'B' listens intently but by

3:01 he is frustrated with supervisee 'M' because the latter is not

informing him of specific teacher behaviours. Consequently, supervisor

'B', displaying a concern for teacher behaviours that comes from his self-

acknowledged pre-occupation with the Madeline Hunter strategy for

instruction and learning, attempts to clarify:

> B: So you're going to have to teach them then how to use that
> material before they actually use it?
> M: Yes. What I had put down here (referring to lesson plan) was I
> want you to look at my method of introducing it and (pause of
> 2 seconds) mainly what I do with them is guided practice
> (Conference dialogue, 3:01).

Supervisee 'M' then redirects the focus to the materials to be used and

does not explain what he as teacher will be doing; he merely articulates

what he expects the students to do with the material strips to recognize

a fraction.

At 3:57 supervisor 'B' switches the focus to the Grade 6 students

with the question: "what about the Grade 6's?" 'M' responds that hope-

fully the marker will initially be correcting their previous day's work

while he works with the Grade 5 students. He continues to relate how he

intends to switch quickly to the Grade 6's but, in the middle of this

explanation, is overcome by a bout of nervousness (verified in his thought

processes) that causes his speech to falter for five seconds beginning at

4:17. Once over this, 'M' describes background details to the day's

lesson for the Grade 6's, informing how they started addition and sub-

traction fractions the day before. He then goes on to talk about a

worksheet that is to accompany the materials in the day's lesson; although

he relates what the students have already done with the worksheet and

what they have to do with it today, the purpose of this digression is not clearly articulated. He does, however, state clearly at 4:59 the lesson objective; that the students have to make equivalent fractions using concrete materials. Interestingly, supervisor 'B' claims in his thought processes at 3:57 to have perceived that for himself without the supervisee ever having stated it at any time in the conference.

From 5:01 until 6:10 a further incident occurs. 'B' asks 'M' if the students know how to use the material strips to show equivalent fractions. 'M' responds in the negative. 'B' continues:

> B: So that's what you're doing today, teaching students how to use material strips?
> M: No. All I'm going to say is tell them to make equivalent fractions with their strips (then he checks himself and says) hopefully, they're all going to have scissors, there's usually about five pairs you can pass around (supervisor 'B' agitated), and they'll cut out their strips and just slide them along until they line up two fractions that are equivalent around the same denominator, and then they can do whatever they want, they can either write an addition equation with it or a subtraction equation.
> B: That's really going to be guided practice (Conference dialogue, 5:22-6:10).

During this episode, supervisor 'B' processes two thoughts, one at 5:45 and the other at 6:08. The thought occurring at 5:45 is critical of the supervisee's logistical planning and coincides with 'B's visible display of agitated behaviour. Since 'M' did not report processing the supervisor's nonverbal behaviour at this point in the conference, it is quite probable that 'B's agitated behaviour was only noticeable on the video-tape.

The discussion continues at 6:10 with 'M' informing 'B' of what he would like the supervisor to look for:

> M: 1) Clarity of direction for the Grade 6's because they're going to need a lot of directions before they understand what I want them to do; and 2) clarity of my examples that I give them.
> B: (finishes writing) OK, now let's see if I've got this right. You're going to give some brief directions to that new [remedial]

> group and they're going to be working independently.
> (M acknowledges this to be the case)
> B: Then you're going to give the directions for marking to the
> Grade 6's, get them started into that activity, then you're
> going to introduce and develop ... [sic] using those concrete
> materials with the Grade 5's.
> M: That's right.
> B: Then you're going to move to the Grade 6's and try and develop
> the use of the strips for adding and subtracting fractions. Now
> while you're working with the Grade 6's, what are Grade 5's doing,
> are they working independently?
> M: Yes. They have to construct a table which is pretty simple.
> B: So you're not seeing any problems with that?
> M: I don't think so. I don't even think they'll finish it and have
> nothing to do (Conference dialogue, 6:10-7:50).

One intriguing aspect of this episode is that neither participant

reported processing any thoughts between 6:10 and 7:50. In addition,

there appear to be many instances that warrant further probing for

purposes of clarification, yet neither supervisor nor supervisee chooses

to pursue them.

In order to reach agreement on how to collect data during the

observation phase, 'B' begins to review at 7:56 but, as noted in his

thoughts, without looking at supervisee 'M':

> B: 1) Method of introduction with the Grade 5's.
> (M nods in agreement)
> B: 2) Clarity of directions for the Grade 6's, plus clarity of
> examples. (Pause of 2 seconds) What if I did a verbatim thing
> where I took down all the teacher talk for the Grade 5's?
> (M pauses for 3 seconds at 8:20 and is just about to speak when 'B'
> indicates nonverbally that the supervisee should not yet verbalize
> his thoughts on the matter)
> B: For the Grade 6's, I'll take down only the things that deal with
> directions and examples.
> M: (nodding) OK.
> B: If something else comes in like questioning or that sort of
> thing, we probably won't deal with it, we probably won't collect
> data on that, just your directions (Conference dialogue, 7:56-
> 8:57).

Supervisee 'M' sits thinking, his hand on the side of his face for a

full two seconds. Then he adds something to the discussion which appears

to build on what supervisor 'B' has suggested about data-gathering; 'M'

asks if data can be collected on the remedial group to give him feedback

on how well he keeps them on task through nonverbal communication

behaviours while he is dealing with the Grade 5 and 6 students. Super-

visor 'B' senses an overload of concerns for him to collect data on

during the observation phase and attempts to communicate this thought.

However, the nature of the communication that follows between 9:06 and

10:21 gives the conference an air of pathos:

> M: (talking about the remedial group) They tend to fool around a bit
>   and give each other a hard time ...
> B: (interrupting) What I'm wondering is how to do that? I can do ...
> M: (interrupting) Well, the verbatim thing, anything that related
>   to that [remedial] group that I had to say and ...
> B: (interrupting) What about nonverbal, when you just make a look?
> M: (nonplussed) OK.
> B: Do you want me just to ...
> M: (interrupting) That would possibly be ...
> B: (interrupting) Maybe if I set up the [data-gathering] chart this
>   way and just made a statement about the independent [remedial]
>   group, about anything you had to do ...
> M: (interrupting) ... to keep them on task ...
> B: ... and that would be mostly control statements or behaviour.
>   (At the end of a seven second pause at 10:07 during which time
>   'B' writes and 'M' processes a thought, 'B' continues) I think I
>   can manage that. ('M' laughs nervously). If I have to eliminate
>   something, I'll probably eliminate this one [remedial group con-
>   trol statements] this time.
> M: (placidly) OK. (Conference dialogue, 9:06-10:21).

The lack of active, attentive listening on the part of both participants

renders this episode an example of miscommunication. Both are so caught

up in what they individually want to say that they potentially end up

talking past each other.

Supervisee 'M' attempts one final time to suggest that supervisor

feedback on the remedial group would be very useful for him to reflect

upon, but, with a nonverbal gesture, 'B' dismisses it as involving an

information overload. Although he agrees, supervisee 'M' is quite

critical of the supervisor in his thoughts when 'B' says this at 11:06.

Outwardly in the conference dialogue, 'M' tentatively concludes that 'B'

will stop collecting data when he, 'M', has finished giving directions
to the Grade 5 and 6 students. The conference is then drawn to a con-
clusion by supervisor 'B' checking that the verbatim data-chart will
accurately depict the supervisee's lesson concerns. 'M' agrees and the
conference ends.

B-M Post-conference #1

This conference lasted 12 minutes 21 seconds. One could have
expected a supervisor like 'B', caught up as he appears to be in the
Hunter strategy for instruction and learning, to begin by reviewing the
pre-conference agreement as a means of setting the tone and stating the
objectives for the post-conference. But this was not done. The confer-
ence begins with supervisor 'B' talking about the data and supervisee
'M' appears to be studying it intensely. After nine seconds, 'B' is
tempted to stop the conference (verified in thought processes) because of
his perception that 'M' has not yet looked at the data. Instead, 'B'
begins to review the pre-conference agreement.

> B: What I was trying to chart, you remember, was, 1) the method used
> to introduce the Grade 5's, 2) clarity of directions to Grade 6
> and examples given to them, and 3) to check if you ['M'] needed
> any control statements with the remedial kids (Conference
> dialogue, 00:10).

Supervisor 'B' then hands 'M' the data chart again and asks for his
impressions. The supervisee responds initially by appearing to pluck the
first impression to cross his mind: "I don't use words like OK, unless
you just omitted those things". 'B' replies that he did not intentionally
omit anything but that he is more concerned with 'M's directions. While
'B' leans on his left elbow, his hand cupping the side of his face at 1:05
in the conference, 'M' responds to the specific request about directions
by saying that he thinks the lesson went fairly well.

Supervisor 'B' then suggests that they break down the data chart and look at the Grade 5's first. At 1:29 the supervisee asks if he handled a student's question about pre-testing in a correct manner. Supervisor 'B' takes six seconds to answer, interspersed with sighs; he then states that he cannot remember the reason given for not pre-testing. 'M' responds that he had categorically stated "we're not going to" which supervisor 'B' adjudges at 1:43 as being fair. 'B' attempts to inject some humour into the conference by suggesting that, when the students were subsequently learning fractions, it became clear why they did not need pre-testing.

'B' then attempts to focus the post-conference discussion on 'M's directions with the question: "did the directions seem to go well?" 'M' says that he thought they did and immediately redirects the focus to a further concern of his, that of closure. Because he was not observing in the classroom when closure was effected, supervisor 'B' suggests at 2:17 that they could look at that during the next cycle. Despite this supervisor suggestion, 'M' continues to talk about how he undertook closure, apparently trying to provide 'B' with the data necessary to appraise the effecting of instructional closure. 'B' brings the focus back to directions by suggesting that the Grade 5's were able to follow the supervisee's directions (with which 'M' agrees) and reports that there were not many questions about procedures, nor did many students interrupt supervisee 'M' once they were into the activity. Following immediately on this at 3:08, 'B' asks if there is anything that 'M' would change in his directions to the Grade 5 students, anything he would do differently next time. 'M' takes an inordinately long time to think about the question—eighteen seconds in all of silence not broken by the supervisor—

then retorts that he would not change anything. To reinforce this view 'M' describes what he did to set the lesson activities under way and happens to mention that he had to go quickly because he did not have much time. Supervisor 'B' seizes the opening at 3:53: "did you feel pressed for time?" After a six second pause, supervisee 'M' answers, "a little bit", but counters that the students did the activity well and that, to have made more time would not only have proved difficult but would also have reduced the amount of time he had for fielding student questions.

At 4:33 the discussion focus moves to 'M's control statements and the supervisee describes what the students in the remedial group can do if they do not understand the instructions--they are free to go and ask other students who know what to do. When this occurred in the lesson, 'M' felt it presented no problem and he viewed this and his nonverbal control efforts as being "pretty good". In expanding why his classroom management went so well, 'M' makes reference to two students who, he maintains, know what to do and left the table and he consequently did not see the need to control them. These two, he continues, are often behavioural problems when they get together but that was not the case today.

Supervisor 'B' changes the topic to the Grade 6 directions: "did that go pretty well the way you wanted it?" Supervisee 'M' responds that it did and follows up by demonstrating that the two students he least expected to understand the directions gave him correct answers when he checked for understanding. Supervisor 'B' reports in his thoughts at 5:30 an increasing frustration at 'M's unwillingness to examine his directions. As the supervisee is relating about the two students he did not expect to grasp the directions but who did, in fact, understand, 'B' attempts to interrupt. But 'M' is determined to make his point (raising his voice to

gain control at 5:39) that the directions must have been clear if these students understood. Supervisor 'B' does not disagree.

The supervisee further states that he checked other students for understanding as well as the two mentioned and, since they all understood the procedures, set them into the activity; but, he notes at 6:12, he could see that they would not have time to get into the second activity. The mention of time brings supervisor 'B' back to raising the question of directions, adding that he had tried to record enough data to depict how the lesson went. Supervisee 'M', expressing a sense of confusion in his thoughts at 6:27, takes five seconds to answer. Eventually he retorts: "I don't know, was I clear enough?" 'B' reads this as 'M' expressing a need for some supervisory support; at 6:28 he attempts to give it by saying: "it seems to me that they were able to do it." Consequently, 'M' verbalizes the notion (first articulated in his thought processes at 6:27) that he cannot think of any other way of giving the directions. At this, supervisor 'B' is visibly frustrated and attempts to rectify the situation by telling the supervisee:

> B: There were a couple of things that I worried about at the time but it didn't seem to cause a problem.
> ('B' then repeats the directions about the scissors as they were said chronologically by 'M').
> B: 1) You're going to have to have scissors—and all the students started digging in their desks for scissors—and 2) but before you get your scissors ('M' here emits a laugh as if he has had a sudden insight) you're going to have to make ... and then you started showing them what they had to do with the scissors.
> M: Oh.
> B: I wasn't quite sure at that point if some would be taken up with finding their scissors that they wouldn't listen to the second instruction.
> M: So I probably should have mentioned that [direction #1] last?
> B: Possibly. The students don't need the materials before they know what they're doing. (Tentatively) Does that seem to make sense? It seemed to work today, though.
> M: That's because I probably realized what I'd done. I cut right in and got them into the assignment (Conference dialogue, 6:28-8:10).

This last statement by the supervisee is not followed up by 'B'. Rather

than probe the issue, supervisor 'B' cites further example of faulty

directions:

> B: The other thing was when you were talking about the assignment.
> You said: I want you to combine as many parts as you can [cut
> out of cardboard] for addition and subtraction; then you went
> back and said: I want you to make up ten addition equations. So
> you were starting again, I want you to make up etc., I wasn't
> quite sure why you were repeating that same thing over and over.
> Now one of the things that crossed my mind was that maybe you
> weren't sure everyone had heard you.
> M: Well, that's probably because I hadn't decided on how many I
> would have them do and I was kind of looking at the time and I
> was thinking in my mind, this is fairly simple, it's not asking
> too much to ask for ten of each.
> B: Was time pressure a factor then?
> M: In a way because I was concerned they couldn't finish what I had
> set them to do and I wanted time with the remedial group
> (Conference dialogue, 8:10-9:21).

At this point in the conference, supervisor 'B' turns to asking

'M' if he, the supervisee, felt the lesson objectives were met. 'M' is

quite definite that they were. 'B' then asks if there are any changes

that the supervisee would make. 'M' waits six seconds before issuing a

tentative "no", that is accompanied by a nervous laugh. He goes on to

add that if he had read the data over earlier, he might think differently;

this statement at 10:26 bemuses supervisor 'B' in his thoughts. Verbally,

'B' proceeds to suggest that, if 'M' is ever short of time in a similar

instructional situation, he, as teacher, should make sure the students do

not obtain the materials before the directions for the assignment,

culminating with: "that's what you did, you gave them scissors, then gave

them directions for the assignment." 'M' nervously agrees with this

appraisal.

The conference draws to a close with supervisor 'B' asking 'M'

what value he saw in the process of clinical supervision. When the

direct question "do you see any value in the process?" is put, the

supervisee moves forward nervously in his seat, sighs and says that this is what they have been doing any way and that he does see value because it gives him a chance to go over what the supervisor wrote. 'M' compares the process favourably to the more conventional approaches he was subject to during student teaching days, adding that the clinical approach is useful because it allows for a discussion of the data. In a final question, supervisor 'B' asks if the changes made by 'M' as a result of supervisory intervention were worthwhile. Upon hearing the supervisee's tentative agreement, 'B' concludes the conference by stating that there is no point in bringing in.changes just for the sake of change.

C-O Post-conference #1

This conference had a duration of 11 minutes 37 seconds. The lesson under discussion had involved the teaching of fractions using pies to a Grade 6 class. Supervisor 'C' opens the conference by saying how much he enjoyed the lesson and asks supervisee 'O' for her impressions. Immediately she reveals a degree of reflection on what took place during the lesson:

> O: Maybe it was my attitude, but when I first brought out that I was going to use the pies, the children didn't seem as motivated with the pies.
> C: You think perhaps because they've worked with them before?
> O: Yes, maybe I should have used something else to change things.
> C: Perhaps you could have. What I was thinking when you said initially that it was perhaps your attitude, do you think the way you brought it up and said you were going to do it was good reason why you got that result?
> O: Maybe I didn't say it with much enthusiasm?
> C: Enthusiasm?--that's possible. Well, erm, as far as them responding to you, and understanding the concepts of one half and the one quarter, do you think that you yourself got that across to them?
> O: Yes, I think so (spoken very definitely).
> C: I think so, too (spoken very diffidently). I think the children understood that in ways that, I think using the pies, what else could you perhaps have used?
> O: Squares? That might have been easy to cut as well, but I thought the pies would be the easiest thing to work with (Conference dialogue, 00:13-1:35).

During this episode, both participants process a thought at 1:01 at the mention of the word enthusiasm and supervisor 'C' processes a thought at 1:20 when he very diffidently agrees with the supervisee's positive appraisal of her teaching. 'O's thought at 1:02 reinforces the impression that her reflecting on the lesson has given her insight into her own performance, while 'C's thought at this time represents a dissatisfaction with the conference focus. At 1:20 'C' positively disagrees with the supervisee in his thoughts but not in the actual conference dialogue.

Supervisor 'C' then turns to questioning 'O' about a tactic that she had planned to incorporate into the lesson. When the supervisee cannot think as to what she failed to include in the lesson, 'C' tells her that he thought she would have made something of the different nature of the imitation pies (chocolate and strawberry) by drawing attention to the red and brown colours. 'O' responds that she forgot about it once the lesson was under way. At 2:26, 'C' redirects the focus to 'O's lesson pacing, asking the supervisee for her comments. The supervisee responds in a manner that 'C' adjudged, in his thoughts, as being too global and unspecific:

    O: People were getting a little fidgety near the end, perhaps I was
        going too slow?
    C: Did you feel that half-way, I mean, at any given point in the
        lesson?
    O: Oh, when I was starting to do the groupings, because they did
        some work last time but they didn't fully understand it and
        when I went over it with them, I guess they looked (pause of 2
        seconds) bored or something? They didn't understand or they were
        confused, maybe? (said questioningly) (Conference dialogue,
        2:26-2:58).

Supervisor 'C' then asks 'O' what she thinks the reasons were for the student confusion. The supervisee pauses for six seconds, is just about to speak when 'C' steps in to suggest that it may have been the presentation that confused them. 'O' articulates how she may have

proceeded too quickly in one section of her presentation for some

students to grasp the concepts she was putting across, and supervisor

'C', nodding, agrees with her in a most definite manner. He then tells

her how much he liked the supervisee's strategy of getting students to

come to the front and cut the cardboard into halves and quarters, seeing

this as an indicator of student involvement and a check on their under-

standing.

At 4:22 the supervisor brings 'O' to the recognition of what he

considers to be a major piece of critical feedback. The dialogue between

4:42 and 5:14 reveals the manner in which this strategic point was

reached:

> C: One thing that came up at the end, and I don't know whether you
>   can pinpoint a reason for that, is that some of them said, oh,
>   I don't understand, when you were going through their worksheets.
>   Did you notice which children were saying that?
> O: David and, oh, those people who weren't paying attention (both
>   participants burst out laughing, 'C' more demonstrably)
> C: That's right, I think so. And I think that came across to you,
>   I mean, did that come across to you? Did you realize that at
>   the time that that was the reason for their confusion?
> ('O' tries to say what she thinks but 'C' overrides her)
> C: Those that weren't on task and paying attention, and there were
>   a few stragglers at the end, and they, I got the impression they
>   didn't understand because they just weren't paying attention.
>   (Without any pause) The other thing too is about your questioning
>   techniques (Conference dialogue, 4:42-5:14).

This sudden jump in focus takes the supervisee aback somewhat causing

her in her thoughts to question what was wrong with the way she had

distributed her questions. Verbally, 'O' counters that she tried to

involve as many children as she could as a means of determining the

extent to which the students understood. When 'C' questions her as to

whether there were good indicators in the students' answers and in their

written work that they understood the concepts, the supervisee responds

that there were.

Visibly surprised by the definite positive appraisal issued by the supervisee, 'C' attempts to come at the question of student understanding along a different tack. He asks 'O' if she felt the students fully understood the concept of a "whole" when they were dividing the materials into groups of two and four. 'O' hesitatingly begins an explanation, but the supervisor jumps in to point out that she first needed to demonstrate what a whole group was before she got the students to divide it into halves and quarters. 'C' does add that 'O' did do this later on and at 7:21 the supervisee admits in her thoughts to the validity of this critical feedback. At the same point in the conference, supervisee 'O' relates the incident that made her realize that the students had not grasped the whole grouping, necessitating a modification of her lesson strategy.

Supervisor 'C' then redirects the focus to the balance of teacher talk and student talk in the class. Although he shares no data with the supervisee, 'C' asks 'O' how she perceived the balance during the lesson. As she thinks, 'C' fills the silence with a series of yes-no questions:

> C: Did you find that it was evenly balanced out? Did you find that you gave them enough opportunity to work with examples? Or did you find that you were teaching and not giving them a chance to talk? What did you feel about that? (Conference dialogue, 7:25-7:54).

Supervisee 'O' responds that she thought the students had sufficient opportunity to participate and that the class worked with enough examples.

Following on this comes a critical incident where both participants process thoughts at 8:40. Supervisor 'C' asks 'O' how she would proceed in her next lesson with the teaching of fractions and supervisee responds:

> O: I'll do a little bit of review of a quarter and a half just to make sure they all know the concepts and I'd be introducing one third.

C: In your next lesson, yeah? ('C' about to continue when supervisee speaks again)

O: How do you feel about that?

C: (stumbling over his words, continues) If you're confident as a result of going through their worksheets that they've grasped the concepts, then I think it's probably time to move on (Conference dialogue, 8:14-8:62).

In their respective thoughts at 8:40, supervisee 'O' espouses an uncertainty about what freedom she has to put questions to the supervisor and the supervisor registers dissatisfaction with his overt verbal response and strong disagreement with 'O's comment concerning review.

Supervisor 'C' then switches to talking about group control and student inattention, two aspects of the lesson which the supervisee has suggested did not go so well, and proceeds to ask her what she would do next time to ensure that students are more attentive and her group control is better. 'O' pauses for 7 seconds before responding and during this time at 9:30 both participants process thoughts. The supervisor notes 'O's hesitation which is grounded in her wish to throw the questions back to 'C' to find out what he would suggest. But she does not sense the freedom to do that, so she ventures forth with two suggestions, spoken in a very uncertain tone. Supervisor 'C' counters by saying that he has no suggestions as such, he merely wants 'O' to articulate specific strategies with which she would be comfortable. This statement at 10:02 ostensibly helps soothe the difficult situation but 'O' demonstrates in her thoughts that she really does not believe what supervisor 'C' has just said. At the same time 'C' thinks that he is pushing the supervisee to talk when she really has no ideas for dealing with discipline and group control and tries to aid 'O' by asking if there is anything she can do to keep the students in their rows so as to avoid potential disruptions. The supervisee, however, cannot think of anything and 'C' suggests that group control is one area where they should maybe work in conjunction. The

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supervisor then draws the conference to a conclusion by reviewing the

major points of the feedback and stating how pleased he is that the

students did grasp the concept of a whole.

C-O Post-conference #2

This conference had a duration of 10 minutes 47 seconds. The

lesson was focussed on Social Studies around the world, particularly

Japanese customs and clothes. The conference begins with supervisor 'C'

stating at the outset that it was a very good lesson and that the

children seemed to get a great deal out of it. On hearing this, super-

visee 'O' is visibly pleased and attempts to articulate, in response to

'C's question at 0:59, what the positive points were about the lesson.

Although supervisor 'C' is concerned in his thoughts that 'O' not think

there were also negative points to follow, the supervisee answers the

question without hesitation:

    O: I was quite pleased with the enthusiasm from the children, they
        got very excited at certain points, especially when I was giving
        out the food. (Both laugh)
    C: (fills the silence after the laughter with positive comments)
        I think it was terrific having your own background experience so
        you could relate to the different kinds of housing and shelters
        in Japan and that you could bring in some of the clothes and
        food for them to sample.
    O: Oh, that's one of the reasons why I started this unit with Japan
        because that would be my strong point for getting the children
        interested.
    C: Did you speak at all this afternoon? (Conference dialogue, 0:59-
        2:04).

This sudden switch at 2:04 confuses 'O' in her thoughts as she tries to

understand the focus of 'C's next remarks. Eventually, she realizes that

the supervisor is asking about the 'special occasions' topic in the

lesson which she then addresses. 'O' explains how she first asked the

students if they celebrated any special occasions that are celebrated in

Canada and then began describing certain special occasions that are

celebrated in Japan. Supervisor 'C' notes that she led the students into a discussion of Japanese special celebrations by first letting them talk about their own experiences of celebrated occasions. After adding, "that's a good parallel to draw", supervisor 'C' moves on to his next point.

This next point which, in his thoughts at 3:11, 'C' considers to be the most important in the conference, is designed to show to 'O' that, even though at times during the lesson the children were extremely excitable, she as teacher did not appear to be bothered by it. To 'C's question as to whether it bothered her at all, supervisee 'O' succinctly says, "no, it didn't". Supervisor 'C' then describes the lesson situation further in order specifically to effect a comparison with 'O's previous instructional performances:

> C: No, I thought that was tremendous because before, I think, perhaps in the early stages of your practicum, that when that sort of thing erupted, how do you think you would have reacted?
> O: I wouldn't know how to get them back into their groups again to settle them down, especially with people watching me (Conference dialogue, 3:11-3:33).

After reiterating that he thought 'O' was comfortable with her class control in this day's lesson, supervisor 'C' once again effects a quick change of focus. He now turns to question the supervisee about the clothing she used in the lesson as a visual aid. 'C' wonders if 'O' could have done one more thing besides display the Japanese garment. The supervisee is quick to recognize that she could have allowed students to try the garment on, but adds that she did not have a suitable size. Supervisor 'C' then verifies that this was in fact a girl's garment and asks if boys wear a similar item or something different. At this, 'O' remembers something she had planned to do in the lesson but which, in fact, she forgot; she did not describe how the boy's garment differed in

shape and colour from the one she was displaying. Supervisor 'C', however, does not think this to be a great oversight on her part.

The supervisor then redirects the focus to congratulate 'O' on her lesson pacing, adding that neither he nor the children noticed the time, the lesson going so quickly. 'C' comments that the supervisee did extremely well to hold the children's interest for about an hour. He follows this by asking whether the supervisee utilized her questions to achieve this effect and 'O' answers in the affirmative. Supervisor 'C' then redirects the focus to a part of the lesson which he felt could have stood improvement:

> C: Toward the end, when you assigned, it was, er, a booklet that you're working in with them so that they can write about different parts of the world, that was the only thing that came to my mind that perhaps didn't come across, and I think the Faculty Adviser caught it too, is the way you had discussed or directed them to the exercise you wanted them to do and of course good old Dean [student] put his hand up and said "what am I supposed to do" after you had just told, explained to the class. Is there another way, perhaps, you could have thought about going about doing that?
> O: (processes thought at 6:18 and then responds) Maybe I could have asked for suggestions as to how to start the story (said questioningly) and put a sentence up on the board?
> C: Yeah, I think that's a good possibility. I think, well, in my opinion, I think it was a bit too general (Conference dialogue, 5:46-6:36).

Having broached the subject, however, 'C' switches to giving positive feedback about the supervisee's use of a boy student's idea. He feels that this stimulated an enthusiasm in the student that would evidence itself in his written work. The mention of written work causes 'C', with neither pause nor transition, to jump immediately into asking the supervisee about student written work. 'O' responds briefly and 'C' concludes that she must have obtained good written work because it was "a terrific learning experience for them".

At 8:03, supervisor 'C' changes the topic to ask 'O' what she

thought made the lesson go so well. This significant probing question appropriately results in the supervisee pausing for five seconds to reflect, whereupon 'C' fills the silence just at the point when 'O' was about to speak:

C: You've had good lessons in your practicum, but this, I think, today, in my estimation, was perhaps one of the very best ones and when you can draw back and think about what was making it go well, what made the whole flow of the lesson go properly, can you think of some reasons why?

O: (pauses for a further five seconds and very hesitantly says) Visual aids?

C: Yeah. (Waits for supervisee to continue. During four second pause 'O' brings her left hand up nervously to scratch the back of her head--an autistic gesture for someone who rarely has moved throughout both conferences)

C: (fills the silence again) Yeah, I think you're right, the things that you brought in, I don't know if, I'm sure you saw the expression of their faces when you were bringing out the clothes and the excitement there. Yeah, I think the objects you brought in was one of the reasons.

O: And tying it in with the experiences we've already done?
('C' nods)

O: Like building a song? ... pacing?

C: Do you feel in your own mind that your pacing has developed into ...

O: (interrupting) Yes, I do.

C: It has, eh? (almost disbelievingly)

O: Control of my voice? (Conference dialogue, 8:08-9:20).

Supervisor 'C' nods encouragement throughout but decides at 9:20 to draw things together by emphasizing how much more relaxed the supervisee is with her material which then enables her to concentrate much more on the actual lesson interaction.

Following this supportive feedback, 'C' says "I don't know if there's too much more we can say about the lesson" and supervisee 'O' emits a nonverbal gesture of relief and delight. To conclude the conference, the supervisor asks 'O' how she would continue in the next lesson; but, since the next day is the last day of 'O's practicum, both participants tend to treat this issue more like a token gesture. Having restated that the lesson was tremendous and the students really enjoyed

it, supervisor 'C' closes the conference at 10:47.

D-P Pre-conference #1

This conference had a duration of 17 minutes 46 seconds. It begins with supervisor 'D' asking about the class under observation and immediately thinking at 0:08 that she had not made the intent of her question clear; rather than focus on the instructional plan itself, 'D' wants to find out about the students in the class. Supervisee 'P' reads the intent and responds accordingly, but quickly gets into some of the instructional purposes. He wants the student teachers to become accustomed to the prospect of being supervised during practicum by first viewing 'P' under supervision from 'D' a faculty colleague. At 1:01 and 1:02 the supervisee and supervisor respectively process thoughts about how comfortable they feel in the pre-conference situation. This is some-what remarkable since this is the first time they have actually entered into a clinical cycle together.

Essentially, 'P' is attempting to teach the concept of supervision in an experiential way to student teachers he would later be supervising. He continues:

    P: I want them ... to see that, although there is a kind of threat
        that accompanies supervision, there are certain procedures and
        activities that can minimize that threat, ('D' nods encourage-
        ment), and I think the best way to get people to want to enter
        into that kind of experience is to show that you yourself are
        prepared to do it.
    D: Have you been to see all of them at least once by now?
        (Conference dialogue, 1:12-1:45).

Supervisor 'D' processes a thought at 1:20 and supervisee 'P', somewhat offguard by 'D's unexpected question, reports an impatience for the lesson focus at 1:45. In the conference dialogue, however, 'P' counters by describing what he has undertaken with the student teachers up till

this point. At 2:03 he articulates that one of his purposes has been to

help the students become accustomed to his dual role of helper and rater;

supervisor 'D' evaluates this notion critically in her thoughts but holds

her idea in abeyance until 3:50. At 2:21, 'D' asks if the supervisee has

talked with student teachers to elicit their reaction to his presence in

the classroom and 'P' reports an element of surprise in his thoughts for

he was expecting the focus to be on what would take place during the

observation phase. Nevertheless, in the conference dialogue he describes

what he has done, characterizing the talks with the students not as

rigorous post-conferences involving the analysis of teaching but more as

relationship-building exercises in preparation for the practicum when 'P'

states that he plans to see them every day. At 3:18 supervisor 'D'

expresses surprise as she questions, "each one, every day?" and both

participants process thoughts at this time. While the supervisee notes

the communication used by 'D', the latter questions how realistic the

proposed schedule is. In the conference dialogue itself, 'P' counters

by saying that he intends to be out in schools every day and hopes to

visit each student on alternate days. Supervisor 'D' considers that a

very busy schedule.

After stating at 4:07 that she would very much like to pursue

the topic for her own reasons (supervisor 'D' also has student teachers),

'D' asks at 4:16 if there is something specific that supervisee 'P' would

like her to look at in the class to be observed. 'P' responds at 4:20

by suggesting that he first inform her of what was going to be happening

and goes on to explain the lesson plan in considerable detail, particularly

the scenario relating to how the students will generate the data on

which the instruction will be based. Supervisor 'D' asks if 'P' can

elaborate on the scenario, and the supervisee begins to expound on the planned activities. At 5:21 'D' picks up a pencil to begin writing down the questions which come at the end of the scenario and the accompanying directions that are to be given to the students in class. As she picks it up, however, the supervisee looks at the pencil and at 5:30 'D' puts it down again thinking that 'P' has been disturbed by her action.

Supervisee 'P' then goes on to describe how the essential purpose of the scenario is to allow the students to generate questions about current student teaching supervision practices and their own particular input about how they think it should be practiced. On hearing this at 5:30, supervisor 'D' critically evaluates, in her thoughts, the grounds on which the students could base their questions and input but does not broach this topic in the conference. Indeed, it remains buried in her mind until 34:52 in the post-conference, at which time 'D' recalls the substance of this thought. What she does bring up in the conference at this point can be described as a delimiting question: "will they be doing this in class, will they be doing this individually or in groups?" As such this question restricts the supervisee's response options and is used to focus rather than to probe. 'P' responds specifically to the question: "initially they'll be doing it individually for about five minutes". This answer at 6:19 provokes a further critical thought in 'D' but one which is held over until the post-conference. In the meantime, 'P' expands on the scenario to show how it is designed to take the students from individual to group work so as to force them to reach some kind of consensus on what their real questions and concerns are. During this explanation, 'P' processes a thought at 6:49 where he wonders if he is talking too much. As this occurs, the supervisee loses his fluidity of

speech momentarily.

When the supervisee's explanation ends at 7:04, 'D' puts the
question: "have they worked together in the class like this before, like
in a role-playing situation?" Although 'P' answers this competently
enough in the conference (they have worked in groups before but not in a
simulation), he confesses in his thoughts to not knowing at first how to
respond. Supervisor 'D', on the other hand, wonders at 7:06 whether 'P'
had anticipated the question because the issue underlying her own reasoning
at that point was how well these students work together in group
situations. The supervisee then goes on to explain what will happen after
the group work, how the data will be transferred to the blackboard and
generally how the class will be conducted from this point on. Once the
data are on the board, supervisee 'P' wants 'D' to look clsoely at how
he engages the students in further discussion aimed at classifying the
data. This occurs at 8:05 and at the very point that he begins to talk
about this concern, supervisee 'P' looks down and does not regain eye
contact until he has fully articulated his tendency to become didactic
and begin an exposition. At 8:33 'D' feels that she must write these
points down and consequently picks up a pencil and begins to write.

Because supervisor 'D' considers 'P's request at 8:47 for her to
observe for the amount of teacher talk to be a separate issue from the
concern first articulated, she attempts at 9:17 to clarify this through
paraphrasing what she heard the supervisee say. To the supervisor
question about how the students will be able to identify categories when
they may not have thought much about supervision previously, 'P' responds
that he is expecting their understanding to be more along traditional
lines where they are mostly concerned with the purpose of the process and

the criteria for assessment. At 9:48, supervisor 'D' wishes, in her

thoughts, to dialogue about data-gathering techniques and this thought

emerges in the conference dialogue at 10:07; she asks the supervisee for

the specific things he would consider most valuable for her to look at,

and how she could record them in a way that would be beneficial to 'P'.

While the supervisor puts this question, 'P' fidgets nervously with his

hands for two seconds; in addition, his head goes down at 10:07 precisely

when 'D' mentions "specific" and he does not look up at the supervisor

until 10:27.

Despite the supervisee's inner anxiety (verified in his thoughts

at 10:23), the conference dialogue proceeds relatively smoothly. After

'P' has reiterated his wish for the supervisor to look at the instruct-

ional phase immediately following the scenario and group work, together

with a quantity ratio of talk and some analysis of questioning techniques

used to involve the students at this critical stage, supervisor 'D'

begins to review the discussion about data collection:

        D: So we have this two-pronged thing. What would be meaningful for
            us in terms of the quantity ratio? Do you literally want me to
            do a timing?
        P: (after pause of five seconds) Do you mean a timing of the amount
            of time in the lesson in which I speak?
        D: Yes (very definitely) yes.
        P: Yes, that would be revealing, I think (the tone of voice is
            different and encouraging) particularly if you can work out the
            percentages of teacher talk and student talk.
        D: And would it be helpful if I also tried very accurately to
            transcribe both your questions and the answers the students gave
            and then we could perhaps look at those together and see if there
            are any patterns emerging?
        P: Yes, if that could be done, it would be very useful (the super-
            visee's facial expression displays apparent keenness with what
            supervisor 'D' has suggested at 11:57).
        D: Well, I'll try to do that and I'll concentrate then on the time
            after we've been through the scenario and you begin to take the
            group answers and look at them on the board. So basically at
            that point I'll be examining both the amount of time you spend
            talking to them with respect to the amount of time they spend

talking, I'll try to transcribe all of their conversation in
groups and the kinds of dialogue that emerge in the class
(Conference dialogue, 11:04-12:18).

The purpose behind this review was to establish a specific

contract between supervisor and supervisee (verified in 'D's thought

processes at 12:18); however, 'D's attempt to draw the conference towards

an agreement is forestalled by supervisee 'P' going on to talk about

lesson momentum as one of his great concerns. In order to set the

students right into the activity so that the instruction flows, 'P' main-

tains that his directions have to be crystal clear. While 'D' is busy

thinking at 12:50 that the observation focus is growing too big, super-

visee 'P' continues by stating that the directions have to be clear at

the students' level of understanding before they can be expected to

become engrossed in the learning activity. At 13:01 supervisor 'D'

considers asking the supervisee if he would like to rehearse the directions

with her but decides against it in case 'P' were to derive the impression

that something was amiss with the planned activity. Instead she poses a

probing question:

    D: What have you thought about to help ensure that that [students
        becoming engrossed in the learning activity] will happen?
    P: (Processes thought while he speaks) Well, in a sense, I've just
        thought about the specific directions that I'm going to give
        and have gone over them in my own mind, realizing I have to make
        quite precise and yet brief ('D' processes thought) and then
        after giving them I'll ask if they understand and if there are
        any questions, so that they can get right into the activity
        without my having to come back to explain something that was not
        fully understood previously.
    D: So would you like me specifically ('P' evidences nervous gesture,
        finger moved to his face) to watch reactions to your directions
        and see if the students seem to be into it as you'd like them to?
    P: Yes, I certainly would (Conference dialogue, 13:08-14:09).

The supervisee's keenness to have this kind of feedback stems

from his concern that he be able to keep students on-task during the class

and he perceives a connection between the clarity of directions and

student on-task behaviour. Consequently, supervisor 'D' offers at 14:34 to pay special attention to student facial expressions and any visible signs of confusion as the students receive the directions. Supervisee 'P' welcomes any feedback that demonstrates how he comes across in setting up such an activity for he senses that the students are not yet at the point where they will tell him directly when they do not understand. Even as the supervisee is saying this, supervisor 'D' leans forward in her seat, clasps her hands and adopts a pose which suggests she is in earnest; at 15:21 she retorts: "why do you think they're not there yet?" Supervisee 'P', whilst recognizing in his thoughts that 'D' is pushing him to explain a statement he had not carefully thought through, overcomes his urge to avoid the question and responds. He feels it has to do with what he senses to be the pedestal-like position afforded to professors at the university he has just joined, together with the fact that the student teaching/field experience class is a credit course, a factor that some-times causes a grappling amongst students for high marks and a reluctance to speak their mind. At 16:24 'D' poses a searching question: "how does today's activity contribute to the breaking down of this image?" As this is put, the nonverbal facial expression of the supervisee, open-eyed with eyebrows raised a little, indicates an earnestness which, according to her thought processes, is noticed by supervisor 'D'. Without any break in continuity and without autistic gesture, 'P' responds that, by exposing his teaching to analysis by both supervisor 'D' and the students (who will analyse the instruction during the next class), he is making himself quite vulnerable and demonstrating, through his mistakes, just how human he is.

After processing a thought at 16:38 about the potential value of

mistakes in one's learning and development, supervisor 'D' listens as

'P' outlines how he tries to earn credibility with the student teachers

so that, during the practicum, the analysis of teaching can be carried

out quite rigorously. By 17:00, however, 'D' admits to a sense of frus-

tration, not evidenced verbally or nonverbally, about the dialogue not

focusing on the contract for observation. Nevertheless, she refrains

from intervening in the flow of 'P's dialogue and, significantly, at 17:59

the supervisee expresses, in his thoughts, appreciation of how supervisor

'D' has facilitated the articulation of his ideas. Immediately following

this, 'D' begins to sum up. At no time while the supervisee was talking

did her frustration show and even at 18:01 it does not show except for a

certain slowness of speech when she says "I'm clear":

> D: Alright, I feel that I'm ... clear ... and I'd just like to go
> back over this with you because we did add something at the end
> there. As I see today's class, I'm going to be looking specific-
> ally (nervous, autistic gesture by supervisee here--hand moved
> quickly to the face) at the directions that you give and the
> ability the students have after listening to these directions to
> move immediately into the work that the directions relate to and
> I'm going to do that by trying to listen to the comments that they
> may ask you to see what sort of other signs there might be, and
> that will be somewhat subjective on my part but I'll try to
> indicate that to you, and then after they have been through the
> scenario, as we called it, I then want to specifically look at how
> you in your own role with them, as they begin to give you the
> results of their own investigation, we'll look at the ratio of
> time that you spend talking and they spend talking, the kinds of
> questions you ask, they ask, and how each of you reacts to those
> questions (Conference dialogue, 18:01-19:11).

Supervisor 'D's frustration at the lack of focus in the pre-conference

agreement is understandable in light of the above dialogue. What is

called for is supervisor direction as to how many things it is feasible

to look at during observation. This she is aware of at 19:11 in her

thoughts, but she also admits to not knowing how much direction to give

at such an early stage in the supervisory relationship. The overload of

pointers for observation is also noted in 'P's thoughts at 19:24 but, as

the supervisee, he does not raise the issue. The conference ends with

'D' suggesting that they can look at these things together but that there

may be some that they will have to work on in subsequent cycles.

D-P Post-conference #1

This conference had a duration of 42 minutes 50 seconds. It

begins with supervisor 'D' posing a question which, as she reflected on

it at 0:27, caused her a feeling of awkwardness: "I wondered if you'd had

a chance to look at what I left you yesterday, and, while that may be

important, I'm interested first in your letting me know how you felt

yesterday's class went." Supervisee 'P' answers initially with superficial

comments designed to give him time to formulate a response to the question

about the lesson itself. At 0:41 'P' describes himself as not being

completely unhappy about how the class went and this registers surprise

in supervisor 'D's thoughts. He goes on to suggest that he had some

awkward moments during instruction which he considers largely related to

a shortage of time. Supervisor 'D' asks at 1:14 if he has any idea why

this might have been the case and 'P' articulates certain logistical

points which could have rendered time pressure a factor affecting the

lesson flow.

Shortly after this, a critical incident occurs. While the super-

visee mentions that he was glad with the way in which some students

brought their own experiences into discussion, 'D' questions, in her

thoughts at 2:08, the role played by one of the more active students.

As this is going on, supervisee 'P' becomes more and more anxious in his

thoughts to have a general indication of how the supervisor felt the

lesson had gone. At 2:23, however, he is still attempting to share his

own interpretation of the data:

> P: What I, (looking through data notes), I ... was ... (very slow speech) really trying to involve them as I was trying to introduce the concept itself.
>
> D: So you wanted to work not only from their own experiences but from the material they had given you?
>
> P: Yes, and I (pause of three seconds--speech is quite laboured) think, well, I was happy with it but I still think it could have gone better. Er, er, (autistic gesture, hand moving quickly to face) what do you think about it, the way I tried to involve them?
>
> D: (leans forward, clasps hands) On what level do you mean that? Do you mean their personal experiences? ('D' nervously rubs hands through hair two times and sits with head back and hands clasped).
>
> P: (somewhat agitated) After the, yes, but not only that [personal experiences] but also when I was trying to work from the data they generated to the concept I was trying to get across. (Breaking into a smile) It's so easy then to lapse into a straight pedantic lecture (Conference dialogue, 2:23-3:09).

What the supervisee has essentially verbalized is a reiteration of his pre-conference concern but the post-conference version is accompanied by an internal state of agitation. This affects supervisor 'D' as she tries to respond between 3:09 and 3:49, causing her to grope for words in the conference dialogue and to become concerned in her thoughts that she might not be addressing what the supervisee wants. This thought notwithstanding, 'D' proceeds with an analysis of the questions used by 'P' during the instruction:

> D: Well (turning to data notes) let's just see what we can tell from the questions, I didn't get them all down but we have you suggesting to them that they think about some issues. I'm wondering if there was a time when maybe you called upon them to find out what they had thought about or were these questions just left, do you ask a lot of questions that are just yes and no questions where you might feel they're not being involved, or do you direct questions to specific students when you really want the group to be involved. Those are some of the things we can look at from here (Conference dialogue, 3:49-4:13).

At 4:05 the supervisee admits in his thoughts to feeling bombarded by the specific criticisms that 'D' brings out but counters at 4:13 to ask if he posed many yes/no questions and attempts to check his understanding of what he heard the supervisor say about involving the students. Because

she alluded to student involvement to offset the thrust of her specific

criticisms and wants the supervisee to detect a pattern in the data, 'D'

further challenges the supervisee to examine the nature and frequency of

the questions used:

P: But you're suggesting that maybe I could have pinpointed some of
the questions at certain students to make sure they were fully
involved?

D: I'm not sure that that's exactly what I was suggesting ... I
think what I was really suggesting was that we can look at the
data and see if there are certain kinds of questions which you
use repeatedly and, if you do, we might look at the results and
see if your intention is matched by the results (Conference
dialogue, 4:28-5:17).

For the next 1 minute 33 seconds, the discussion focuses on one

particular question that supervisee 'P' posed and then quickly followed

up with a further statement before any student could answer. Whilst

acknowledging that the follow-up statement did set the students at ease,

'D' asks what else it might have done. While 'D' is wanting to get at

the pattern and its impact on seminar discussion, however, the supervisee

focuses on the intent of the question and the follow-up statement. At

the end of this period, supervisor 'D' pushed 'P' to find out whether his

questions were eliciting the kind of feedback he wanted. The supervisee

takes seven seconds to think about it and talks quite slowly. This

causes 'D' at 6:06 to wonder if she has made him nervous, since 'P' is

so obviously groping for an answer (verified in supervisee thought processes

at 6:06). Eventually, he suggests that one of the girl students gave him

lots of feedback but that may have been because of a particularly

devastating teaching situation which he had helped her overcome just two

days before the class under observation. At 7:31, 'D' seizes the opening

to become very supportive and off-set any supervisee nervousness. She

suggests that a devastating experience does not necessarily help someone

to open up in seminar discussion but supervisee 'P', although he

recognizes 'D's supportiveness at this point, still appears to be groping

for an answer. At 8:00 he tries to shift the initiative back to super-

visor 'D' because he cannot figure out "what else" the follow-up statement

might have caused. Supervisor 'D', however, does not take up the

initiative, causing 'P' to articulate his disappointment at not being able

to bring some of the students into the discussion. At 8:23 'D' checks

her perception: "So are you telling me that you sensed that you were able

to draw in a few but not the others"? 'P' very deliberately answers in

the affirmative, recognizing in his thoughts that this represents a

significant break-through in his understanding of the instruction.

Supervisor 'D' then attempts to focus the discussion on the

record of the questions posed and subsequent discussion and, because she

senses the data notes are not as complete as she would have liked, asks

if it would have been more beneficial for her to have recorded the

discussion verbatim. 'P' responds that it would have been helpful not

only to know who was speaking but also the order in which each student

spoke; this would have enabled him to detect the extent to which he had

been able to stimulate student-to-student interaction. At 9:33, 'D'

begins to think that the data may not be accurate enough to show the

supervisee that there was little, if any, student-to-student interaction.

This evidences itself in the conference dialogue when the supervisor

begins to speculate that "some of this [student-to-student interaction],

well, it seems like most of this is ..." and then backs off with "well

it's hard to tell from the data". Rather than force the issue, 'D'

suggests that they could look specifically at student-to-student inter-

action in a future cycle but at 10:31 supervisee 'P' concludes from the

data that he had not stimulated very much student-to-student interaction.

This frees supervisor 'D' at 10:40 to demonstrate from the data how most

of the discussion was between teacher and students and not amongst the

students. This supervisor explanation of the data continues until 11:33,

at which time 'D' suggests that it is on the appropriateness of teacher

questions and comments that they need to focus their analysis.

At 12:14, 'D' demonstrates from the data how supervisee 'P' was

able to involve students in the discussion at specific points in the

lesson where a new topic or concept was being introduced. But soon after

emphasizing that it is the appropriateness of the teacher comment and

its timing that matters since the introduction of a new concept requires

some teacher direction or redirection of the discussion focus, supervisor

'D' pushes ahead for some sense of closure on the pre-conference agree-

ment. She is, however, unsuccessful:

    D: Alright, so this has given you a sense of that ratio [teacher
        talk-student talk] you were interested in ('P' nods), and the
        two other questions we were going to look at ...
    P: (interrupts her) It seems to me then (thumbing back through data
        notes) you know, although I'm working with their ideas initially,
        I still have to do something to use their ideas more so when I'm
        actually putting across a concept ... I guess I'd like to feel
        that I can not only present things but also be stimulating students
        to want to be involved in that interaction as well.
    D: How can you do that?
    P: (scratches head and thinks for eight seconds) Well, I guess I've
        got to think of questions that really key into the experience of
        the students so that their interest is fired and they ,.. find
        themselves articulating thoughts which they otherwise would not
        have done ... I tend to use that as a measure to myself as to how
        effectively I am keying into their experience in terms of trans-
        lating a particular theoretical concept into the reality of their
        events.
    D: So you're saying in effect that you're hoping that with more
        experience that you actually have with them, the more experience
        they get, and you'll be able to phrase questions and activities
        which would more spontaneously involve them?
    P: But I think it's more than that. I think as I grow as a teacher
        I'll be able to understand how to do that with groups when I
        don't necessarily know them that well ... and can begin to key

into their space, as it were, quite early on and almost unleash
whatever potential there is in terms of the discussion
(Conference dialogue, 12:35-14:42).

Two questions contained in the pre-conference agreement have not yet been
addressed because of the supervisee's wish to explore his use of questions
further. Indeed, at 14:42 he is delighted in his thought processes to
have articulated ideas relating to a real concern of his, i.e., how to
break out of a propensity towards a teacher-centred mould. Supervisor 'D',
at one point so concerned about reaching closure, now pursues this topic,
suggesting that it requires a special kind of sensitivity which 'P' has
identified as something for them to work on in the future. An interesting
feature of this episode is that, while 'P' is divulging this self-
acknowledged concern, he maintains eye-contact and evidences no autistic
gestures. This, coming at 16:03, is very different from those times in
the pre-conference when he talked about instructional concerns, and may
be evidence of a developing supervisory relationship.

The problem of when to intervene to refocus seminar discussion
and when to hold back so as to let it flow emerges as a cornerstone of
the supervisee's concern during the period of 16:08-17:54 in the confer-
ence dialogue. This focus develops during 'P's response to 'D's question
about teachers who have succeeded in stimulating him in his days as a
student. While, however, 'P' is more concerned with addressing his own
dilemma of how to "turn on" students he has not known for very long (out
of which emanates the question of when and when not to intervene), super-
visor 'D' is taken up with what 'P' has learned from teachers he has had.
At 17:54 she redirects the focus from what supervisee 'P' alleges to be
his biggest concern to the need to discriminate among the various teaching
behaviours one has experienced, since they are not all likely to be

effective with every student. Supervisee 'P' acknowledges the point but

expresses the hope that he can develop a vast enough range of behaviours

in his own repertoire from which to select according to the differing

needs of students and of protean teaching-learning situations. At this

point in the conference the supervisee begins to talk in a very personal

manner, a feature that supervisor 'D' notes and allows to affect her

nonverbal behaviour:

> P: I guess I'm finding it a very difficult, exacting, and sometimes
> heartache-producing journey to develop the right kind of
> repertoire where I can, in fact, draw upon what is required,
> given different needs.
> ('D' leans forward maintaining eye-contact; 'P' clasps hands in
> prayer like form in front of his mouth and chin).
> P: (continues) I mean, I find it a lot more difficult here, or I did
> initially, at the graduate level where students were just
> expecting me to lecture and I didn't want to teach that way. I
> wanted to teach more along seminar lines and I had to really think
> of ways and means where I could bring them into things more
> (Conference dialogue, 18:49-19:23).

For the next 1 minute 48 seconds, the conference dialogue continues

to focus on inductive approaches to teaching as ways of involving students

in the instruction. At 21:11, supervisor 'D' then asks if students have

given 'P' feedback on the teaching methods he has used; the supervisee

responds in the negative, adding that he senses their reluctance stems

from the fact they are all looking for teaching positions in a time of

financial retrenchment and therefore are not prepared to take risks in a

credit course. During 'P's explanation, supervisor 'D' moves from a

forward leaning position to a stiff upright position. At 22:30 she begins

to pinpoint certain courses of action:

> D: Do you think this class might be ready for a little more
> encouragement from you? In terms of this specific class, could
> you talk to them or have them talk to you about these activities,
> first of all the scenario and the way you chose to present it?
> Would it be appropriate with this class to talk about your
> directing of the scenario with them? Are they ready for it?
> (Conference dialogue, 22:30-23:03).

For 2 minutes 5 seconds both participants discuss the ideas proposed by supervisor 'D'. While supervisee 'P' sees a usefulness in unpacking the analysis of teaching, supervisor 'D' promotes the benefits that the student teachers would derive from learning how to teach along inductive lines. The supervisee sees such an exercise as a good opportunity for students to practice giving feedback in a way that does not demean the person and supervisor 'D' quickly turns the focus back to the data notes with the suggestion that some of the questions used by 'P' during instruction possibly helped to foster the atmosphere of trust that would be necessary for such open feedback. This occurs at 25:08 and represents the first time since 12:35 that the conference dialogue has revolved around the data collected during observation.

Supervisee 'P' looks closely at the data and says that he is not completely discouraged by how he handled the questions. He adds at 25:45 that his mentioning of discouragement stems from knowledge of his own inclination to be the expert in certain situations which he recognizes as detrimental to student developmental learning. Supervisor 'D' contests this in light of the evidence; at 26:06 she cites two instances in the seminar which demonstrate that 'P' does not appear to be dominating the interaction. On the other hand, both participants note a hint of direction used by the supervisee to maintain the focus of the discussion when it was in danger of becoming tangential, but neither regards this as unnecessary interference.

At 27:15 the focus of the conference dialogue becomes even more specific, as supervisor 'D' comes back to probe what she had unsuccessfully attempted to look at at 12:35. This redirecting of the conference focus to the other questions in the pre-conference agreement precipitates a

critical incident where the supervisor presses the supervisee to a self-

derived insight:

D: I wondered about the directions, if that is also something you've been concerned about, you wanted then to be clear and concise, I've tried to document everything while you were explaining things ... did you feel that they were clear?

P: Well, I felt better about them during and after the class than I do on reading the data here because it seems to me that I may have gone on too long. In order to make things quite clear, I may have been overdwelling on the directions as well ... that's a mistake I would want to see corrected because maybe there wasn't the need (pause while he thumbs through data notes), I really say them four times if you include the time I wrote them up on the board (autistic gesture by supervisee at 28:13 indicative of recognition about board and directions). I think that maybe with students at that level, to have said them twice would have been enough.

D: Now let's see you wrote this on the board? (both look over data at 28:20)

P: Well, first of all I said it, then I rephrased it which was the second time.

D: It wasn't until quite late in fact that it did go on the board.

P: (a look of recognition at 28:35) Yes, I have to confess something there, I forgot about putting it on the board; it should have gone on the board when I was doing it the first time.

D: (determinedly at 28:51) Why?

P: Because that way I'm saying it, they're seeing it, so they have two ways of processing the directions the first time, then I would only have needed to reinforce it once. By forgetting about it--it was like a bolt that suddenly hit me, I'm taking away from my own clarity here--you see, I'd gone over it three times before I put it on the board, whereas I should have started off standing up, describing the scenario and putting the notes on the board at the same time and then I only needed to go over it once more.

D: (almost involuntarily at 29:47) That's a good point.

P: I regard that as a blunder on my part, for with a different group of students, that could really have thrown the lesson.

D: But it seems to me that you've identified something that you also want to concentrate on and that's the idea of input in as many distinctive ways as possible, like the visual and the oral that will perhaps help you in the future in not having to say the directions several times (Conference dialogue, 27:15-30:15).

Supervisee 'P' then turns the focus to discussing when the

directions became clear to the students in the class. While noting that

it would be useful to raise the question in this way, supervisor 'D'

suggests that attempting to answer the question of why it became clear,

although much harder, would probably be more beneficial to 'P' in his

teaching. At 31:58, 'D' once again returns the discussion to what the data notes may have to say further about the supervisee's directions. This example of persistent yet focussed probing bears results:

> P: Yes, I'm just thinking, in fact, that it may well be, it's only just struck me, that the number of times I went over the directions at the beginning was a contributing factor to the lack of time I experienced.
> ('D's reaction at this point, 32:36, is to exclaim "ah, ah" in a voice that suggests she has just realized it too, when, according to her thought processes, she had known all along).
> P: That would have contributed to the slight degree of anxiety that was going on inside me (Conference dialogue, 32:34-32:43).

The discussion continues to focus on 'P's uneasiness, an unfamiliar experience for the supervisee in this kind of teaching situation, and the relationship between this phenomenon and the noted shortage of time. The supervisee suddenly recognizes at 33:28 that his propensity for becoming didactic occurs when he is pressured by a shortage of time; he further understands how the last minute room change and his faulty direction giving all conspired to deprive the lesson of valuable time which, in turn, caused him anxiety and affected the smoothness of the lesson flow.

At 34:11 supervisor 'D' focuses the dialogue on the questions posed by students after they had received the directions. One question in particular emerges where a student suggested that the directions were clear but that they did not know very much about supervision. At this point, 34:52, 'D' processes a thought, first conceived in the pre-conference, questioning the preparedness of the students for such an experiential learning design. 'P', however, sees that as part of the challenge in the lesson, for they have been placed in a situation requiring them to exercise their imagination in order to get their real concerns out for discussion. When pressed further by the supervisor at 35:36 about whether these student questions indicate that the directions

were clearly understood, 'P' admits that they indicate a lack of understanding.

Finally, supervisor 'D' begins to sum up at 36:54. She reviews all the points relating to the directions that have come out in the conference interaction and then proceeds to ask if there is anything else that the supervisee has derived from the post-conference deliberation. Supervisee 'P' characterizes the intervention as having identified his real concern about how to orchestrate the flow of discussion in a seminar, when to intervene to redirect the focus and when to hold back his own comments. At 38:12 supervisor 'D' professes in her thoughts to being in a similar predicament for she is anxious to bring the conference to a close. Accordingly, she suggests that this concern can become the in-depth focus of further supervision cycles and offers to supervise again in the near future. While the supervisee is delighted that his concern has become crystallized as a result of the post-conference dialogue, 'D' suggests at 39:36 that how 'P' deals with discussion orchestration at the graduate level, although the opposite problem to the one experienced in the class observed, may illuminate the difficulties he encountered in the undergraduate instruction.

At 40:06, supervisor 'D' brings the focus back to the questions for a final time in order to make the point that she considers the data notes to be somewhat inadequate. The supervisee pours over them again and suddenly recognizes at 40:43 that short student answers to teacher questions may be indicative of the questions being too open-ended for their level of ability. Rather than effect closure immediately supervisor 'D' reinforces 'P's insight by pressing him to think it through further: "I wonder if there are a lot of open-ended questions ... that

would fall into that category?" (Conference dialogue, 41:50). Both participants then go through the questions analysing those that are specific and those (the majority) that really expect too much of undergraduate students or are too broad in their focus. Significantly, most of the analysis is carried out by the supervisee who suggests that the questions need to be delimited more. The conference ends at 42:50 with both participants stating openly their wish to continue the supervision experience.

SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the research data in the form of eight case studies, selected for their overall representativeness, and levels of participants' preactive and supervisors' interactive constructive openness. Supervisors 'A' and 'D' produced relatively high preactive and interactive levels of constructive openness while supervisors 'B' and 'C' produced relatively low levels. The supervisees of 'A' and 'D' both scored highly on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument while two of the three supervisees interacting with 'B' and 'C' produced relatively low scores. Further, the conferences conducted by supervisors 'A' and 'D' were of longer duration than any of the conferences conducted by supervisors 'B' and 'C'.

Chapter 6

STRUCTURAL VARIATIONS IN CONFERENCE
INTERACTION

This chapter reports the structural variations analysis of

conference dialogue and participants' thought processes in four case

examples. This analysis examined the data according to the motivational

principles (as described in Appendix D) and supervision conditions (as

described in Chapter 3) that associate with each of the four conceptual

functioning levels identified by Harvey et al. (1961). Conceptual

functioning levels depict the current but dynamic degree of

participants' disposition towards abstractness of thought. Once the

levels were determined, they were transposed on to the 0-8 scale

developed in the Preactive Behaviour Instrument (see Appendix A) to

effect a comparison between levels of conceptual functioning and

constructive openness. A brief discussion of the method of analysis

precedes the four examples of case analysis.

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Each participant's dialogue and interactive thought processes

in all fourteen conferences were analysed in detail, that is, every

thought unit, every verbal and nonverbal behaviour was categorized

according to the level of conceptual functioning and the respective

supervision conditions or supervisee role it represented. Since the

categorizations were based on four different levels (as per Chapter 3

and Appendix D), it became necessary to transpose them on to the 0-8

scale developed in the instruments used to measure preactive and inter-
active constructive openness, in order to effect a comparison between
participant conceptual functioning and verbal communication. Table 5
demonstrates the basis on which this transposition was carried out. In
order to place each categorization within its equivalent classification
on the constructive openness 0-8 scale, certain transpositional scores
were allocated, e.g., Level I conceptual functioning categorization
was allocated a score of 1.5, Level III a score of 5.5 and so on. A
mean score on the scale of 0-8 was then derived for each participant's
interactive conceptual functioning per conference .

Table 6 reports these scores. Supervisor 'A' produced
conceptual functioning mean scores of 6.40, 6.60, 6.38, and 5.82 in
his four conferences with 'L', while the supervisee scored at 4.50, 5.83,
5.44, and 6.01. Over the four conferences, 'A' and 'L' averaged scores
of 6.30 and 5.45 respectively.

Supervisor 'B' averaged a score of 2.43 over four conferences.
In his two conferences with supervisee 'M', he produced conceptual
functioning mean scores of 2.13 and 2.58 while 'M' scored at 3.50 and
2.52. Within the context of this dyad, 'B' and 'M' averaged scores of
2.36 and 3.01 respectively. In his two conferences with supervisee 'N',
'B' produced scores of 2.59 and 2.42 while 'N' scored at 4.50 and 3.54.
Within this dyad, 'B' and 'N' averaged scores of 2.51 and 4.02
respectively.

Supervisor 'C' produced conceptual functioning mean scores of
3.31 and 3.40 in his two conferences with 'O', while the supervisee
scored at 2.62 and 2.19. Over two conferences, 'C' and 'O' averaged
scores of 3.36 and 2.41 respectively.

Table 5

Basis for Transposition of Interactive Conceptual
Functioning Categorizations onto
Constructive Openness Scale

Constructive Openness Scale	Conceptual Functioning Categorizations	Transposition Score
0-1	Sub I	0.5
1-2	Level I	1.5
2-3	Level I/II transition	2.5
3-4	Level II	3.5
4-5	Level II/III transition	4.5
5-6	Level III	5.5
6-7	Level III/IV transition	6.5
7-8	Level IV	7.5

Table 6

Interactive Conceptual Functioning Mean Scores
of Supervision Participants
in Each Conference

Supervisor	Conceptual Functioning Mean Score	Conference	Conceptual Functioning Mean Score	Supervisee
A	6.40	pre-conf. #1*	4.50	L
	6.60	post-conf. #1*	5.83	
	6.38	pre-conf. #2	5.44	
	5.82	post-conf. #2	6.01	
B	2.13	pre-conf. #1*	3.50	M
	2.58	post-conf. #1	2.52	
	2.59	pre-conf. #2	4.50	N
	2.42	post-conf. #2	3.54	
C	3.31	——— post-conf. #1*	2.62	O
	3.40	——— post-conf. #2	2.19	
D	6.43	pre-conf. #1	4.68	P
	6.35	post-conf. #1	6.31	
	6.17	pre-conf. #2	5.79	
	6.71	post-conf. #2	6.88	

* Denotes conferences used as case examples of structural variations analysis.

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Supervisor 'D' produced conceptual functioning mean scores of
6.43, 6.35, 6.17, and 6.71 in her four conferences with 'P', while the
supervisee scored at 4.68, 6.31, 5.79, and 6.88. Over the four
conferences, 'D' and 'P' averaged scores of 6.42 and 5.92 respectively.
To illustrate how each conference was analysed for the structural
variations present in participants' dialogue and interactive thought
processes, four case analyses have been presented as examples of
detailed examination. These four conferences were chosen because they
represented as full a range as possible of variations in supervisor
performance within and between cycles. Two are with a supervisor who
predicted he would function at a high level of constructive openness
and demonstrate possible variation between participant interactive
conceptual functioning in the pre- and post-conference. The other two
are with supervisors who predicted a lower level of interactive
constructive openness, one illustrating a pre-conference, the other a
post-conference. In this way, it is possible to see variations within
a cycle between pre- and post-conference with the same supervisor, it is
possible to see variations between pre- and post-conferences conducted
by different supervisors, and finally, it is possible to see variations
between conferences conducted by supervisors fostering low levels of
constructive openness and those conducted by supervisors who espouse a
more freeing kind of verbal communication. Because a detailed analysis
of a pre- or post-conference conducted by supervisor 'D' would not have
added to these dimensions, it was decided that, although providing
interesting and informative reading, it would, in terms of the overall
purpose of the analysis, appear superfluous and even repetitious. Since
much of the data generated in the D-P conferences will be used to

substantiate the generalities enunciated in Chapter 8, it was decided to omit a detailed reference in this chapter.

The following four case examples are based on the data contained in transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes. In the majority of instances, the analysis refers directly to the data; where detailed data references are not provided, the appraisal is based solely on participants' responses to the video stimulus.

CASE EXAMPLE: A-L PRE-CONFERENCE #1

Supervisor 'A'

Supervisors following the clinical approach are often confronted by a potential conflict of roles. Supervisor 'A' faces such a dilemma within the first minute of this conference. The supervisee has asked him about some students that he, 'A', had suspended that morning; but, since he does not wish to mix the role of principal/disciplinarian with that of supervisor/teacher helper, supervisor 'A' declines to talk on this topic. This is an instance of 'A' separating a role that, by definition, leans heavily towards, unilateral conditions from one which he wishes to accentuate here, namely, that of teacher helper and the interdependent conditions that he associates with this role. At 3:28, 'A's fostering of interdependent conditions takes on a protective thrust. Since the supervisee's department head is insisting on a course outline from all members of the social studies department, supervisor 'A' informs 'L' about an outline that two other teachers have drawn up:

> My motive for saying that to him is because he's really up against it now, working really hard, and his department head was kind of on him here ... he was upset because 'L's outline wasn't in ... I know one was made up, so that will save him a little bit of work (Supervisor thought processes, 3:28).

The need for protective interdependent conditions early in the conference is well recognized by supervisor 'A'--hence, his reported practice of an ice-breaker at the beginning of every conference to set a generally relaxed tone. Yet at 4:30 and 5:26 he becomes quite inform-ational in his orientation before the supervisee is ready. In wishing to help the supervisee overcome the negative memories of the Block D class. 'A' points out the difficulties that other teachers have experienced with that very group. But he does not explicitly articulate his thought that 'L's mistakes were magnified out of proportion by a core of eight students who should never have been placed together in the same room; rather, he alludes to this by intimating that experienced teachers also had their problems. The reasoning behind this is suggestive of informational inter-dependent conditions: "That once again is to reinforce it, to try and get him to read between the lines that it wasn't his fault" (Supervisor thought processes, 4:30). Supervisee 'L', however, is too close to the experience to make such a positive inference and at 5:26 he brings up the topic of discipline again because 'A's strategy of talking about other teachers' difficulties with Block D has made him nervous and has caused him to view the supervisor more as an evaluator than a helper. It would seem that for a purpose as definite as the one at work here, i.e., to help 'L' rise above and forget the emotionally scarring memories of a discipline-related instructional drubbing, the supervision conditions fostered are far too informational; further, it would appear wise to propogate more protective interdependent conditions when such an issue is addressed during the early stages of conference interaction.

While the conditions espoused by supervisor 'A' appear more interdependent than the supervisee could handle at 5:26, at 8:26 the

conditions are equally inappropriate because of the unilateral effect

they precipitate in 'L's behaviour. After encouraging the supervisee at

7:33 to take the initiative and then listening to him without interruption

for 1 minute 15 seconds, (interdependent conditions), supervisor 'A'

interrupts 'L' just as he is beginning to talk about the lesson again.

(An analysis of the substance of what both supervisor and supervisee were

saying at this point suggests that the supervisor's question about whether

the class had seen the movie on Lord of the Flies was of far less con-

sequence than the supervisee's continued exposition of the difficulties

students have in understanding the concept of an allegory). The end

result is that supervisee 'L' responds quickly to the interrupting

question, then waits for the supervisor to initiate further dialogue.

Subconsciously, he appears to read this action by 'A' as a cue to stop

talking. A possible explanation of supervisor 'A's behaviour could be

that the field detachment phenomenon, first noted by Kagan et al. (1967),

is operative:

> In this process the individual 'tunes out' whatever is
> happening at that time and turns his mind momentarily to review,
> to plan subsequent behavior to assess the cause of the learning-
> teaching situation, or otherwise to examine the interaction in
> which he is involved (Kagan et al., 1967, p. 369).

After allowing for a long period of supervisee initiative, the temp-

tation exists for the supervisor to become so caught up in his own

train of thought, as he deliberates on his next strategy or action, that

he no longer listens attentively. Supervisor 'A' appears to succumb to

this temptation. His first short response when he thinks the supervisee

has completed his thoughts on the details of the day's lesson is essent-

ially a lead-in to his second response, the question about the movie.

Following on the first supervisor response, however, supervisee 'L',

continues to talk about the lesson. Supervisor 'A', because of his field

detachment, does not realize that 'L' has more things to say about the

lesson and consequently blurts out the question he has been devising.

The consequence of this momentary field detachment by supervisor 'A' is

to create unilateral-type conditions which, in turn, cause the supervisee

to exercise a precautionary compliance and to curtail his inchoative

behaviour.

The phenomenon of field detachment is markedly absent, however,

when, at 12:04, the supervisee describes some of the students he teaches

in other classes as "atrocious writers". It is not unusual for a well-

read supervisor to have cause to disagree with something the supervisee

says, but the critical indicator of conceptual functioning is how the

disagreement is handled:

> That bothers me too when they say atrocious writers, the
> English teachers. We've been working closely with the English
> department head trying to improve the writing of students and I
> don't like to see them [the teachers] getting down on kids like
> that. I really, I guess, encourage or reward when they start
> talking in really positive terms about kids' writing (Supervisor
> thought processes, 12:04).

As affected as he is, however, supervisor 'A' says nothing but allows

supervisee 'L' to articulate how he perceives the students to be

atrocious writers. Never once does 'A' betray in the conference dialogue

that it has bothered him, he merely checks his perceptions with 'L' and

probes the supervisee's statements. This containing to his thoughts of

strongly-held and deep rooted sensitivities, with no vestige of verbal

or nonverbal communication about them, bears the stamp of high conceptual

functioning. Indeed, 'A's action of allowing 'L' to explain his remarks

is indicative of Level IV bolstering, a reaffirmed concern for inform-

ation. Further, his directing of supervisor approval towards the

instrumental achievement of positive teacher thinking about student pro-
gress is characteristic of informational interdependent conditions.
These supervision conditions and 'A's conceptual functioning are confirmed
at 12:29:

> I do a lot of perception checks, by that I mean I really want to
> understand what he's doing, so that when I get to the class, I'm not
> going in there with some misconception ... hoping that I'll get that
> in the post-conference, there's too much to do in that conference
> (Supervisor thought processes, 12:29).

One of the checks that supervisor 'A' makes is to see if the supervisee
is giving corrective feedback to those students who have to re-write.
Although he does not openly communicate his feelings about 'L's
description of students as 'atrocious writers', 'A' nevertheless probes
to find out whether the supervisee is doing something to help such
students improve. To his satisfaction, 'A' finds out the nature of the
corrective feedback in a manner that does not cause the supervisee any
disquiet. This evidence of informational interdependent conditions
stems from a mind that understands the distinctive complexities of each
conference in the clinical cycle. Such an understanding is, in itself,
indicative of conceptual functioning that can transcend the immediate
environment and grasp the essential possibilities of a future conference.

One of the features of persons functioning at higher stages of
conceptual complexity is that they can, where they deem it necessary and
appropriate, reintegrate the structures that are usually found at lower
stages. Such is the case with supervisor 'A' at 14:27 in this conference.
Supervisee 'L' reveals that he is going to allocate part of the day's
lesson for the students to finish off their essays and goes on to justify
this action by suggesting that eighty minutes is a long time to hold
student attention. As 'L' continues to expound on how he intends to

break up the period, supervisor 'A' steps in to reinforce the need for segmenting the lesson if a teacher is to utilize an eighty minute period successfully:

> When I see a guy using it [eighty minute period] successfully, I have a hard time sitting back and being non-commital because he's using it successfully and starting to vary his activities; and I don't usually come out and say that that's good because I know that binds a guy to what he's doing totally, but in this case I consider he should be bound, because the only way to have a successful eighty minute period is to vary your activities—that's why the strong response there (Supervisor thought processes, 14:27).

'A's strong response designed to bind the supervisee to a certain position on the eighty minute period issue is clearly reliable unilateral behaviour; the fact that he is aware of it, indeed, that he has carefully calculated this to be the most appropriate way of handling this is, however, evidence of Level IV interdependent conceptual functioning.

If supervisor 'A's conceptual functioning at 14:27 has traces of Level I unilateralism, at 16:04 he reverts to high conceptual functioning by choosing to press the supervisee when it would have been easy to drop a potentially sensitive topic. This happens when 'L' has described in a general way what the students have to do in the essay assignment, how he expects them to come up with specific details that could be included in the essay. Rather than allow 'L' to ignore the vital connection between the substance of the lesson and the essay assignment, 'A' pushes the matter further by focusing on specific essay topics to probe whether the supervisee would explore the details of particular topics with them in class or whether he would merely expect the students to do that on their own in the assignment. It is 'A's sensitization to differing levels of task difficulty, together with a concern for information and rigorous task analysis, that marks his conceptual functioning here as that of Level IV.

At 17:21 supervisor 'A' articulates a thought which displays a
high degree of sensitization to supervisee 'L's sense of discouragement.
'L' has been talking about the difficulties he faces trying to arouse
student interest in English literature and supervisor 'A' processes this
thought:

> I thought there, one thing I'm going to try and get through to
> him before he's finished this year is that he's got to believe a
> little bit more in the material he's giving the kids, and not to go
> in with the feeling that, gee, they hate this already. Now he's
> lost a lot of it, and what he's saying here is not near as strong
> as in the first semester. He's starting to teach the stuff and the
> kids are beginning to get interested. I think also he's getting more
> to the point where he's got to make it interesting and that's why
> he's checking to see if it's working or not (Supervisor thought
> processes, 17:21).

On the one hand, 'A's ability to take into account 'L's feelings in this
situation displays an openness to the supervisee that is characteristic
of Level III functioning. Supervisor 'A's analysis of what is required,
on the other hand, is evidence of the penetrating insights associated with
Level IV sensitization and confirmation. That the supervisor merely
expresses these sentiments in his thoughts and adopts, in the conference
dialogue itself, the practice of paraphrasing, perception checking and
questioning to help 'L' clarify the situation he describes, suggests
further evidence of high conceptual functioning.

This is reinforced at 18:22 when, after supervisee 'L' has
confessed to being concerned about undue repetition in his teaching,
supervisor 'A' processes the following thought:

> What I thought there was that he really is worried about the
> kids being upset about him repeating himself even though he said,
> well no; I asked him that specifically--"were the kids going to
> get upset?"--and he said "no", and he gives a little explanation
> and then says "but I'm carefully wondering why I'm doing it since
> I've already said it before" (Supervisor thought processes, 18:22).

Supervisor 'A' has recognized the student-approval-seeking behaviour

apparent in 'L's teaching and the concern that it is causing the supervisee. This Level IV openness to situational variation in the supervisee's competence is not, however, communicated directly; rather, 'A' probes the issue to detect 'L's readiness to talk openly about it and, on listening to 'L's explanation, decides not to pursue the matter until he has collected some data.

Towards the end of the conference when the supervisee asks 'A' to look for 'L's manner in discussion orchestration, supervisor 'A' suggests that 'L' is at the point where he can begin relaxing his tight control because he has now set the tone for discipline. By providing the supervisee with a supervisor-mediated form of approval for being less rigid in his classroom control, 'A' is adopting protective interdependent conditions; as such, he is attempting to mould 'L's behaviour towards a greater sense of freedom and flexibility in coping with these kinds of instructional dilemma. These conditions prevail at the very end of the conference, 20:06, when 'L' begins to compensate for possible student behaviour while the supervisor is present. 'A' not only diagnoses 'L's behaviour but also develops a prognosis for his own actions:

> I'm thinking there that he's still a bit intimidated about my coming in, because he's making apologies for his kids before I get there. Somehow I've got to try and convince him that I'm there to see what's happening, not to make those kinds of judgments right now (Supervisor thought processes, 20:06).

It is the phrase "right now" that gives away the protective interdependent thrust. 'A' has recognized 'L's Level II neutralization manoeuver (without using the research terminology) and realizes that, for now, he must bring the supervisee to the point of wanting to seek interpersonal support in 'A' as supervisor. This would be a necessary prerequisite to supervisor 'A's making of evaluative judgments on 'L's

experimental behaviour in instruction, the feedback from which he could use to build up the supervisee's confidence as a classroom teacher. A salient feature of supervisor 'A's Level III conceptual functioning here is that, in this situation, it provides for the most appropriate supervisory prognosis. Had supervisor 'A' tried to formulate a course of action based more on informational interdependent conditions where, for example, 'A' chooses to analyse in a rigorous fashion why 'L' appears intimidated by classroom visitation, it could quite possibly have led to supervisee bemusement and frustration.

Removed from the constraints of conference interaction, supervisor 'A' confirms his propensity towards higher conceptual functioning and interdependent conditions. Asked by the interviewer about how long 'L' has displayed the kind of confidence that is apparent in the conference, 'A' responds:

> Well, it took him a while to warm up to me. He was always trying to figure out what's expected of him. I think we had a good relationship and I think he feels confident that I'm not going to produce anything at the end of the year that can be held against him and write it down in the form of a report. I actually told him that after we got going because a couple of times, when we were really working together in the first semester, he said "I don't know whether I should be telling you this or not, you're the principal". I said: "Look, if we get things under control and get things going so that you feel good about them, when it comes to writing down what we did in our meetings, I shall merely describe how the teaching-learning situation is at the time of writing the report. There will be no reference back to what was discussed, so you can tell me anything you want right now". At that point we started talking more freely and confidentially (Supervisor thought processes, 20:25).

Many features of 'A's conceptual functioning emerge in this answer. First, he empathizes with the dilemma of many supervisees, that of having to come to terms with being helped towards improvement i.e., making oneself open and therefore vulnerable, and rated for competence by the same person, in this case, the principal; for a first year teacher on probation, this

situation poses a real threat. Second, he recognizes the need for some initiative on the supervisor's part to prevent a potential impasse developing in their relationship because of the supervisee's dilemma. Third, the initiative that 'A' takes may be regarded as one of his principles of supervision, namely, that of establishing a practice which mitigates the stress for the supervisee and encourages the building of a solid relationship. These three features, 'A's empathy, his reading of the supervisee's dilemma and the particular action he undertakes, are all characteristic of protective interdependent conditions stemming from Level III conceptual functioning. 'A' is highly sensitized to the needs of the supervisee and the situation with which 'L' has to deal; further, he realizes that the supervisee has to identify with him as a credible source of critical feedback before 'L' will become open to the rigorous analysis of the teaching task that is characteristic of Level IV conceptual functioning. The ability to "read" situations accurately and "flex" to the level of conceptual functioning most appropriate for helping the supervisee develop professionally is, in itself, an example of Level IV openness to differing levels of task difficulty. In other words, the ability to lower one's conceptual level as a conscious, strategic manoeuver may be regarded as prima facie evidence of Level IV interdependence.

This Level IV interdependence, with its exploratory information-seeking behaviour comes out clearly in a second exchange between 'A' and the interviewer:

Interviewer: When you mentioned thinking that the Grade 11 students shouldn't be restless, they shouldn't have those kinds of problems (Supervisor thought processes, 9:15), did you work out a way to try and communicate this to him in the future?

> Supervisor   Now I don't know how much he does this either, he may
> 'A':   have just been talking there. So I want to see the
>   class a few times before I get a picture of him coming
>   into the class every day and telling the students to
>   take out their books to read in order to calm them
>   down (Supervisor thought processes, 20:25).

Rather than jump to any conclusion which may later be proven unwarranted,
supervisor 'A' is prepared to hold his initial reaction in abeyance until
he has clear evidence of what actually happens. He also demonstrates a
proclivity for assuming an attitude towards the possible, i.e., he
recognizes that supervisee' L' may have been talking quite loosely,
expressing fears more than actual classroom realities. This assuming of
a mental set, where he simultaneously holds various things in his mind
without having to express them and where he can abstract a positive
scenario that allows for further information-seeking behaviour, bears the
stamp of Level IV conceptual functioning.

Supervisee 'L'

Often when interpersonal interaction is in its initial phases,
generally before the relationship is established but also at the beginning
of some conferences, the stress created by a sense of the unknown can
sometimes cause supervisees to function at a lower conceptual level than
they normally would. Supervisee 'L' proves to be no exception at the
beginning of pre-conference #1. At 4:04 he processes a thought that
evidences Level I conceptual functioning:

> I felt a little more comfortable at this point than I had. But
> I was still waiting. I guess I was thinking we're doing this to keep
> ourselves relaxed, so when are we going to start, where's the lesson?
> (Supervisee thought processes, 4:04).

Because there is, as yet, no clear prescription for conference behaviour
emerging and because 'L' understandably feels dependent upon supervisor
'A's initiative at this point in the conference, the uncertainty resulting

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from a lengthy introduction produces refutation in 'L', causing him to

long for a quick and unambiguous sense of direction, i.e., the lesson

focus, that will help reduce the dissonance he is currently experiencing.

The early stresses of the pre-conference are still affecting

supervisee 'L' even at the five minute mark. While describing the class

to be observed, he alludes to discipline again and at 5:26 experiences

the following thought:

> I was a bit nervous at this point because he and I have talked
> a lot before about a few discipline things that I have had, I'm very
> conscious about discipline, very very conscious, overly conscious
> about it .... Now I was conscious at that point of what he was
> thinking of me, I always am when we talk about this sort of thing
> [discipline]. I can't seem to divorce him as helper from being a
> principal at the same time. Even though we're remarkably casual,
> I still think of him as the principal (Supervisor thought processes,
> 5:26).

It could be that supervisor 'A's strategy of talking about Block D's

problems with other teachers as a means of helping 'L' bolster his con-

fidence and forget about the experience has, in fact, made him nervous

again and this, in turn, causes him, almost involuntarily, to bring up

the subject of discipline. In so doing, 'L' has misread the supervisor's

intent and begins to see him at this point more as an evaluator than as a

helper. As a consequence, the supervisee becomes caught in a Level III

——>Level I syndrome with regard to his conceptual functioning. Initially,

'L' is highly sensitized to the supervisor as a competent adviser and

analyst but his inner nervousness causes him to become closed to 'A's

personal and professional abilities and more sensitized to his instit-

utional role as principal and teacher evaluator.

This variability in supervisee 'L's conceptual functioning is

also apparent in the conference dialogue. At 5:57 his nervousness is

still intense and this is communicated in the conference by statements

that are deliberately non-committal about student participation. This
is a particularly common Level II neutralization manouever which allows
the supervisee to describe what may happen in a way which, if class
participation is high, reflects creditably on his teaching performance,
but which, if class participation is unduly low, cannot be held as some-
thing for which he is specifically accountable. Shortly afterwards, how-
ever, 'L' relates how students come up with astonishing insights into the
book under discussion, especially some of the girls, displaying a Level
IV openness to variation in the abilities of others. Following on this,
when supervisor 'A' asks him about his concerns regarding class partici-
pation, 'L' does not understand the question and says so. As far as 'L's
verbal and nonverbal communication in the conference goes, this comes
across as an honest question, exemplifying Level IV autonomous thinking.
But his thoughts betray a Level II preoccupation with the possible threat
that 'A's critical feedback of student participation will pose for him:

> At this point I'm worried about the class itself and about
> whether or not they'll participate enough when he comes in .... They
> are a good class, but also a very quiet one ... they seem to be a bit
> bored by the material from time to time, so at this point I guess I'm
> worrying about whether or not they'll be like that when he comes in
> (Supervisee thought processes 5:57).

Since supervisee 'L' has, within two minutes of conference interaction,
evidenced conceptual functioning at all four levels, it could be argued
that the Level III ⟶ Level I and Level II ⟶ Level IV ⟶ Level II
syndromes observed are precipitated by his inner state which causes his
conceptual level to deteriorate when addressing topics that he associates
closely with anxiety-inducing phenomena.

This is further evident in the conference dialogue at 7:03 when
'L' maintains that the students never speak at the same time during class
discussion. In his thoughts, however, he disputes this and modifies what

he has verbalized in the conference. Such a thought is tantamount to

admitting that his description of class participation in a somewhat

idealized way is a means of bolstering his own sense of competence in

discipline matters (a Level II interpretive manouever) whereas the app-

raisal contained in his thought processes is more indicative of Level IV

reaffirmation of concern for information and provisional self-correction.

This discrepancy between 'L's conceptual functioning in the conference

dialogue and his thought processes becomes further apparent at 8:25.

For 1 minute 18 seconds he has been ruminating on his description of

student discussion behaviour as "polite" and at 8:25 his thoughts evidence

a dissatisfaction with his own conference verbal behaviour:

> Again, I always mention that they're always polite because I'm
> still thinking about them [the students] coming across to him in
> that way (Supervisee thought processes, 8:25).

The nub of supervisee 'L's dissatisfaction is his approval-seeking

behaviour and his apparent susceptibility to supervisor 'A's evaluation

which he wants to be a favourable one. It is the lack of concern for

information feedback in his conference dialogue that, in his thoughts,

'L' finds restrictive of autonomous interdependent behaviour on his part.

While at this point his conference verbal behaviour displays Level III

conceptual functioning, supervisee 'L's thought processes are, in and

of themselves, an example of the openness to rigorous task analysis

that is characteristic of Level IV functioning.

Level IV conceptual functioning however, seems to elude the

supervisee when, at 9:09, supervisor 'A' turns to probe what 'L' is doing

to encourage reading in the class in question. As he begins to share

what he does in this regard, supervisee 'L' becomes concerned about his

lesson planning and the difficulty he experiences in planning far ahead:

I was just thinking about the week at this point, how I'm going to plan all the week because I plan usually no more than two lessons ahead pretty well because for one thing it's my first year and it's easier just to plan a couple of lessons at a time. I guess in a way I don't want him [the supervisor] to know that. So for example, with my day-book, I have it open ... to the lesson for today, and sometimes I'm hoping that he won't ask me how I'm going to continue it tomorrow because I don't have that planned out (Supervisee thought processes, 9:09).

'L's concern about planning is not an information one; rather it is couched in terms of interpersonal threat where he wishes to avoid entering into the collaborative nature of the clinical supervision process. At the same time he attempts to neutralize the impact of this concern on his own professional confidence by excusing himself as a first year teacher, thereby denying his real responsibility in this matter. This Level II conceptual functioning and counter-dependent role behaviour plunges the supervisee into difficulties for, at the very point that he processes the 9:09 thought, he announces in the conference that he occasionally gives the students free reading periods during class time. Ironically, the more 'L' talks about this, the more he reveals that he does it when the students are difficult to settle down, indicative of discipline fears once again undergirding his verbal articulation in the conference. This state of affairs may have arisen from 'L's basic lack of planning; be that as it may, in attempting to conceal information pertaining to his forward planning from 'A', the supervisee has, in fact, revealed an instructional practice that concerns the supervisor greatly.

When, at 10:10, they both begin to look over the actual planning documented in 'L's day-book, the supervisee's dilemma becomes even more acute. Always ensuring that he turns back in the day-book but never forward beyond the lesson for that day, supervisee 'L' determines to prevent 'A' from finding out about his lack of forward planning during

the next 4 minutes 46 seconds of conference interaction. At 10:23, 'L' turns back to show 'A' an example of a lesson strategy; at 10:43, he turns back even further and then at 10:50 flicks back through previous lesson notes as he describes the theme essay questions from which he will allow the students to choose; at 10:54, having found an example of a theme essay question in a previous lesson plan, 'L' shares it with the supervisor. For the next 1 minute and 42 seconds, the supervisee's day-book remains open at this previous lesson plan. At 12:36, however, 'L' begins to flick forward in his day-book one page at a time until he reaches the lesson plan under discussion at 13:30. A mere five seconds later, the supervisee turns back to demonstrate discussion topics he has used in the previous three lessons on the novel the class is studying; then, at 14:42, he turns forward two pages and at 14:56 turns forward one more page to return to the day's lesson plan.

Despite the fact that, during this episode, both supervisor and supervisee are immersed in the details of the proposed lesson (verified by the fact that supervisor 'A' did not recall any thoughts pertaining to 'L's behaviour at this time), and that neither one, but particularly the supervisee, appears to be unsettled by the lesson plan sharing, 'L' nevertheless emits diffuse and misleading cues to cover up his lack of forward planning. In other words, supervisee 'L' is deliberately not entering completely into this phase of the conference for fear of exposure and consequent critical feedback. Having stated, in his thought processes, that a supervisor observing in class is always on his mind, 'L' attempts to articulate reasons for his Level II behavioural avoidance:

> I guess I have this ideal view of what a class should be like
> when a supervisor comes in, I guess that's what it is, although it
> wouldn't bother me from day to day if they [the students] didn't
> contribute a heck of a lot, you know, if it was an ordinary lesson

and he wasn't in there. I guess I suppose I would just ask them a
couple of questions but if he's in there, I like them to be, I
guess, well he is my principal after all, I'm evaluation conscious
anyway (Supervisee thought processes, 10:53).

Supervisee 'L's reluctance to expose his lack of forward planning to the

supervisor has its origins in his fear of evaluative feedback from a

person who has institutional power. This is indicative of refutation at

Level II and Level I and this lower conceptual functioning comes out in

the conference dialogue when 'L' attempts to neutralize the extent to

which the students understand what a theme essay is. This prompts him,

in the stimulated recall, to articulate criticism of his own verbal

behaviour; but this is an instance of non-interactive, as distinct from

interactive, thought processes:

I put these qualifiers in all the time, I don't know, maybe it's
because I keep on thinking about how they [the students] will react
when he's in there, that's always on my mind (Supervisee thought
processes, 10:53).

Such a critical commentary on his own performance represents high level

conceptual functioning; in this instance, however, it occurred not during

but after conference interaction.

A further instance occurs when supervisee 'L' responds to a

question put by the interviewer at the end of the stimulated recall

session. Asked why he is always thinking about evaluation and how the

students will react when supervisor 'A' is present, 'L' engages in pro-

visional self-devaluation:

I think it's because sometimes my lessons are kind of stodgy,
so I worry about them, I worry excessively about them being
unexciting (Supervisee thought processes, 20:25).

Intriguingly, this Level IV conceptual functioning during the stimulated

recall session appears to be in direct contrast with 'L's emitting of

diffuse cues and qualifiers (Level II neutralization tactics) during

conference interaction. One possible explanation is that, while the ambiguity contained in the principal/teacher evaluator/professional helper roles played by supervisor 'A' occasionally caused a reduction in 'L's conceptual functioning level, the role played by the interviewer posed little threat to him and consequently allowed him to function conceptually at his optimum level.

During the conference at 14:27, a lowering of supervisee 'L's conceptual functioning is evident when, in talking about the details of the day's lesson, he reveals that he will provide time towards the latter half of the period for students to finish off their essay on the current chapter of Lord of the Flies, and goes on to justify this with the remark that eighty minutes is a long time to hold their attention. This attempt at denial of responsibility--a Level II neutralization manouever--probably arises from 'L's perception of 'A' as an evaluator, an explanation that is reinforced towards the end of the conference when the supervisee repeats that the class is not a super enthusiastic one and that, if they sometimes appear to be uninterested, it does not mean that they are not listening. Such a non-commitment neutralization tactic indicates the reduction of conceptual level that occurs in supervisee 'L' during pre-conference #1 when he is consumed by the prospect of an unfavourable evaluation. Once the stimulated recall of conference interaction was over, however, and supervisee 'L' was asked to respond to questions put by the interviewer, an increase in his level of conceptual functioning was noticeable:

    Interviewer: To what extent do you think that your worry about
                    evaluation, I think that's how you termed it, is
                    attributable to another person being involved in this
                    kind of close relationship with you or is it attribut-
                    able to the fact that it is your principal who is
                    involving himself in this relationship with you?
    Supervisee   It's hard for me to answer but I think it's a bit of
      'L':   both. I don't like to be evaluated by people, you know,

> I just don't like it. I guess what it boils down to
> is the idea that they will think ill of me if I do a
> lousy job. There's nothing unusual in that but 'A's
> more like a, well, 'A's a principal too, I don't know
> whether that answers your question or not (Supervisee
> thought processes, 20:25).

Essentially, supervisee 'L' begins to articulate that, although he does

not like evaluation (which he attempts to rationalize as being normal),

supervisor 'A' may be fulfilling more than just the roles of principal/

teacher evaluator. But once alluded to, he quickly resorts to a Level

II focus which characterizes evaluation in terms of interpersonal threat.

'L's alluding to 'A's other role(s) represents a transitional level of

conceptual functioning, between Levels II and III, where he is beginning

to sense an authority that goes beyond institutional power; however, 'L'

does not reach Level III because of his preoccupation with 'A's formal

position and his evaluation powers.

Summary

Table 7 summarizes the structural variation categorizations

analysed in A-L pre-conference #1. As described in the case analysis,

certain stimulus points allowed for more than one categorization of

conceptual functioning in supervision participants. Supervisor 'A' had

thirteen stimulus points and two interviewer questions that allowed for

structural variations analysis and these yielded a total of twenty cat-

egorizations. (A point to note is that not all stimulus points and the

respective thought processes that they facilitated contained examples of

structural variations in conceptual functioning). These twenty categor-

izations, when transposed on to the 0-8 constructive openness scale (see

Table 5 in this chapter), accumulated to a score of 128, giving a con-

ceptual level mean of 6.40 for supervisor 'A'. Supervisee 'L' had a total

Table 7

Structural Variation categorizations for A-L
Pre-conference #1 and Participant
Conceptual Level Mean

Supervisor 'A'		Supervisee 'L'	
Stimulus Point	Categorizations	Stimulus Point	Categorizations
0:26	III/IV	4:04	I
3:28	III	5:28	III/I
4:30	IV	5:57	II/IV/II
5:26	IV	7:03	II/IV
7:37	IV/II	8:25	III/IV
12:04	IV	9:09	II
12:29	IV	9:15	II
14:27	IV/I	10:53	II/I/IV
16:04	IV		
17:21	III/IV	14:27	II
18:22	IV		
19:20	III		
20:06	III		

Interviewer Questions		Interviewer Questions	
#1	III/IV	#1	II/IV
#2	IV	#2	II/III
Mean: 128/20 = 6.40		Mean: 90/20 = 4.50	

of nine stimulus points and responded to two interviewer questions, all

of which yielded twenty categorizations of structural variations in his

dialogue and thoughts. The transposed score of these twenty categor-

izations amounted to 90, rendering a conceptual level mean of 4.50 for

supervisee 'L'.

CASE EXAMPLE: A-L POST-CONFERENCE #1

Supervisor 'A'

At the beginning of the conference, supervisor 'A' tells the

supervisee how impressed he is with the calibre of student responses

during the lesson. Although he does not verbalize it, 'A' is also

impressed by 'L's analysis that the class discussion suffered somewhat

as a result of the dominance of one male student. Yet, in spite of this

supportive feedback and the protective interdependent thrust it fosters,

supervisor 'A' probes further the supervisee's handling of the class

discussion by asking how the girls respond when Anita, one of the brighter

students, is present:

> A: I wanted him to be aware, if he wasn't already, that the girls
> couldn't answer any questions--but I wanted to ask him in such
> a way that we could talk about it a bit. That's why I kept
> referring to Anita who is his best student and wasn't there
> today (Supervisor thought processes, 2:50).

'A' alludes then to some informational feedback that he would like to

discuss with the supervisee, testing 'L's readiness for informational

interdependent conditions; but, since the supervisee does not pick up his

signals, supervisor 'A' turns the focus of the conference dialogue to the

question of 'L's segmenting of the lesson. In other words, 'A' tries to

push the supervisee a little but decides that it may be too early in the

conference for such a tactic and consequently returns to fostering

protective interdependent conditions.

This protective interdependent thrust continues in the early stages of the post-conference and at 5:19 'A' articulates the strategy behind the supportive feedback:

> A: Two reasons why I'm doing everything here, really stressing the good points of the lesson: first, because it really was a good lesson and he really needs positive strokes and it's the first time I've ever been able to say this is good but this wasn't so very good, so I really keyed on that; and second, I wanted to kind of have him prepared to let his guards down a little bit so that he might not get too upset when I ask to come to the larger class (Supervisor thought processes, 5:19).

'A's first reason represents a recognition that the supervisee needs protective interdependent conditions; the second reason, however, depicts his specific purpose in fostering these conditions. During the analysis and strategy phase, supervisor 'A' has carefully reflected on the observation data and on what transpired during the pre-conference and has come to the conclusion that 'L's confidence in classroom interaction will not be roundly bolstered until he, 'L', performs successfully under 'A's supervision in the Block D social studies class. Hence the strategic use of a protective interdependent thrust as groundwork for a subsequent press towards informational conditions, for 'A' realizes that the supervisee will not initially relish such a challenging prospect.

While this strategy is being employed, the conference dialogue focuses in substance on the question of literary symbolism and how the supervisee had stimulated the students to do a lot of work in this area. Just before 'L' begins to speak on this topic for 55 seconds he moves forward and then to one side as if bursting to tell the supervisor about what he has done in this regard. This nonverbal behaviour does not go unnoticed by supervisor 'A':

A: It [the nonverbal behaviour] communicated to me that what he said
    after that, for the first time it seemed like he was really proud
    of what he had done with those kids and he re-emphasized that
    again and shared how he had done it. ... during the conference
    yesterday I noticed when he started to move. He was a little bit
    nervous because people find it hard to take praise but also I
    think he realized that it was deserved and somebody had noticed
    it and he felt good about it (Supervisor thought processes, 5:19).

This interactive processing of the other participant's nonverbal behaviour

is evidence of Level IV openness to variation in the information source.

Unlike those who, on noticing nonverbal behaviour in others, tend to derive

a negative interpretation that causes them either to feel threatened or to

become excessively concerned with approval-seeking tactics, supervisor 'A'

is here capable of assuming a positive mental set that allows him to

interact with imperturbable composure. At the same time, however, he is

very aware of the supervisee's predicament of not always knowing how to

handle positive supervisor feedback, a Level III sensitization indicator,

but gives 'L' the credit of critically evaluating the grounds on which

the praise is based and, in so doing, reaffirms his Level IV concern with

information.

At 6:38 supervisor 'A' again alludes to the girl students and

their role in the class discussion. This represents a re-emergence of

his thought first articulated at 2:50 where he noted that the girls'

participation was minimal. This tactic of bringing the conference focus

back to a question that needs to be probed bears the stamp of greater

abstractness, for 'A' holds the question in his mind while he is dis-

cussing other aspects of 'L's instructional performance. When he does

return to the question of girl students' role in the discussion, super-

visor 'A' merely hints at the direction he would like the conference

dialogue to take; he does not impose a direct question because he wants

the supervisee to open up and talk about this factor. 'L', however, does

acknowledge the cue and 'A' decides that the issue is not consequential
enough to press further. Instead, he turns to probe the purpose of the
questions on the board:

> A: I wanted to establish there, the one thing I did question when I
> was watching the lesson, "there were four long questions and why
> did you give it to them to copy down all four"--that kind of
> bothered me a bit if he wasn't going to use them for something.
> I thought it was kind of busy work because the kids could have
> chosen one and started writing. But his answer explains why
> (Supervisor thought processes, 6:38).

Supervisor 'A' had a strong reaction to what the supervisee was doing
during instruction but deliberately withholds his opinion in the post-
conference while supervisee 'L' explains his strategy for dealing with the
essay questions in the manner that he did. Indeed, 'A' allows 'L' to talk
uninterruptedly for 48 seconds, indicative of his concern for information.
At the end of 'L's discourse, supervisor 'A' specifically asks why the
students had to copy down all the questions. Supervisee 'L' answers this
in a manner that 'A' finds impressive:

> A: I thought to myself there, while he was talking, that he really
> has things well figured out, he didn't have to think about
> answering that question, he knew why he was giving them all those
> topics (Supervisor thought processes, 8:33).

To have a strong reaction based on his knowledge of recent research on
teaching findings, to hold it in check to allow the supervisee to profer
an explanation, and then to recognize that his initial reaction was pre-
mature and based on insufficient information all add up to evidence of
Level IV conceptual functioning and informational interdependent condit-
ions. These conditions in themselves may have helped the supervisee think
through his answer for, immediately on probing the reason for 'L's
instructional strategy pertaining to the essay questions on the board,
supervisor 'A' suggests two or three possible alternatives. This not only
helps the supervisee to focus his answer; more importantly, it alleviates

any possible threat.

When 'A' asks 'L' at 9:20 how he felt about his manner in the class (one aspect of the pre-conference agreement), the supervisee suggests that he was much more relaxed and that this helped the students considerably. Supervisor 'A' reinforces this by producing evidence that this was the case, adding that 'L's inner state was probably partially responsible for the students being so receptive. This directing of evidence-based approval towards supervisee 'L's instrumental achievement of a relaxed inner state is a marked feature of informational inter-dependent conditions. 'A' continues to espouse these conditions at 9:57 when 'L' describes how he tends to feel out a group the first day, adding that, with the group in question, he didn't sense a need to be as harsh. This impresses supervisor 'A' in his thoughts:

> A: In fact that was good too because we had decided in the first semester that he should be tougher and I was glad to see that he didn't take that point blank, thinking that, even with a smaller class, I've got to be miserable to start with. That's what's going through my mind right here because I know he's tougher with his other two classes ... but with this group he obviously did read the group and realized that he didn't need to come in there like a dictator. Well, he seems to be holding back on this, thinking that I might think he should have been tougher to start with, and I'm really thinking that he did the right thing (Supervisor thought processes, 9:57).

Although he is impressed with the supervisee's exercising of discretionary judgment, supervisor 'A' does not explicitly state his approval in the conference; rather he keeps his own appraisal in check so that 'L' can clarify for himself the behavioural consequences of his decision. The last sentence of 'A's thought processes at 9:57, however, betrays a suspicion that the conditions may be too informational for the supervisee at this point. It could be possible that, if supervisor 'A' had revealed his appraisal to the supervisee, 'L' might have been more encouraged by the

feedback on one of his pre-conference concerns. However, by 9:57 in the conference 'A' recognizes that he has not explicitly communicated his thoughts on 'L's manner in the class and rather than divulge his opinion when the appropriate moment has passed, he appears to modify the supervision conditions.

This modification towards a more protective interdependent thrust becomes evident at 11:23. Supervisor 'A' reports on a second aspect of the pre-conference agreement, namely, 'L's tendency to jump around in the class discussion, and reveals that the discussion flowed smoothly and that 'L's questions were sequential. In addition, 'A' explicates his strategy in asking 'L' at 3:55 about how he had broken up the period--he wanted the supervisee to talk about the flow of the lesson--but 'L' did not pick up the cue. As a consequence, supervisor 'A' is bringing the focus back to this concern some seven and a half minutes later. Although supervisor 'A' demonstrates here his ability to hold on to important notions and to return to discuss them later in the conference--a mark of high conceptual functioning--he nevertheless directly informs the supervisee before 'L' has had an opportunity to clarify his own understanding of what went on. In other words, where supervisor 'A' has previously returned to probe an issue, here he re-directs the focus to tell the supervisee how he performed:

> A: Now I thought bringing that in--I don't like to come out point
>   blank and state my own impressions right away--but on that, see,
>   he'd asked for them the day before and he hadn't brought them up
>   by this point. So I thought I would at least report on that to
>   him because its another positive thing (Supervisor thought
>   processes, 11:23).

It is the action of telling something positive, as distinct from sharing information for the supervisee to effect a positive interpretation of his own, that marks 'A's supervision conditions at 11:23 as being

protective rather than informational interdependent.

A resumption of informational interdependent conditions is not, however, long in coming. After he has allowed the supervisee to talk at will for over two and a half minutes on a topic that enthuses him, essentially allowing 'L' to unwind, supervisor 'A' contemplates putting the strategic request to conduct the next cycle around a different class, namely, the social studies 11 Block D class. Although 'A's purpose of manipulating the task environment to push the supervisee further in his professional development emanates from a mind functioning conceptually at Level IV, his manner of interacting in the conference is more indicative of the field detachment phenomenon. At 15:08 'A' processes the following interactive thought, which he embellishes in the stimulated recall session with a non-interactive observation:

> A: I'm starting to think right there, about now, that I want to
>   break the question to him. I remember as he was talking there,
>   I was starting to think about it and I may look to be, it looks
>   to me like I can see myself visibly kind of wandering off to my
>   next thought even while 'L' is still talking (Supervisor thought
>   processes, 15:08).

This combination of an informational interdependent thrust with the phenomenon of field detachment is both unusual and interesting: unusual because field detachment more often occurs in persons who, functioning at a lower conceptual level, have difficulty holding more than one idea in their minds at a given time; and interesting because it demonstrated a situation where the mental "tuning-out" of a supervision participant, particularly the clinical supervisor, may not always be regarded as slipshod conference behaviour. Indeed, when a supervisor faces such a ... critical task in the midst of dynamic conference interaction, it could be argued that a certain amount of field detachment may well be inevitable; for without a momentary respite to review strategy and collect thoughts,

a supervisor could be sorely tempted to avoid confronting a potentially

contentious issue.

At 15:48 supervisor 'A' broaches the important topic of the next

cycle. Not only does he take the supervisee along gently, one step at a

time--first asking to come to a larger class, then later suggesting the

social studies 11 class--but supervisor 'A' also maintains a determined

informational orientation, in spite of his processing of 'L's verbal and

nonverbal behaviour and his consequent understanding of the dilemma in

which he has placed the supervisee:

> A: I know he's taken aback there but ... it doesn't bother me
> because that's what you have to do if you want to get in there,
> then I think you have to take the plunge at that point ... and
> I'm quite comfortable with that .... He's covering his mouth the
> whole time he's talking to me when he gets nervous; he's obviously
> nervous right now because he doesn't have time to think about this
> ... he didn't know before hand that I was going to ask him that.
> And his other hand is moving around as well. I really don't know
> what it signifies ... but I took it as being nervous. Really I
> think he's searching for a way to say "no" at this point
> (Supervisor thought processes, 15:48).

Although the last sentence of 'A's thought betrays a Level III sensit-

ization to the supervisee, there are several Level IV features in the

supervisor's conceptual functioning during this incident. First, the

step-wise progression with which he introduces the critical question dis-

plays an awareness, on 'A's part, of the differing levels of difficulty

involved in the task he is to undertake. Second, his processing of 'L's

verbal and nonverbal behaviour enables him to recognize the pressure that

the supervisee is under, but 'A' is capable of integrating the variations

he observes in 'L's behaviour into the overall perspective of what he as

supervisor is trying to achieve. Third, in spite of his insight into how

the supervisee feels, 'A' persists in the press, thereby evidencing a

Level IV behavioural response where a carefully thought out approach is

maintained regardless of the non-informational social influence emerging

from the supervisee.

While supervisee 'L' attempts to regain his composure after this

unexpected question, 'A' engages in fostering protective interdependent

conditions. Recognizing 'L's awkwardness, supervisor 'A' fills the silence

by talking about possible pre-conference arrangements. When the supervisee

stumbles over his first few words and then resumes silence, 'A' describes

the benefits that could be derived from his observing a different class.

The purpose behind 'A's interventions here is not to educate the super-

visee but rather to settle him down so that he does not withdraw psych-

ologically from the supervisory relationship. At 16:20 'A' asks in a

general way about the social studies class as a possibility for the next

classroom visitation. Upon hearing that 'L' will be covering Louis Riel

in the Thursday class, he continues the protective interdependent thrust

by making reference to another teacher whose social studies lesson he had

observed on that very topic:

> A: Now I said that about Dave's lesson because he really likes Dave
> and I wanted to keep him at ease. So I mentioned there that I
> had seen lessons on Louis Riel and some on the election so that
> he doesn't feel too much like he's being singled out (Supervisor
> thought processes, 16:26).

These Level III nurturing tactics are essential at this critical juncture

in the conference, for, if 'A' were to become too informational or uni-

lateral at this point, he would lose credibility in the eyes of the

supervisee. Consequently, the supervisor engages in relationship-

maintenance forms of communication for the remaining time in this post-

conference. This comes out clearly in 'A's thoughts at 17:17 which

essentially represent a commentary on his conference actions rather than

a recall of ideas processed during the interaction:

A: At that point I was just giving him information on our next
     meeting but we did carry on talking for some time after I turned
     the camera off. I tried to make him feel better about me coming
     into his social studies class. You know I talked about some
     other things that probably would really have embarrassed him in
     front of the camera, so I didn't [talk about them in front of the
     camera]. I just came on naturally with a couple of things which
     we bounced back and forth, I can't even remember what they were
     now, but I know we smoothed the situation out--that was a deli-
     berate strategy on my part (Supervisor thought processes, 17:26).

The protective nature of the supervision conditions is such that 'A'

arbitrarily shuts off the camera before their interaction is complete.

So intense is the supervisor's determination to mitigate any possible

negative side effects from this press to observe in a different class

that he declares the final minutes of conference interaction ineligible

for research purposes. This 'A' does (without consulting the absent

researcher) to safeguard confidentiality and to disabuse the supervisee's

mind of the inevitable anxieties and misgivings that had begun to over-

whelm him.

          Answering the questions posed by the interviewer at the end of

the stimulated recall session, 'A' reveals that the supervisor press

beginning at 15:48 was not maintained without a sense of awkwardness and

heartache:

Interviewer: In connection with the last situation, you said you
               felt comfortable when 'L' was obviously a little bit
               tense ...

Supervisor   Oh, when he started to get tense, I wasn't at all very
  'A':   comfortable, I was thinking of ways ... of trying to
               put him at ease .... I didn't want him to think that,
               well now you know I've seen you handle a group of seven
               but now I want to see what you can do with thirty--
               that's not my intention. I want to compare for myself
               and for him how he's improved, because I know he's im-
               proved, and I think that if I don't go into that big
               group, he's never going to know that he's improved. So
               that's why I want to get in there, because I know he's
               reluctant to having me come in--it's still threatening
               for him, he's still a first year teacher--but I hope it
               comes out where he really does well with this group

> because that will then dispel all his nightmares about
> Block D of semester one (Supervisor thought processes,
> 17:29).

'A' recognizes that his actions at this point could be easily misinterpreted; he also wrestles with the fact that any such misrepresentation could confound the supervisee's understanding of the purposes associated with the clinical approach. Nevertheless, he perseveres in this venture because he is convinced that it provides a unique opportunity for the supervisee to develop in confidence as a classroom teacher. This risk-taking by the supervisor, where 'A' attempts to press the supervisee beyond the plateau he has reached thus far in his development, would seem to epitomize the zenith of clinical supervision, designed as it is to foster instructional improvement through supervisee growth; for such a press inevitably causes refutation in the supervisee which, in turn, puts pressure on a perceptive supervisor to relieve the tension by retracting the challenge. Supervisor 'A', however, resolves not to do this; yet, at the same time, he does whatever he can to help the supervisee retain a calm composure.

Supervisee 'L'

When supervisees are asked to share their impressions of the lesson at the beginning of a post-conference, they generally respond in one of two ways; they either describe the lesson in glowing terms or they tend to understate the significance of anything they may have achieved during instruction. This dilemma is perfectly understandable since, in the role of supervisee, they are, at the outset of a post-conference, very dependent upon supervisor feedback. Until the tone of the conference has been set, therefore, supervisees seem to experience difficulty in sharing accurate impressions. Supervisee 'L' proves to be no exception. As

early as 0:35 in the conference dialogue 'L' qualifies his description

of the lesson--"it was not as fluid as previous ones". In a different

situation such qualification could be interpreted as Level II avoidance

where the supervisee is being deliberately abstruse; in this situation,

however, where the supervisee has yet to hear the supervisor's impressions,

it represents Level IV provisional self-devaluation. Had 'L' chosen to

depict the lesson in an exaggeratedly favourable light, that in itself

would indicate a Level II neutralization manouever designed to thwart

the analysis of teaching process.

At 1:19, however, 'L' demonstrates how difficult it is for the

participant in the supervisee role continually to maintain higher con-

ceptual functioning. When 'A' mentions that he sensed during the lesson

that the constant dominance of one student was disconcerting to 'L', the

supervisee admits that it was but only because he, 'L', thought it might

concern supervisor 'A'. This is an instance of an almost typical quandary

that faces supervisees; because they are in the subordinate role, they

are very susceptible to the supervisor's evaluation and highly prone

therefore to manipulating their behaviour in a way that elicits supervisor

approval. The Level III sensitization and confirmation principles under-

girding this conceptual functioning differ markedly from those operative

at Level I for, at the lowest level, supervisees rarely display the abi-

lity to manipulate their own behaviour in a conscious fashion. What is

at work here, then, is that supervisee 'L', because of the respect he

holds for his supervisor both as a person and as a professional, allows

his own instructional appraisal to be highly influenced by what 'A'

thinks. This is not to say that 'L' does nto form his own judgments;

merely that his confidence is closely tied to a congruence between his

and the supervisor's appraisal. At 2:50, while describing, in his

thoughts, certain background details pertaining to the class, this aspect

becomes clear:

> L: They [the students] really take to it [the novel] and I knew that
> he [supervisor 'A'] was really impressed .... I'm fairly con-
> fident in this conference because I knew I'd led the class
> successfully (Supervisee thought processes, 2:50).

At this very point in the conference, 'L's conditional dependence

is reinforced by supervisor 'A's sharing of how impressed he was with the

lesson. The effect of this feedback on the supervisee is immediate:

> L: I feel fantastic here ... I'm as high as a kite, you know, and
> I'm starting to pontificate in fact, which is something I do
> when I feel really good ... I use my hands an incredible amount.
> If you compare me to 'A', I use a lot more hand motions than he
> does, they're just all over the place (Supervisee thought
> processes, 2:65).

'L's confidence is bolstered considerably by the favourable supervisor

impression and this comes out in his tendency to pontificate and use non-

verbal behaviours excessively. These behaviours, however, are grounded

not in a quest for the basis of the instructional effectiveness but

rather on a sense of reaffirmed social and professional acceptance in the

mind of the supervisee. At 3:33, when 'A' has once again suggested how

impressive he found the uninhibited but responsible behaviour of students

even with the principal in the room, the supervisee begins to pontificate

on how he structures the class for continuity in discussion:

> L: See, here's where I'm starting to get a little out of hand, like
> a teaching manual. I'm so confident at this point that I just
> start to pontificate; this is what I felt and I was aware of it
> at the time (Supervisee thought processes, 3:33).

With remarkable insight, 'L' recognizes his proclivity for pontifacation

when his confidence is high. High confidence per se, however, does not

inevitably precipitate such behaviour; rather, it is high confidence in

a person functioning conceptually at Level III. Perceptive questioning

or direct disagreement and challenge of such behaviour could cause refutation in the recipient's mind. Refutation at Level III would cause the person's conceptual functioning either to lower itself to Level II or rise to the challenge of Level IV.

Such a dilemma confronts supervisee 'L' at 3:55. When the supervisee finishes his discourse on structuring class discussion, 'A' suggests that 'L' broke the lesson up interestingly. This spurs the supervisee out of his short lived euphoria:

L: At this point I'm not sure what he means--"interesting"--what does that mean? Does it mean that I broke it [the lesson] up well or that he would have preferred, you know, or he would have thought that it might have been better if I had done it another way. So I just let him 'spiel' (Supervisee thought processes, 3:55).

Although 'L' is uncertain about the meaning of "interesting", he nevertheless refrains from a precipitous reaction and allows the supervisor to expand on what he means. This deliberate choice of Level IV information-seeking behaviour allows for a reasoned discussion of the lesson segmenting and frees supervisee 'L' at one point to ask the supervisor to clarify a question which he, 'L', has not understood. To have chosen a Level II counter-dependent response, where 'L' begins to question the supervisor's integrity and competence, could have precipitated a serious imbroglio. Supervisee 'L's high conceptual functioning not only enables him to act responsibly in this delicate episode, but also prevents any misunderstanding occurring. It would be interesting to speculate as to whether 'L's choice would have been different, had supervisor 'A' not previously shared a favourable impression of the lesson and had he, the supervisee, not felt so buoyant in his confidence. As it stands, however, this choice presents itself to 'L' at a time when he is confident and therefore prepared to trust his supervisor's intentions.

It is very possible, then, that the interdependent conditions fostered by supervisor 'A' early in this post-conference framed the interactive environment in such a way as to influence the supervisee towards higher conceptual functioning.

As a consequence of this potential misunderstanding being averted, supervisee 'L's buoyancy is retained. When supervisor 'A' reports further favourable impressions about student insights and their understanding of literary symbolism, 'L' moves forward in his seat, keen to talk about what he has done to foster student knowledge in this regard. At the same time, he reveals in his thoughts that this feedback is extremely encouraging to him:

> L: This [literary symbolism] is one of the things I feel quite strongly about at this point, because one of the things that I've learned between last semester and this semester is that you can't take student knowledge for granted, and this is what I'm trying to explain to him at this point that the first semester I tried a sort of an inductive type of thing where I would just present the story and they would see the symbolism, you know, they would find it themselves. But I found that it was too difficult, so in this particular one [semester] I laid out the facts .... My emotions at this point are the same throughout the whole interview, I'm really happy that the lesson went so well, so I'm a combination of being calm and being high at the same time (Supervisee thought processes, 4:57).

Supervisee 'L's emotions are high because the supervisor has noted and shown approval for the immense effort that 'L' has put into teaching literary symbolism. This Level III confirmation is indicative of the fact that 'L's conceptual functioning is presently modulating between moderately high to high complexity and abstractness.

This is corroborated at 6:20 when 'L' finds, to his astonishment, that his confidence releases him to describe, without ostentation, how he went about teaching literary symbolism:

> L: At this time I'm thinking that that's what is amazing to me, because in previous conferences and discussions with supervisors

> during practicum, I usually embellish what happens--I guess
> every student teacher does this--and make it seem that I'm a
> little more competent than I actually am or that I planned
> something else and it turned out this way or something; but I
> really feel good at this point because all the things I say I'm
> doing, I'm actually doing, so it's really comfortable for me
> (Supervisee thought processes, 6:20).

This thought is processed after supervisee 'L' has talked uninterruptedly

for 55 seconds on a topic he feels strongly about, namely, literary symb-

olism. This, in turn, may have come about as a consequence of the

interdependent supervision conditions that prevailed at the time. What-

ever the origin, supervisee 'L' is here capable of reflecting on his own

conference behaviour--an indicator of Level IV autonomy and interdependence.

He recognizes that he is not practicing in this supervision experience

the Level II tendency to neutralize the effects of evaluation through the

presentation of a favourably distorted description of the lesson events

that was so prevalent during his days as a student teacher. More signif-

icantly, however, he has become aware that, by divesting his communication

of all attempts at pretense and prevarication, he feels considerably more

at ease in the supervisory situation. This feature in itself fulfils the

informational orientation that characterizes Level IV conceptual functioning

for, in choosing not to evade accurate descriptions, supervisee 'L' is

displaying an openness to rigorous task analysis and critical feedback.

Confidence and a sense of being at ease appear to affect the

supervisee's conceptual functioning positively. At 7:54 supervisor 'A'

wants to find out why 'L' insisted on the students copying down all the

questions from the board. Supervisee 'L' admits in his thoughts that he

had not previously thought about this question at all. One would there-

fore expect his verbal and nonverbal conference behaviour to take on a

somewhat diffident aspect. But the opposite is, in fact, the case. 'L'

not only answers the question in a manner that satisfies and impresses the supervisor; he also responds completely extemporaneously with such poise that 'A' infers that 'L' had carefully thought it all through. The supervisee reveals, however, in his thought processes that he made up his answer during the conference. This feature, together with his composed behaviour, suggests Level IV conceptual functioning in that it represents an emergent rule structure emanating from the integratively complex thought processes that equip the supervisee to think creatively whilst engaged in intense interpersonal communication. Similarly high conceptual functioning is operative in supervisee 'L' at 9:20 when, without offering any feedback, the supervisor asks him how he felt about his manner in handling the class. Far from feeling intimidated by this, supervisee 'L' quickly recognizes that "this is one of the things I asked him to look for at the pre-conference" (Supervisee thought processes, 9:20), and proceeds to share his impressions. This ability to transcend the immediate stimulus and discern the supervisory strategy, at least in part, is evidence of a participant who is capable of detaching his ego from the external world in a manner that allows his mind to become information oriented rather than stimulus bound. 'L's inner state of elation may be said then to furnish the supervisee with more than a mere feeling of being "high".

At 11:14 'L's high conceptual functioning evidences itself in Level IV openness to differences between events and provisional self-devlauation. The post-conference has begun to focus on a second aspect of the pre-conference agreement, namely, supervisee 'L's tendency to jump around and repeat himself during class discussion. Supervisor 'A' brings in feedback this time, suggesting that he saw no evidence of the supervisee's concern but that the discussion flowed sequentially. Supervisee

'L', whilst accepting this in the conference dialogue as a genuine

impression from an external observer, nevertheless disavows himself of

any credit in his thoughts:

> L: I'm thinking at this point that the kids did most of them [the
> discussion questions] because they did and I don't really go for
> logical progression that much--he's not correct in that. There
> is a logical progression but it's because they [the students]
> pick up on things so well, one point leads to another question
> which follows on nicely. I guess it appears logical to an out-
> sider ... because I'm not hopping from the front to the back of
> the book, but the main point is that it's because the kids pick
> up on things so quickly. I don't say I'll ask this question now
> and this one later--I just don't do that ... I know basically
> what I'm going to cover but I don't know how it will turn out
> (Supervisee thought processes, 11:14).

Because he knows the class went well, supervisee 'L' is open to an

analysis which controverts a favourable supervisor evaluation. Although

he depicts the sequential nature of the discussion as stemming from an

essentially collaborative movement by the students and him as teacher

towards logical progression, 'L' nevertheless praises only the students.

Such provisional devaluation, coming as it does from a mind bent on

accurate appraisal, denotes more than a teacher wanting to give credit

where he thinks credit is due; in the final analysis, it is an instance

of Level IV sensitization to different perspectives on the task difficulty

and to variation in the information potential of supervisor 'A'.

Supervisee 'L's conceptual functioning remains high until his

supervisor's attempt to press him towards observation in a different

class finally registers. Even as late as 15:26 when supervisor 'A' has

embarked on this strategy, 'L' is given to functioning at Level III. As

part of his approach, supervisor 'A' first compliments 'L' on the excell-

ent nature of the lesson he observed, adding that a number of concerns

that they perceived conjointly in the previous semester had totally

disappeared. Not unexpectedly, supervisee 'L' is quite flushed by this

feedback: "I'm just as high as a kite here, I'm really proud" (Supervisee thought processes, 15:25). Supervisor 'A's favourable evaluation is extremely confirming to 'L', evidence of his Level III conceptual functioning, but twenty-one seconds later, when 'A' asks to come next time to a larger and different class, 'L's buoyant inner state is checked. As a consequence, a gradual reduction in his conceptual functioning becomes apparent.

Immediately following 'A's question, supervisee 'L' witnessed "some hesitation in my face there" (Supervisee thought processes, 15:47) during the stimulated recall session but did not recall processing any specific thought at that point. This would appear to be in keeping with a good deal of research on nonverbal behaviour (see Harrison, 1965; Mehrabian, 1967; Hall, 1959; Ekman, 1964; Feldman, 1959; Hunt et al., 1978 and Smith, 1979) in interpersonal settings which suggests that the way a person truly feels in a tense situation is first communicated nonverbally rather than verbally. The verbal expression or, in this case, the processing of thoughts follows some five to seven seconds later. The supervisee proves to be no exception here. At 15:54, 'L' reveals his stupefaction as he grunts "Thursday? Thursday?" and processes a thought that verifies his nonverbal reaction seven seconds previously:

> L: I'm thinking right there that this is my best class that he's seen, a group of seven kids who are keen, well, if not keen, at least very bright .... I have a couple of bigger classes that are not the same way, there's a different atmosphere in them; one of them isn't very much into learning and another one I've had a few discipline problems with. So I'm thinking that if he comes in the room in this one, it might be a totally different atmosphere and that's kind of threatening to me and I sort of would like it to end here since it went so very well—but that's me, 'A's not a threatening human being, it's just my reaction, that's the way I think (Supervisee thought processes, 15:54).

Supervisor 'A's pressuring of 'L' towards autonomy and interdependence

forces a critical choice onto the supervisee's Level III functioning of

15:26: either 'L's conceptual functioning will rise to the challenge and

adopt an information-seeking, exploratory orientation or the supervisee

will allow his thinking to lower itself to Level II negative dependence.

Although he struggles to maintain a moderate high level of conceptual

functioning (note his concentration on factual details pertaining to

his various classes), 'L' is nevertheless weighed down by the refutational

effect of 'A's request and ends up appraising the situation in terms of

interpersonal threat. This, in turn, precipitates a Level II behavioural

response, for he would rather not finish the agreed upon number of clin-

ical cycles if those yet to come were to prove less successful than this

current one. These points notwithstanding, his respect for supervisor

'A' as a person and as a professional remains unblemished, demonstrating

that the supervisory relationship is solid and evidencing a vestige of

Level III neutralization (denial of source responsibility) in 'L's

conceptual functioning.

This Level III vestige and the solid supervisory relationship

are the critical determinants of 'L's decision at 16:37 to identify with

supervisor 'A's specific request, issued at 16:33, to come to the Grade

11 social studies class. Although he would rather not enter into such a

visitation arrangement, 'L' is prepared to undertake this venture because

'A' is the supervisor. This is evidenced by the apparent lack of pique

in 'L' at a time when he is under considerable pressure to do something

he basically finds formidable and unattractive. Outwardly, then, super-

visee 'L' restrains his behaviour but internally he is reduced to dire

straits. Even as he agrees to 'A's request--"Sure, I think so, it's a

different class"(Conference dialogue, 16:44,--'L' begins to qualify, a

Level II neutralization manoeuver which he not only recognizes instantly but which also disturbs him considerably in his thoughts: "See, I begin to qualify at this point and I'm aware of the fact that I'm doing it. It troubles me a lot" (Supervisee thought processes, 16:44). The fact that 'L' is aware of his behaviour as it happens and is concerned about his evasive, counterdependent behaviour indicates that this Level II conceptual functioning is but a temporary departure caused by the stress of the moment.

This stress, however, seems to have the supervisee in its clutches; while supervisor 'A' attempts to disarm the tension by suggesting that the class to be observed is different because two or three students make it very difficult for the teacher but adding that he can help the supervisee more in that situation, 'L' can do nothing but sigh very deeply. Indeed, as the supervisor discusses the arrangements for the ensuing pre-conference, 'L' is visibly "tuned-out"; he can hardly follow what 'A' is saying because of his field detachment:

> L: I'm already thinking about what the hell I'm going to do on Thursday [next visitation]. I have to face it, my mind was already clicking along thinking about what kind of thing I could do that would be fairly impressive, that's what I'm thinking about. I'm also thinking that this is a 'wild card' factor, him coming in on Thursday next, I hadn't counted on that ... I'm not really responding to him (Supervisor thought processes, 17:17).

The supervisee's field detachment here stems from two factors: first, the inordinate amount of internal stress that he is under and, second, his desire to impress supervisor 'A'. If the stress factor causes the disequilibrium operative in 'L's conceptual complexity, the supervisee's desire to impress indicates the level at which 'L' functions during this field detachment episode. Although much of 'L's internal stress emanates from a Level II categorization of the visitation in terms of an inter-

personal threat and a negative experience, his wish to elicit a favour-
able appraisal from supervisor 'A' demonstrates, in fact, a leaning
towards the conditional dependence characteristic of Level III. In other
words, 'L' so respects and trusts 'A' that he, 'L', is extremely sus-
ceptible to any supervisor-mediated evaluation of his instructional
performance.

As a consequence of supervisor 'A's fostering of protective
interdependent conditions, the strong supervisor-supervisee relationship
is retained and 'L's conceptual functioning is restored to Level III.
This is reinforced in the after-conference session when the supervisor
goes to great lengths to prepare 'L' for the next cycle. It would seem
that supervisor 'A' believes in the efficacy of the supervisee functioning
conceptually at Level III at the very least if intervention is to have a
positive impact on the teaching-learning situation.

Summary

Table 8 summarizes the structural variation categorizations
analysed in A-L post-conference #1. Supervisor 'A' had twelve stimulus
points together with one interviewer question and this yielded a total
of twenty categorizations. When transposed, these twenty categorizations
accumulated a score of 132, giving a conceptual level mean of 6.60 for
supervisor 'A' in this post-conference. Supervisee 'L', on the other
hand, had four more stimulus points, sixteen in all, but categorizations
of conceptual functioning occurred only eighteen times. Since the
transposed score of the eighteen categorizations amounted to 105, this
gave supervisee 'L' a conceptual level mean of 5.83.

Table 8

Structural Variation Categorizations for A-L
Post-conference #1 and Participant
Conceptual Level Mean

Supervisor 'A'		Supervisee 'L'	
Stimulus Point	Categorizations	Stimulus Point	Categorizations
2:50	III/IV	0:35	IV
5:19	III/IV/III/IV	1:19	IV
6:38	IV	2:50	III
8:33	IV	2:65	III
9:57	IV	3:33	III
11:23	III	3:55	IV
15:08	IV	4:57	III
15:48	III/IV/IV/IV	6:20	IV
15:54	III	7:54	IV
16:26	III	9:20	IV
17:17	III	11:14	IV
17:26	III	15:26	III
		15:54	II/III
		16:37	III
		16:44	II
		17:17	II/III

Interviewer Questions

#1   IV

Mean: 132/20 = 6.60   Mean: 105/18 = 5.83

CASE EXAMPLE: B-M PRE-CONFERENCE #1

Supervisor 'B'

Within the first minute of this pre-conference, supervisor 'B' interrupts the supervisee to ask whether the subtraction that 'M' is describing will take place during Math. This coming very shortly after a beginning where there has been no attempt to set a relaxed tone, seems to foreshadow the supervision conditions that 'B' is to foster in this first conference. Not surprisingly, the supervisee appears somewhat disturbed by this and he immediately switches to talking about a different activity. Supervisor 'B' notes the lack of focus:

> B: During this whole process I was debating whether to just ask him
> at that point about his objectives because he seemed to be
> wanting to tell me all these bits and pieces which aren't really
> important about knowing and was repetitious because I already
> knew the physical set-up in the classroom so that, well, I was
> thinking that I should maybe focus him more (Supervisor thought
> processes, 1:01).

Fifteen seconds later, 'B' professes to know what the supervisee is doing, thereby dismissing the need for a focus:

> B: That's when I changed my mind because I got what I wanted when
> he said, "they're just working on their own," now I know what
> their behaviour is, I don't need to know any more (Supervisor
> thought processes, 1:16).

Yet the only information that the supervisee has shared in the interim time relates to how he's already introduced addition to the remedial group, that today he's doing subtraction with them and that the students in this group will be working independently. It seems remarkable then that this additional information removes the necessity of focus articulated at 1:01. If this information is sufficient (as 'B' claims at 1:16) for a supervisor who purports to know the group well, then his thought at 1:01 shows impatience because he is not allowing the super-

visee much time to come to the point. On the other hand, the supervisee had earlier mentioned that this was a new remedial group containing students that 'B' had not yet seen in such a context. It is difficult to see, then, how the additional information could even possibly suffice, since supervisee 'M' has only alluded to the nature of the remedial students' activity and has not explicated the details of the task and their expected behaviour. Supervisor 'B's thoughts at 1:01 and 1:16 appear, then, to be precipitous and as such evidence low level conceptual functioning. While 'B' finds the lack of a clear focus refutational at 1:01, his thinking at 1:16 is indicative of Level I confirmation and neutralization. 'B' categorically judges the additional information to be sufficient for a supervisor who knows the physical set-up and the clear behaviour prescription that he apparently reads in the supervisee's brief sketch is extremely confirming to him.

There are situations where Level I conceptual functioning might be deemed appropriate for a clinical supervisor, e.g., where every attempt to help a border line supervisee acquire a research-verified teaching behaviour has foundered and the supervisor decides to impose a clear definition of minimal competence. But such situations arise as a consequence of much painstaking effort and continual inefficacy. When the timing is such that Level I functioning is operative in a supervisor early in a conference, it does not augur well for the subsequent inter- action. At 1:37 this suspicion is borne out by the conference dialogue and supervisor 'B's thoughts. Supervisee 'M' is talking about the Grade 5 students and asks if the Grade 4 curriculum would have covered fractions. Since the supervisee is in his first year of teaching, this is an under- standable query, even though he could possibly have found out the

information for himself. Supervisor 'B', however, is strongly of the

opinion that 'M' should know what the curriculum contains and then be

capable of researching what has been covered:

> B: I really thought there, there were a whole bunch of things running through my mind, one thing is that I was disappointed that he didn't know the past curriculum, the Grade 4 curriculum, and that really disappointed me, but I didn't know whether to show it in any way or not, so I just answered his question. It's the kind of thing you make a mental note of because maybe he should know about it some time (Supervisor thought processes, 1:37).

In a situation that calls for clarification and forebearance, 'B' is

pondering whether to communicate his disappointment. At the same time

he forfeits an opportunity to help the supervisee develop professionally;

not only does he transmute a poorly-phrased question from its original

intent of seeking information into an erroneous oversight but he also

evades answering the question in a definitive fashion:

> M: Do the Grade 5's get fractions in Grade 4?
> B: They've probably had some, how much is another question. It's best if you don't assume a lot (Conference dialogue, 1:37).

The vagueness of 'B's retort possibly perplexes the supervisee, for one

could reasonably expect the supervisor in his position as principal of

the school for a number of years to know what content is covered in each

of the grades. Even if this expectation if unreasonable, however, it

would appear that supervisor 'B' could here be hoist on his own petard,

as it were, for he has just made a similar omission to the one he found

so disappointing in the supervisee. Throughout this episode, 'B' inter-

prets the supervisee's behaviour according to his own criteria which are

not shared openly but imposed upon 'M'. Reliable imposition of external

criteria would let the supervisee know where he stood. Supervisor 'B',

however, is inconsistent in his application of the criteria he holds and

this creates supervision conditions that are, by definition, unreliable

unilateral. The evasiveness manifest in supervisor 'B's answer is further

evidence of the Level II conceptual functioning that tends to foster such

conditions. It culminates in 'B's apparent unwillingness to immerse him-

self in a clarification process that would not only have facilitated

greater understanding in both participants but that would also have

incorporated some interpersonal affinity.

Unreliable unilateral conditions continue to prevail at 2:04

when the supervisee mentions that he did not pre-test the Grade 5's for

fractions. Although the supervisor recognizes in his thought processes

that there was no real need for pre-testing in this area since the

supervisee could demonstrate the students' lack of knowledge about

fractions, he refrains from issuing supportive feedback. Consequently,

supervisee 'M' is left wondering whether he has made an omission or not.

The supervisee continues:

    M: So I didn't think that pre-testing the Grade 5's was necessary
       but one thing that will be different from them is ...
    B: (interrupts) What's happening with them then? (Conference
       dialogue, 2:14).

Notably, 'B' interrupts the supervisee just as he, 'M', was beginning to

inform the supervisor about what would be happening with the Grade 5's.

Supervisor 'B', however, is convinced that he is focusing the supervisee,

a telling factor in light of his insistence at 1:16 that he "doesn't need

to know any more." It is remarkable that, having successfully derived

the central idea after fifteen seconds of supervisee explanation at 1:16,

supervisor 'B' should now attempt to focus 'M' before hearing a des-

cription of the planned activity. This apparent inconsistency stems from

the phenomenon of "stimulus boundedness" (Kounin, 1970); 'B's behaviour

is so constrained by a sense of frustration about a lack of focus that

he cannot transcend this immediate stimulus, he must act on it right away.

Such "stimulus boundedness" is indicative of low conceptual complexity and the abrupt manner in which 'B' tries to rectify the alleged lack of focus suggests unreliable unilateral conditions.

Supervisor 'B's "stimulus boundedness" is still evident at 3:01. The supervisee mentions that he is going to introduce the Grade 5's to fractions and 'B' interprets: "So you're going to be direct teaching them then." This interpretation is neither a question nor a paraphrase but rather a statement and it seems to carry with it a covert message that the supervisee could have stated his intent that simply. This supervisor commentary, however, emanates from a mind that appears compelled to explain the supervisee's actions in terms of the Hunter (1971, 1973, 1975, 1979) approach to instruction, hence the strong emphasis on "direct teaching" and this causes 'B's "stimulus boundedness". In addition, supervisor 'B' reacts in a way that suggests a unilateral imposition of the Hunter terminology as useful but externally-derived criteria. The situation then is ripe for supervisor frustration if the approach that he, 'B', espouses is not heeded by the supervisee. Such is the case in supervisor 'B's thoughts at this time:

> B: I'm still frustrated, because he's not telling me what his
> behaviours are going to be, what he's going to be doing, so I
> don't even see where we're going in the pre-conference
> (Supervisor thought processes, 3:01).

'B's preoccupation with the Hunter schema makes it imperative for the pre-conference to focus on teacher behaviour. When the supervisee seemingly refuses to articulate what specific behaviours he, as teacher, will be adopting in the classroom, 'B' experiences Level I refutation; for there is no apparent clear prescription of 'M's instructional behaviour. Since he does not know the teacher behaviour, supervisor 'B' is given to Level I neutralization; he jumps to the categorical but

premature conclusion that the pre-conference is adrift.

Supervisor 'B's Level I functioning persists at 3:57. After he has failed to elicit from the supervisee an explicit articulation of the teacher behaviour for the Grade 5 activity, 'B' redirects the focus to the Grade 6 students. He does so, however, with an open-ended rather than a delimiting question; instead of asking what specific teacher behaviour will accompany the Grade 6 activity, 'B' poses a loosely worded "what about the Grade 6's?" Because of its open-ended nature, supervisee 'M' can answer the question in a number of ways other than focusing on his own specific instructional behaviour. This he does, communicating only his expectations for student behaviour during the fraction-based activity. This situation could once again prove extremely taxing to supervisor 'B' but he neutralizes the possible frustration by distorting his view of what is actually happening and by convincing himself that he now has a clear prescription for 'M's instructional behaviour:

> B: The question I'm asking him, I'm trying to get questions to let me know what the students' behaviours are and what his behaviour is going to be, and objective is coming through clear to me even though he hasn't said it as such; it's clear in my mind what he is doing: the kids are making up equivalent fractions using concrete materials. I don't think he ever stated that, however (Supervisor thought processes, 3:57).

Supervisor 'B's Level I conceptual functioning here makes him very susceptible to inaccurate recall, for at 4:49 in the conference dialogue the supervisee states explicitly that the students "have to make equivalent fractions with concrete materials." Because he feels the conference is not progressing well, supervisor 'B' possibly senses an urgency to give it direction; but, in giving the pre-conference direction, he has distorted his perception of conference events to the extent that, during the stimulated recall session, he sees himself, rather than the

supervisee, as the articulator of the lesson objective. This is, as

Wilson and Nisbett's (1978) review of previous research involving recall

points out, a situation that is, for supervisor 'B', "quite ego-involving,

and self-esteem or social desirability motives could have accounted for

the inaccuracy" (p. 119). It is interesting to note that this instance

of inaccurate recall occurs in a supervision participant given to low

conceptual functioning.

After the supervisee has stated the lesson objective at 4:49,

supervisor 'B' asks if the students know how to use the material strips

that show them the equivalent fractions. This follow-up is necessary

but the nature of supervisor 'B's question is such that the supervisee

does not recognize a deficiency in his planning. Instead of posing a

probing question, such as "have you thought about how the students can

undertake this activity without having had prior exposure to the

materials?", supervisor 'B' chooses to put what Good and Brophy (1978,

p. 363) describe as a yes-no question: "so that's what you're doing today,

teaching them how to use the material strips?" (Conference dialogue,

5:54). The supervisee merely answers in the negative thereby thwarting

'B's attempt at further exploring this point and then tells 'B' what he

is going to say in his directions. The directions, however, betray an

absence of planning for the logistical procedures involved in allocating

five pairs of scissors around the whole class. This precipitates a

strong reaction in supervisor 'B's thoughts:

> That opens up a whole new ball game, he obviously hadn't planned
> for the materials. That can kill that kind of lesson. So I was
> really hoping that that wouldn't happen ... I felt I wanted to
> question him further on this point, I felt that very definitely, but
> I didn't; mainly because I wanted well at this point we're picking
> up things that he wants done and because of him I can do that, I
> don't really feel I need very much input (Supervisor thought pro-
> cesses, 5:45).

With perceptive accuracy, supervisor 'B' recognizes the potential

danger in 'M's lack of logistical planning and procedural directions;

indeed, he admits to wanting to question the supervisee further on the

issue--but he does not do so. He attempts to justify this forfeit

decision by reference to the apparent need in clinical supervision for

the pre-conference to be largely supervisee-initiated. 'B's rational-

ization, however, smacks of a Level II denial of responsibility inter-

pretive manoeuver where he would rather be seen as faithfully following

the clinical model than as failing to help the supervisee clarify his

lesson plans. Non-intervention here by supervisor 'B' is not of benefit

to a supervisee like 'M' who, having sensed a problem in his plan but

chosen to override any notion that he rectify it, appears more concerned

with obviating the need for rigorous analysis than with actually learning

from the mistakes he commits in the classroom. It would appear far more

advantageous for supervisor 'B' to cultivate here the notion of dual

accountability where the supervisor would accept responsibility, along

with the teacher, for events that take place in the classroom under the

supervisee's charge. Such an approach, however, presupposes the inter-

personal affinity characteristic of Level III functioning in the person

of the supervisor and 'B' is currently fostering unreliable unilateral

conditions. This may have occurred as a consequence of the frustration

he experiences when the supervisee denies him further exploration of 'M's

plans for using the materials (which, in turn, was precipitated by his

inappropriate choice of question); be that as it may, this incident

demonstrates an instance of correct supervisor diagnosis but with no

accompanying prognosis for action. Diagnosis without prognosis may, in

the context of clinical supervision, be regarded as an indicator of low

conceptual functioning.

Far from challenging the supervisee through paraphrasing and probing questions to undertake a conceptual rehearsal of the lesson's directions, supervisor 'B' merely repeats a statement that 'M' had issued at 3:01: "that's really going to be guided practice" (Conference dialogue, 6:08). Not only does this demonstrate how caught up in the Hunter terminology supervisor 'B' is; more importantly, it shows that the particular label 'guided practice' is only acceptable when it is suggested by him. This imposition of external criteria in a manner where the supervisee's ideas and contributions are ignored represents reliable unilateral conditions. It would appear that the ambivalence experienced by supervisor 'B' around 5:45 in the conference has caused him to retreat to the rigid security of Level I conceptual functioning. This may explain why, after deciding to clarify the specific items that the supervisee has requested him to look for, supervisor 'B' disarms a relevant and penetrating probe by adding a yes-no question: "Now while you're working with the Grade 6's, what are the Grade 5's doing, are they working independently?" (Conference dialogue, 7:24). To have omitted the last part, "are they working independently?", could have produced a more exacting challenge to 'M's thinking.

As it is, the supervisee responds in the affirmative and then talks about the assignment he is going to set the Grade 5 students which he describes as "pretty simple". Instead of exploring why 'M' considered the activity simple for the Grade 5 students, supervisor 'B' puts words into the supervisee's mouth in the form of a leading question: "so you're not seeing any problems with that?" (Conference dialogue, 7:35). Not surprisingly, supervisee 'M' replies that he does not foresee any

problems. As a result, an opportunity to help the supervisee recognize his oversimplification of the task demands for the students concerned is lost. Further, 'B's probe of what the supervisee had planned for the Grade 5 students is somewhat weakened by his double use of yes-no questions. These give the supervisee an opportunity to deflect the focus of the conference away to something that he, 'M', wishes to address. The significant feature of 'B's propensity towards using yes-no questions is that it occurs when he has shown evidence in other ways of functioning conceptually at Level I.

When at 7:56, supervisor 'B' begins to review for purposes of establishing a pre-conference agreement, he does so without looking at the supervisee. During the stimulated recall session, 'B' notices this and recognizes after the fact the need for greater interpersonal affinity at this juncture:

> B: I didn't do it and I intended to, and that's a bad habit because I know him too well. I should have been looking at him each time, after each item, and making darn sure that that's what he wanted from what his body was telling me. I did it with the first one, I didn't do it with the next two, and I think maybe it's because we don't usually have communication problems, it's normally fairly clear cut and that may be just laziness on my part but I should be doing it all the time ... but I don't think there were communication problems today, I perfectly understood what he was doing. When I walked in [the classroom], nothing happened that I didn't expect (Supervisor thought processes, 7:56).

Although supervisor 'B' initially expresses a non-interactive desire for Level III sensitization, he quickly reverts to a Level I neutralization manoeuver so as to palter with his omission. This manoeuver involves a favourable distortion of what their typical conference communication is like, which ultimately is expressed in the judgment that he, 'B', "perfectly understood" what 'M' was planning to do. For a supervisor, whose conference communication is characterized by a marked lack of

probing and information-seeking behaviour, this represents an overstated claim; it demonstrates 'B's inability to perceive the conference interpersonal communication in a realistic fashion. It could indeed be possible that supervisor 'B's Level I conceptual functioning prevented him from conceiving of the need to look at the supervisee while he, 'B', was reviewing 'M's items for observation.

Despite his non-interactive wish for more shared accountability, supervisor 'B' appears to be given to unilateral conditions during the actual conference. At 8:24 'B' notices, again non-interactively, that he had deprived the supervisee of a chance for further explanation:

> B: That finger there told him to stop, a body language, (he rewinds the tape to have another look). He did stop. He maybe had more to say but he didn't go on .... That was quite unintentional on my part, I didn't realize I'd done that, I cut him off there (Supervisor thought processes, 8:24).

This nonverbal binding behaviour suggests unilateral conditions for the supervisee acts on this cue and refrains from talking. At the time, supervisor 'B' had shared a possible hypothesis for collecting data on the Grade 5 students and then asked the supervisee for his thoughts on the suggestion. The supervisee pauses for three seconds and is just about to respond when 'B' beckons 'M' nonverbally to remain quiet and continues to expound on how he, 'B', proposes to collect data on the Grade 6 students. The supervisor's nonverbal action may then be indicative of 'B's inability to entertain a flow of ideas other than his own train of thought. In other words, his level of conceptual functioning provoked in him a reaction where he determinedly had to carry on with what he intended to say. As a consequence, 'B's behaviour here is characterized by a Level I rigidity designed to expurgate any possibility of ambiguity.

Eventually, supervisee 'M' does articulate at 9:06 what he had tried to say earlier at 8:24. Essentially, he proposes an additional way in which the supervisor can gather data; 'M' wants to know if he can keep the remedial group on task with nonverbal communication behaviour while he instructs the Grade 5's and 6's. Supervisor 'B', however, senses interactively that this would create an overload but during the stimulated recall session wonders whether this could have been the supervisee's major concern, i.e., to be effective at what Kounin (1970) has termed "overlappingness":

> B: This is where I'm wondering if I've got too much to observe. Maybe I should make him set some priorities--which ones does he want me to observe for today? And the other thing I didn't read and I'm seeing it now is that what he is saying right now is maybe what he wanted more than anything else, I'm not too sure, although he got that information [about students at task], it was no problem, but I maybe should have focussed on it more (Supervisor thought processes, 9:06).

During the conference, supervisor 'B' continues to function at a low conceptual level. He wonders if he has too many items to observe but he does not discuss this with the supervisee; it is almost as if he, as supervisor, will decide how much can be considered. Non-interactively, however, 'B' shows evidence of provisional self-correction, a feature of Level IV conceptual functioning, when he questions whether this concern was perhaps the most vital one for the supervisee. But even this 'post facto' Level IV behavioural response is tempered by 'B's attempt, through distortion and categorical judgment, at glossing over the significance of his failure interactively to perceive this supervisee concern. This incident is somewhat ironic in that, had supervisor 'B' decided not to forfeit the opportunity for action and opted to challenge the supervisee to establish priorities in the items for observation, his non-interactive question about the importance of this concern might have been addressed

in the conference. Taken in the context of the conference and supervisor 'B's low interactive level of conceptual functioning, it is possible that the additional supervisee concern did not represent an overload; rather, it did not appear to fit into the particular chart designed by the supervisor for data gathering that 'B' was at that point in time explaining. 'B's low conceptual level and his espousal of unilateral conditions are further corroborated when, in a continuation of the discussion pertaining to the data it would be best to collect, he suggests that he could observe the nonverbal behaviours that the supervisee directs towards the remedial group. This direct repetition of what the supervisee had said a mere twenty four seconds earlier is not, however, an acknowledgement by supervisor 'B' of 'M's contribution; rather, it is an example of 'B' making as if to proffer a useful suggestion that has just come to mind. Supervisee 'M's tractable compliance confirms the reliable unilateral nature of the supervision conditions--the supervisee's suggestion is ignored but, when externally imposed as the supervisor's idea, it then becomes acceptable.

Supervisee 'M'

Since supervisee 'M' had been in a supervisory relationship with 'B' for six months, it could be assumed that he has developed different mechanisms for coping with a heavy emphasis on unilateral supervision conditions. Such an assumption is borne out in his thoughts at 1:41 when, having exposed his lack of knowledge about the Grade 4 curriculum, he experiences a bout of nervousness:

> M: All I think I'll say here is that I felt pretty nervous .... As far as 'B's behaviour goes, for most of the time he sort of has a very sincere manner about him and I don't really find him too influential and I don't find him too threatening (Supervisee thought processes, 1:41).

'M's nervousness is precipitated by an awareness that he does not know

something that he suspects the supervisor considers he should know.

Unquestionably, he could have sought out information about the Grade 4

curriculum for himself and this omission possibly preys on his mind;

nevertheless, 'M' is a first year teacher and he is attempting to employ

information-seeking behaviour when he asks whether the Grade 5 students

covered fractions in Grade 4. With greater experience, he could possibly

be able to state his concern more lucidly; that he does not know precisely

the extent to which the Grade 4 teacher covered fractions in her use of

the curriculum. Clarification is called for, particularly by the super-

visor, but neither participant is constrained in this manner. Indeed,

supervisor 'B' is given to unreliable unilateral conditions. As a con-

sequence 'M's mechanisms for coping with these conditions begin to emerge.

Although he initially demonstrates a Level III sensitization to 'B's

behaviour as a supervisor, in the final analysis 'M' betrays vestiges of

Level II source devaluation. He suggests that 'B' is neither influential

nor threatening, thereby attempting to neutralize the impact of super--

visory intervention on his own appraisal of his instructional competence.

Later, at 2:14, supervisee 'M' notices in the stimulated recall

session his Level I compliant reaction to supervisor 'B's constant

interruptions:

> M: One thing I notice actually is that he interrupts me, like I'll
> be half way through explaining something and he interrupts me,
> but I didn't notice it until now, it didn't seem to bother me at
> the time, I just accepted what he had to say ... I think that's
> about the third time he's done it already (Supervisee thought
> processes, 2:14).

Interactively, 'M' displays a Level I sensitization; he is so open to

'B's institutionally-derived power as principal that he does not question

the supervisor behaviour. Non-interactively, however, this incident

causes him a degree of Level III refutation, for his surprise at not

appearing affected by the interruptions during the conference implies that 'B's unwillingness to allow him as supervisee to enter into the discussion as a colleague does concern him.

Where supervisee 'M' does not comply with whatever the supervisor wants, he often experiences trepidation. At 4:17 'M' is relating what he plans to do with the Grade 6 students and, during a pause of five seconds, processes this thought:

> M: Any pause now is more nervousness than anything else ... I'm thinking of how I should react if he makes a suggestion later on ... I'll probe deeper and think of ways where it might not work in that particular situation (Supervisee thought processes, 4:17).

In order to disarm the deleterious effects of his inner anxiety, supervisee 'M' begins to formulate a stereotypical Level II counterdependent strategy. This then represents a growing dissatisfaction in the supervisee with the prevailing unilateral conditions; he no longer countenances compliance as an option and, if not allowed to develop his autonomy in the conference setting, determines not to identify with anything the supervisor suggests. The combination of nervousness and counterdependent role behaviour causes supervisee 'M' to proceed in the conference in an unfocussed fashion. He informs the supervisor that the Grade 6's have just started addition and subtraction of fractions but then becomes side-tracked talking about a worksheet that accompanies the materials. He relates what the students have done with the worksheet and what they have to do today but his communication at this point is marked by a lack of clarity. He does indeed need to explain the worksheet but only after he has demonstrated where it fits in the total lesson perspective. In other words, 'M' needs to state that the worksheet contains activities that are to form the basis of the Grade 6 assignment, and expound on the overall

intent of the Grade 6 activity before immersing himself in the details
of a worksheet. As a consequence, 'M's conference communication appears
nebulous and almost unintelligible. Such an attraction to suspiciously
irrevelant details is the result of a mind functioning at a moderately
low conceptual level. This episode serves to compound the difficulties
that supervisor and supervisee are experiencing, for it does not
encourage 'B' to experiment with more interdependent conditions.

'B's influence and 'M's counterdependent stance have not changed
at 8:23 when the supervisor begins to discuss possible data gathering
procedures. 'B' has asked the supervisee what he, 'M', thinks of a
verbatim record of all the teacher talk for the Grade 5 students and 'M'
pauses for three seconds. At the end of this pause, supervisor 'B' cuts
off 'M' as he is about to talk, but one second prior to this incident the
supervisee processes the following thought:

> M: See how long I waited there, 'B' had made a suggestion and I was
> thinking of ways I could say "that's alright but maybe" ... I
> waited and thought that what he says sounds OK, so I went along
> with it (Supervisee thought processes, 8:23).

Supervisee 'M' is still enmeshed in Level II counterdependent thinking—
he wants to be able to controvert 'B's suggestion with instances where
it may not be appropriate. At the end of the three second pause, how-
ever, he recognizes the value of the suggestion and decides not to oppose
it. What this amounts to is an upward modification of his conceptual
functioning. Despite his intended counterdependence, 'M' alleges that
he evaluates the idea for its information potential and concludes that
it is a useful approach to adopt. On the surface this would appear to
be an indicator of Level IV sensitization and confirmation; however, the
lack of clarifying responses together with a mere three second long
appraisal, would suggest that the supervisee failed to grasp all the

possible ramifications of such a data gathering technique and consequently

agreed with 'B' so as to effect a rapid conclusion. This interpretation

of 'M' functioning conceptually at Level I would appear to be corroborated

at 8:24 for, when the supervisor restrains him from talking, 'M' conforms.

Had he been functioning at Level II, 'M' would have been tempted, as

happens at 5:39 in the post-conference, to override supervisor 'B's

interruption; if conceptually 'M' had been functioning at Level IV, then,

at the next appropriate moment, he would have attempted to bring the

discussion focus back so as to probe the data gathering issue further.

For the next 34 seconds, however, 'M' exhibits a Level I overgeneralized

submission to the authority of supervisor 'B'.

At 8:57, however, supervisee 'M' is unable to contain a need for

expression and tries to expand on something that 'B' has said:

> M: Here I'm trying to add something of my own to the discussion
>   instead of having 'B' say everything. I'm trying to add some-
>   thing, I don't know whether it's very significant, but I'm
>   making the attempt (Supervisee thought processes, 8:57).

Having reverted to Level I functioning in order to cope with the

conditions espoused by supervisor 'B', supervisee 'M' now attempts to

make the conference discussion more collaborative. In so doing, he is

not only in keeping with the principles of clinical supervision that allow

for supervisee initiative but he also begins to articulate what may have

proved to have been his most vital instructional concern. 'M's leaning

towards Level III functioning, however, where he would seek supervisor

support for and appraisal of his ability to keep the remedial group on

task, is ultimately foreclosed by 'B's espousal of unilateral supervision

conditions. First, supervisor 'B' attempts to discuss 'M's concern as

creating an information overload; then, 'B' interrupts 'M' so frequently

between 9:06 and 10:07 that, in the end, the supervisee merely nods his

agreement with whatever the supervisor decides. As a consequence of this treatment, supervisee 'M' not only reverts to Level I compliance; far more consequential is the fact that he begins to "tune out" of the conference:

> M: I'm not actually thinking of what he's doing here, I'm kind of, ah, I might, I'm thinking that 'B' has got it pretty well set in his mind what he wants to do and I'm thinking to myself, "he knows what he wants to do, and I know I'm going to agree with him" (Supervisee thought processes, 10:07).

One could not ask for a clearer case of Level I bolstering. 'M' quickly appraises the situation and reaffirms what he considers to be the dutiful role of the supervisee. In terms of his growth as a professional class-room teacher, however, this would appear to be a regressive step.

Supervisor 'B's imposition of his own criteria and concerns, however, continues to rankle 'M'. At 10:21, as the supervisor is con-cluding his review of how he will collect data during observation, 'M' visibly "tunes out" of the conference for a second time within half a minute:

> M: I was thinking of a way I could deter ... I wasn't really listening to what he was saying to me about the two columns on his paper [teacher talk and student talk] I knew I could relate to that anyway. I was more, in my mind I was trying to think about anything that I could add myself that would be signifi-cant (Supervisee thought processes, 10:21).

The field detachment phenomenon here appears to be utilized as a Level II neutralization manoeuver where 'M' deliberately fails to listen to what the supervisor is saying so as to review something he could contribute. At the same time, however, the supervisee feels obligated to neutralize his disengagement from the conference and resorts to a Level I distortion and categorical judgment. Given the conference interaction thus far, it is indeed doubtful whether 'M' fully understands how he should later interpret data gathered in the way that supervisor 'B' is proposing; since he has chosen not to listen at a critical point in the explanation, it is

highly probable that he will not be able to relate to the categories.

This low level conceptual functioning is tempered, however, by the focus

of 'M's field detachment. He is concerned that the conference be more

collaborative and that he, as supervisee, add in a significant way to the

proceedings. As such, this represents a Level III concern for a greater

sense of interpersonal support and exchange.

'M' does eventually make his contribution only to find that,

after hearing him out, supervisor 'B' dismisses its appropriateness to

this particular cycle. Although the need to delimit the observation

focus is a serious concern for all clinical supervisors, it is incumbent

upon them to ensure that the focus is delimited according to what the

supervisee considers important. In this instance, supervisee 'M' feels

that his concerns do not really matter:

> M: As far as 'B's behaviour goes there, he wasn't really listening
> to me to what I was saying about going round to the kids and
> getting some examples of what was going on [in student work].
> He had something that he wanted to go onto and he had a chance
> to and he took it without regard for my input. These thoughts
> were going through my head at this time (Supervisee thought
> processes, 11:06).

Supervisee 'M' is not pleased with this rejection of his contribution.

The fact that such rejection is refutational to him indicates Level III

conceptual functioning. That the supervisee should, in the final minute

of the conference, evidence a Level III propensity towards identifying

with a process designed to foster a rigorous analysis of his teaching is,

in itself, quite ironic--for, with the cultivation of more interdependent

supervision conditions, supervisee 'M' could probably have recognized the

usefulness of clinical supervision for improving his classroom performance.

Summary

Table 9 summarizes the structural variation categorizations

Table 9

Structural Variations Categorizations for B-M
Pre-conference #1 and Participant
Conceptual Level Mean

Supervisor 'B'		Supervisee 'M'	
Stimulus Point	Categorizations	Stimulus Point	Categorizations
1:01	I	1:41	III/II
1:16	I	2:14	I
1:37	II	4:17	II
2:04	II	8:23	II/I
2:14	II	8:57	III
3:01	I/I	10:07	I
3:57	I	10:21	II/I/III
5:45	II	11:06	III
6:08	I/I		
7:56	I		
8:24	I		
9:06	II/I/I		
Mean: 34/16 = 2.13		Mean: 42/12 = 3.50	

analysed in B-M pre-conference #1. Supervisor 'B' had a total of twelve stimulus points which yielded sixteen categorizations. When transposed, these sixteen categorizations accumulated to a score of 34, giving supervisor 'B' a conceptual level mean of 2.13. Supervisee 'M had eight stimulus points and thought processes that contained evidence of structural variation and these yielded twelve categorizations. These categorizations amounted to a transpositional score of 42 on the 0-8 constructive openness scale, rendering a conceptual level mean of 3.50 for supervisee 'M' in this conference.

CASE EXAMPLE: C-O POST-CONFERENCE #1

Supervisor 'C'

As a beginning clinical supervisor, 'C' is keen to learn the role of facilitator. This keenness is caused partially by an awareness of his proclivity for being extremely direct and didactic. In attempting to acquire new supervisory behaviours, 'C' faces the dilemma of finding an appropriate balance between his natural tendency and the less directive influence process he associates with clinical supervision. Consequently, he is prone to the mistake of reversing the roles, i.e., not intervening when some direction is called for and becoming directive when the supervisee might have gained more by working things out for himself.

At 1:02 in the conference, this dilemma surfaces. Supervisor 'C' recognizes in his thoughts that the supervisee is not focusing on the lesson in its entirety:

> C: I think I was trying to get her more to elaborate on the entire lesson and not merely on the presentation .... The initial part was there but I wanted a full recap right at the beginning (Supervisor thought processes, 1:02).

Supervisor 'C', however, does not refocus the supervisee; rather, he

waits to try and bring out a lesson overview later in the conference but without success. Such a focus needs to be brought out at the beginning of a post-conference if it is to have any relevance, and, although 'C' realizes this, he forfeits the opportunity to redirect the supervisee. This Level II behavioural avoidance causes 'C' further problems. The supervisee has, in restricting herself to the details of the lesson prep-aration, revealed a concern about her lack of enthusiasm in a manner that suggests she would be open to supervisor feedback on this feature of her instruction. Supervisor 'C', however, fails to explore this opening because he is so bound up with his own train of thought regarding the need to refocus the supervisee and question her about how well the students understood the concepts taught in the lesson. As a result of this "stimulus boundedness", supervisor 'C' misses an opportunity to help the supervisee develop for she is, at this point, open to feedback on her own motivation.

This opportunity for favourable intervention has hardly passed when, eighteen seconds later, 'C' avoids intervening when it is necessary to correct an erroneous supervisee impression. Supervisor 'C' asks the supervisee if she got the concepts of one-half and one-quarter across to the students and 'O' responds confidently that she did. Far from challenging the supervisee on this point, since he was of a different opinion, supervisor 'C' actually agrees with her. This causes him a certain degree of anguish:

> C: I don't think she really did [get the concepts across to the students] you see, and I wasn't fair there, because, due to that lack of attending on the part of some of the students, I knew in my own mind that there were a few of them who didn't grasp what she was saying and she wasn't zeroing in on these kids ... but, in all fairness to her, the lesson did get across more so; in my mind watching the class react to her teaching, I don't think it got over as clearly as it possibly could (Supervisor thought processes, 1:20).

It would appear from this thought that 'C' disagrees quite vehemently at first with the supervisee's interpretation, but his attempt to pursue the issue with 'O' is thwarted by this incident. Indeed, the latter half of his thought is taken up with neutralizing the responsibility he has as supervisor for examining such a vital concern as the main concepts of the lesson not being understood by some students. The change from vehement disagreement to a cautious acceptance of what the lesson attained is not, however, evidence of Level IV provisional self-correction but rather of Level II inconsistency where 'C' is attempting to justify his behavioural avoidance. He cannot transcend the immediate stimulus of 'O's definite response that the lesson was successful in this area. Yet, with higher conceptual functioning and less "stimulus boundedness", supervisor 'C' could have challenged the supervisee to elaborate on how she communicated the concepts so well. 'C's Level II conceptual functioning, however, does not enable him to bring about growth in the supervisee on this point; indeed; it is his low conceptual level that precipitates 'C's awkwardness in the first place for, in wanting to explore what he saw as a significant piece of critical feedback, he inappropriately poses a yes-no question (rather than a probing one) which then allows the supervisee to stamp her appraisal on the post-conference by giving an unequivocal answer.

To counteract this difficulty, supervisor 'C' changes the subject in order to share feedback about the supervisee's use of pies. In this instance, 'C' is just about to tell the supervisee when he stops himself and asks a question:

> C: Actually there was one point I noticed when I looked at your
> objective in the lesson plan and you were going to go through
> using pies, and something that you didn't say that you had
> indicated that you were going to, perhaps, was, do you remember
> what that was perhaps? (Conference dialogue, 1:43-1:55).

This sudden change is evidence of a Level II ⟶ Level III transition in supervisor 'C's conceptual functioning as he attempts to break away from unilateral to interdependent conditions. But, although he appropriately remembers to be less directive at the outset of this episode, 'C' cannot sustain protective interdependent conditions. When the supervisee does not answer immediately, 'C' steps in first to offer her clues and then to tell her instead of drawing 'O' to her own conclusion about the instructional omission.

At 2:26 supervisor 'C' recognizes the need to intervene to refocus 'O's response to his question about her lesson pacing:

> C: I wanted 'O' to elaborate more on her lesson pacing and instead of saying, well, I was going too slow, be even a little more specific than that, why was it too slow, and this is something that I was thinking about as 'O' responded to my question about lesson pacing. After all, her lesson pacing was one of the major issues of the whole lesson, so we should have picked up more on that point (Supervisor thought processes, 2:26).

One would expect that, after processing this thought, supervisor 'C' would attempt to explore the reasons why 'O's pacing depreciated the lesson's effectiveness; but his manner of pursuing it is such that the supervisee never fully realizes that her initial answer does not go far enough. 'C' at least recognizes the need to probe further and makes an attempt to elicit a more comprehensive explanation from the supervisee; but the last sentence of his thought at 2:26 is an admission that he is not successful in this regard. Supervisor 'C's hovering between Level II and Level III is exemplified in his conference verbal behaviour at this time:

> C: Did you feel that [that the pacing was going too slow] half-way, (changes in mid-sentence from statement to question) at any given point in the lesson? (Conference dialogue, 2:26).

Supervisor 'C's natural tendency is to point out the reasons why 'O's

pacing was so remiss but in mid-sentence he tries to change from a unilateral to a more interdependent approach. As a consequence of 'C's Level II ——> Level III transitional conceptual functioning, the reasons for the supervisee's slow lesson pacing are neither stated arbitrarily nor explored conjointly during the conference.

Such supervisor inconsistency is indicative of the fact that 'C's conceptual functioning is closer to Level II than that of Level III. This is evidenced at 2:58 when 'C' responds in his thoughts, to the supervisee's hesitantly spoken comment about certain students looking bored:

> C: The comment about boredom, this didn't go through my mind at the time, it does now. I don't think 'O' is being perfectly honest with herself here, because ... when she's giving me these comments, they're sort of in a questioning tone, she's not quite sure; and it gives me the impression that she's feeling that this is what I [the supervisor] want to hear her say .... She's saying something that I'm going to be able to relate to but I think, and this is a filament running through the whole thing, that she does come up with some terrific criticisms but in a lot of senses she leaves the path open to me to say if that's the case, she's looking for reassurance. And these are perhaps the reasons for her lesson not proceeding as smoothly as it might .... This is not, however, the first time I've got this impression from 'O', sorry, yes it is, because in the beginning, it's easing off now, she will come up with some good, concise criticisms and she'll feel good about it, but at the beginning, and it's still coming through a lot more so than it did initially, she was mainly waiting back for me to give her reassurance, ideas, and help; I was more of a helper, but that's easing off considerably nowadays although it did happen today (Supervisor thought processes, 2:58).

The fact that supervisor 'C' picks up the supervisee's questioning intonation non-interactively, i.e., in the stimulated recall session and not during the actual conference, is an indicator that his interactive conceptual functioning has not yet reached Level III in its sensitization. But this merely represents further evidence of supervisor 'C's Level II ——> Level III transition. It requires a close analysis of his thought processes at 2:58 to perceive the confusion and inconsistency of logic that is characteristic of Level II negative dependence.

Supervisor 'C' recognizes non-interactively the unrealistic dependency that the supervisee is portraying throughout the conference and loosely associates this behaviour with the ineffectual nature of the lesson momentum; but he is not clear, indeed, at times he is quite obscure, about when the supervisee became so dependent and about what he thinks may have contributed to this state of affairs. First, 'C' says that the supervisee has acted like this in previous conferences, then he denies this, suggesting that her dependency behaviours are a recent acquisition. In the same sentence as he describes her initial confident and self-critical manner, however, 'C' also depicts the supervisee as having been very dependent on his help at the beginning of their supervisory relationship. Finally, he adds that her dependency upon him has been easing off lately but that it somehow seemed to resurrect itself in today's conference. At the end of this tortuous discourse, one is tempted to suspect that the supervisee has consistently evidenced such dependency behaviours and that the supervisor may have been a contributing factor--hence 'C's deliberately diffuse and misleading cues in this thought which serve to act as Level II interpretive manoeuvers. The significant feature of all this is that any supervisee subject to this kind of thinking, and the unreliable unilateral conditions it tends to foster, would have inordinate difficulty understanding what expectations the supervisor holds for an intervention along clinical lines.

Supervisor 'C's reversion to strictly unilateral conditions is corroborated by the next minute's events in the conference dialogue. Supervisee 'O' has, in responding to 'C's question about lesson pacing, revealed that some of the students not only looked bored but that they possibly did not understand the concepts being taught. 'C' then asks the

supervisee if there were any pinpoint indicators that came across to her during the lesson as to why the students did not understand. Because of the probing nature of supervisor 'C's question, 'O' pauses to think for six seconds. At the end of this time, she is just about to speak when 'C' steps in to tell her. When the supervisee builds on what 'C' has intimated to suggest that she progressed too quickly from one concept to another, the supervisor adds a definite "right". Instead of probing why 'O's moving too quickly led to students not understanding the concepts and what she could have done in her planning and instruction to prevent this dilemma occurring, supervisor 'C' binds 'O' to this judgment.

There are indeed times when a supervisor may need to bind a supervisee to a research verified conclusion about the teaching-learning process, certainly the relationship between ineffectual lesson pacing and unsatisfactory student learning behaviour is a case in point. But one expects a supervisor to bind a supervisee to this particular perspective only after she has deliberately, obstructively and without good grounds denied its validity and applicability. As it is, no such exchange has taken place; supervisor 'C', sensing the supervisee's need for reassurance, gives it to her but in a way that binds her to her current thinking because that coincides with his appraisal. Consequently, an opportunity for stretching the supervisee's understanding of her own teaching is lost because of supervisor 'C's use of unilateral behaviour. There is how-ever, nothing unreliable about the unilateral conditions at this point in the conference. Supervisor 'C' immediately follows this binding behaviour with a consistent application, through personal approval, of his own external standards:

> C: The one thing I did like was to include them to come up and cut
>   things up into halves and quarters because that really, I don't

know whether it gave you, but it gave me an indication that
those children who came up really understood what they were
doing (Conference dilaogue, 4:05).

With supervisee 'O' already showing signs of being highly sensitized to

institutional approval, these reliable unilateral conditions do little to

cultivate growth and development in her as a teacher.

This is still the case at 4:42 when supervisor 'C' is too easily

satisfied with the supervisee merely associating the students who did

not understand with those who were inattentive:

C: That's what I wanted to bring her to right from the start and
    she wasn't offering that to me, and I didn't know how quite to
    lead into that from the start. You see, that's what I was head-
    ing to right from the beginning, but when she came out with that,
    I thought OK, terrific (Supervisor thought processes, 4:42).

Because of his lack of an explicit strategy for bringing the supervisee

to this insight, an indication of Level I refutation, supervisor 'C' is

flushed at having reached this point. The emotional surge contained in

this Level I confirmation causes him, in turn, not to push further to

explore what 'O' could have done to keep the students on-task but rather

to regress from a hinted Level II ⟶ Level III transition to a straight-

forward Level I unilateralism.

C: And I think that [students not paying attention were the ones
    who did not understand concepts] came across to you, I mean, did
    that come across to you? Did you realize that at the time that
    that was the reason for their confusion?
O: (tries to say she thinks so, but is drowned out by 'C' who then
    explains it)
C: Those that weren't on task and paying attention ... I got the
    impression they didn't understand because they just weren't
    paying attention (Conference dialogue, 4:42-5:14).

Without any transition, supervisor 'C' turns the conference focus

to 'O's questioning techniques and the abruptness of this change disturbs

the supervisee:

C: The other thing too is about your questioning techniques. How
    do you feel about your question distribution to the whole class?

Did you feel that gave you a pretty good help in getting the concepts across? (Conference dialogue, 5:14-5:32).

When he could easily have requested to talk about 'O's questioning strategies in the lesson, supervisor 'C' articulates an opening statement that smacks of what Jackson (1971, pp. 21-25) describes as "the defect approach," where "the student [supervisee] is seen as essentially helpless and the teacher [supervisor] is omniscient" (p. 25). The supervisee picks up the defect innuendo and is somewhat shaken by it. Supervisor 'C', in turn, adds a yes-no question to the probing one that he had already put. This additional question is not really necessary but is probably included to disarm the potential blow of the corrective feedback that both part-icipants sense is coming. Had the supervisee chosen to answer the yes-no question, she could have forestalled the impact of any feedback; as it happens, 'O' chooses to address the probing question. As she begins to describe how she went about distributing her questions, however, the supervisee pauses for three seconds and 'C' steps in with a further yes-no question. This time there is no other question for 'O' to address and 'C's indiscriminate use of yes-no questions begins to frustrate the purpose he had in raising the issue of 'O's questioning techniques:

C: Did that [involving many children] give you a pretty good indication that the students understood?
O: Yes, I think so.
C: Yeah (long and diffident) .... Was there any indication in the students' worksheets that they understood?
O: Yes, there was.
C: Oh, they did, eh? (almost disbelievingly) (Conference dialogue, 5:47-6:04).

It is supervisor 'C's Level I functioning that precipitates much of the difficulty he experiences here. First, 'C' introduces the topic in a way that suggests a unilateral evaluation based on absolute, external criteria; then, he is somewhat uncomfortable with the uncertainty of not knowing how

the supervisee will react to the feedback and attempts to disarm this

ambiguity by rapidly posing a couple of yes-no questions. Although 'C'

appears to foster reliable unilateral conditions in the conference, his

thought processes at the time betray a trace of Level II confusion as he

ponders over how directive he should in fact be in giving feedback:

> C: Regarding her question distribution, I noted down "teacher talk",
> "student talk", and "questioning techniques", and she, in her own
> mind, I didn't know whether I should intrude on that at this point
> because I thought, OK, from her point of view maybe they were
> distributed in an even sense; in my own mind, I noted which
> children she asked how many questions and there were about five
> individuals who got asked two or three times and some who got
> asked none at all. So as an overall questioning period, I would
> say that she questioned two-thirds of the class but the ones she
> did not question were the ones who needed it and I don't know
> whether one accepts the questioning as it stands or not. Perhaps,
> there is something we need to discuss (Supervisor thought pro-
> cesses, 5:14).

At no time during the conference does 'C' share or make reference

to the data pertaining to 'O's distribution of questions. Instead, he

attempts to elicit from the supervisee the kind of description that he, as

supervisor, needs to share with her. Without these data, the supervisee

finds it difficult to make any kind of appraisal. In other words, rather

than eliciting an appraisal and pushing the supervisee to self-derived

insights (the purpose of a less directive approach to supervisory inter-

vention), supervisor 'C' is asking 'O' to do something which is extremely

problematic for someone who has not observed. The setting of supervisor

expectations beyond the supervisee's ability characterizes 'C's thinking

here as that of Level II.

Supervisor 'C's moderate low conceptual functioning continues to

be evident between 7:25 and 7:54 in the conference dialogue. Asking 'O'

to comment on the balance of teacher talk and student talk in the lesson

but giving her no data to work with, 'C' issues a series of short yes-no

questions that overshadow a significant probing question. Supervisee 'O'
answers the last yes-no question, thereby depriving 'C' of the opportunity
to probe this topic further. Yes-no type questions, by definition, invoke
a categorical response. Consequently, supervisor 'C' is here forced to
agree, albeit reluctantly, with 'O's response because a categorical
statement is difficult to oppose if one is just beginning to supervisee
along clinical lines and if it comes from the supervisee. Since the
clinical approach sets out to be supervisee initiated as far as is
possible, it becomes exceedingly difficult even for an experienced super-
visor to contest a categorical statement articulated by the supervisee.
In the final analysis, to tackle such a situation effectively requires
higher level conceptual functioning on the part of the supervisor.

At 8:40 supervisor 'C's unreliable unilateral conditions pre-
cipitate an unusual testiness in the supervisee. Asked how she would
proceed with the teaching of fractions in her next lesson, 'O' proposes
to review the concepts of one-half and one-quarter before introducing the
concept of one-third. Almost as if she suspects that 'C' could controvert
what she is saying, 'O' stuns her supervisor with an unforeseen question:
"how do you feel about that?" Supervisor 'C' is taken aback by this
reaction and, although he agrees with her during the conference, in his
thoughts he protests vehemently:

> C: She doesn't ever do review, well, she hasn't done that up to now
> for a long time and that threw me totally because, you see, there
> she was looking for some kind of feedback from me because obviously
> in her own mind she wasn't convinced that the students had grasped
> the concepts, but that's good, that's the point I was trying to
> get across. Judging by what my response is going to be now, I
> don't think I did indicate to her that perhaps she could work a
> bit more on the half, quarter, and whole business, but I don't
> think we established as a form of agreement at the end that she
> shouldn't go into teaching one-third right away. I think this is
> why, I don't know if I was relaying that it wasn't clear to the
> kids what she had taught or whether she rightly in her own mind
> had decided that (Supervisor thought processes, 8:40).

The latter half of this thought serves more as a non-interactive comm-
entary; the first half, however, betrays that, although he realized that
the supervisee's reaction emanated from a frustration caused by lack of
data and feedback, 'C' nevertheless forfeits the opportunity to provide
the necessary input. As a consequence, supervisor 'C' is thrown by the
unexpected question and reduces the stress of the moment by rapidly
agreeing with the supervisee's position. At the same time, he recognizes
non-interactively that he should not have capitulated so readily; indeed,
he is so strongly of the opinion that this issue needed to be pursued to
the extent of effecting an agreement about how she should teach fractions
in the next lesson. If this is indicative of 'C' functioning non-
interactively at a transitional point between Level II and Level III, his
last thought is evidence of entrenched Level II conceptual functioning.
In spite of the shortcomings he has noted, 'C' bolsters his competence as
a clinical supervisor by suggesting that the supervisee did realize that
her teaching of the concepts lacked clarity and that he may have been
responsible for her coming to that recognition.

Supervisor 'C's Level II conceptual functioning is corroborated
by the ensuing events in the conference. Although his thinking is quite
the opposite, 'C' indicates to 'O' that, if she is confident the students
have grasped the concepts, then it is probably time to move on. In other
words, he does not merely forfeit the opportunity of pressing the super-
visee on a point that would contribute to her growth and development;
rather, he deliberately avoids it. In addition to the inconsistency
evidenced by 'C' in the conference setting itself, there is also an
internal incongruence between his thoughts and actions. As a consequence,
supervisor 'C' rapidly changes the topic. Instead of probing how well

the students had grasped the concepts and exploring how appropriate the introduction of a new concept would be, supervisor 'C' hastily redirects the focus, betraying Level II behavioural avoidance and Level I refutation at the uncertainty of the moment.

During the stimulated recall session at 9:30, supervisor 'C' notices how unilateral the conditions of the conference have become. He was not, however, able to pick up his binding behaviour during conference interaction where the possibility for modification existed. Since the topic of discussion revolves around classroom control and student inattention, supervisor 'C's espousal of unilateral conditions causes the supervisee a degree of uncertainty and anguish. He asks her to articulate what she would do next time to ensure that the students were not inattentive and her group control was better. After a seven second pause, 'O' makes two suggestions in a most uncertain voice; 'C' counters that he has no ideas, he merely wants her to think through things that she would be comfortable doing. This expectation, however, is beyond what the supervisee is capable of, especially at this point in the conference, and she consequently fumbles her way towards what she thinks will prove an acceptable answer to 'C'. In his thoughts, supervisor 'C' recognizes the manipulation at work:

> C: That's a perfect answer, that's exactly it, you see. I'm pushing her to make her talk but she in her own mind cannot right now. She has no idea and quite unfairly I'm trying to get some response out of her quickly, so that she'll tell me something she'll do in order to come to some sort of agreement. So next time I'll be able to see if she has thought of something and what I should have said here is, "OK, maybe we need to think about this and we'll discuss it together before your next lesson" (Supervisor thought processes, 10:02).

The significant point in this thought is 'C's non-interactive recognition of the need for a change from the behavioural manipulation characteristic

of unreliable unilateral conditions to the conjoint planning and dual

accountability that accompanies protective interdependent conditions.

Yet, although 'C' does mention working conjointly on this aspect of the

lesson planning at 10:38 in the conference, it not only comes too late to

be effective but, more significantly, carries a trace of glibness that is

suggestive of Level II behavioural avoidance. In other words, it is almost

as if supervisor 'C' has suddenly remembered the notion of dual account-

ability, but that he has little intention of acting upon it. Being given

to mouthing the right concepts, even if they have a specious ring and

serve merely to bolster one's confidence, could possibly be regarded as a

characteristic of a beginning supervisor who wants to identify with the

process of clinical supervision but who has not yet internalized the

concepts and behaviours associated with the required role. It is also an

indication that 'C's conceptual functioning fluctuates between Level II

and Level II ⟶ Level III transition.

This is confirmed in the conference dialogue as supervisor 'C'

attempts to review for the purpose of effecting closure:

> C: I think the lesson was well handled. The only thing affecting
> it was the fact that some of the children weren't attending and
> because of that, I mean it wasn't a reflection on your teaching
> but the fact of control was somewhat lacking (Conference
> dialogue, 10:41-10:58).

Supervisor 'C' wants so much to be supportive of the supervisee; indeed,

he accompanies this review with a warm nonverbal communication of

encouragement. But this merely emphasizes the mixed nature of the

message for the supervisee: it was a well handled lesson but it wasn't.

The confusion is created by 'C' attempting to disarm the thrust of his

corrective feedback about her group control by issuing a palpably untrue

statement: it wasn't a reflection on your teaching, merely your control.

'C's intent here is laudable, but his action is not well contrived. In the final analysis, whilst indicating his desire to move towards a protective interdependent emphasis, it demonstrates how entrenched 'C' yet is in unreliable unilateral conditions.

At the end of the conference, supervisor 'C' further evidences his moderate low conceptual functioning when the interviewer questions him about a particular dilemma that he, 'C', had described in his thought processes:

Interviewer: You mentioned that you felt 'O' wasn't very forth-coming. Did you think at any time of trying to talk to her about that particular aspect, that you wanted her to exchange more ideas with you? Did that cross your mind?

Supervisor 'C': Yes it did, actually; yet I didn't really know how to attack the problem, because to stop her and say, "I'd like you to offer me more ideas", half kills the purpose and the idea I thought I might conjure up possibly is intimidating to her even more, because she's not giving me enough and I want more. Possibly she would then have come out with things which, in her mind, perhaps weren't that important to her but merely to make conversation. But even so, the main point is that I didn't know how to open up all that business. I wanted to throw the ball into her court so that she could open herself up but I never got the feeling that she could do that at the time--I think she was a bit perplexed about the whole lesson and she didn't know how to open that up (Supervisor thought processes, 11:37).

The sole course of action that supervisor 'C' can think of to resolve this dilemma suggests Level I unilateralism. He recognizes that this tack would be self-defeating and that he does not like it; but, although he reacts negatively to this Level I option, 'C' cannot formulate any alternatives. Such thinking is characteristic of Level II where a participant knows what he does not want, but cannot generate sufficient alternatives from which to choose a viable course of action that would then dissipate his confusion. The fact that he cannot bring the supervisee to contribute

more to the discussion is clearly refutational to him; he cannot interpret

this as a challenge but rather finds the potential role conflict of not

being able to help someone he perceives as needing professional help

particularly disconcerting. This Level I functioning quickly gives way,

however, to a Level III ⟶ Level II transition where 'C' is concerned that

he not impose anything on the supervisee for which she is not ready; but

he then uses this concern to bolster his competence as a supervisor, i.e.,

he alludes to the fact that other aspects of the situation , notably, the

supervisee's perplexity and consequent diffidence, are really responsible

for the communication impasse.

Supervisee 'O'

At the very outset of the conference, supervisee 'O' demonstrates

a preparedness to identify with the analysis of teaching process. She

has reflected on her lesson performance and, when asked to share her

impressions, notes a certain lack of enthusiasm in her attitude and this

prompts an interactive thought:

> O: When I was talking about enthusiasm I sort of reflected back to
> our last conference when 'C' asked me what I would be using to
> motivate the children next time. I can't really recall what his
> first question was ... because when I answered him then [in the
> last conference] I was saying that I would be using the same
> thing as I did in the previous lesson; it just comes across that
> maybe I wasn't really motivated because it was the same thing for
> me as well as the children (Supervisee thought processes, 1:02).

Supervisee 'O' here displays the beginnings of higher conceptual

functioning. There is a hint of Level IV provisional self-correction,

together with a tentative Level III susceptibility to the supervisor's

evaluation--hence her sharing her impression in a way where it could be

influenced by supervisor 'C's appraisal. At this point in the conference

then, 'O' is looking for support from supervisor 'C' for the insight she

senses she has derived. This represents Level III conceptual functioning which could, under appropriate conditions, be nurtured and possibly pushed towards Level IV.

Supervisor 'C', however, does not explore this impression with her at all; indeed, his quick change to focus on how well the students understood the concepts taught probably comes across to 'O' as rejection of her input, causing her to experience Level III refutation and consequent reduction in conceptual functioning. At 1:20 then, she evidences Level II sensitization and neutralization when through an unequivocal answer to a yes-no question she scuttles 'C's initial attempt to address the issue of instructional effectiveness. As supervisor 'C' attempts to counter this quandary by asking what other materials 'O' could have used to teach the concepts, the supervisee responds: "squares? that might have been easy to cut as well, but I thought the pies would be the easiest thing to work with" (Conference dialogue, 1:27-1:38). 'O' here speaks very hesitatingly at first, almost as if she cannot figure out the point that supervisor 'C' is driving at; then her speed of expression increases as she bolsters her competence (a Level II interpretive manoeuver) by dismissing whatever 'C' is hinting at and reaffirming that the pies are the most appropriate resources for the task. In addition, supervisee 'O' demonstrates a reluctance to consider alternative sources of materials and, in the final analysis, has to reach closure on this issue as fast as she can. Although 'O' does this so as to bolster her own sense of competence, it is also evidence of a mind functioning at Level I.

At 5:14 supervisee 'O' demonstrates the extent to which her mind is engulfed by Level I conceptual functioning. Supervisor 'C' has broached the topic of her questioning techniques in a manner that reflects

a defect approach. 'O' recognizes this but, far from balking openly at 'C's ill-conceived comment (he presents no data to substantiate his implied concern), she displays a stereotypical Level I sensitization and behavioural response:

> O: I wasn't quite sure why he asked that question [about question distribution], I thought that maybe he thought something was wrong with it, and I didn't know how to respond to that ... I wasn't so much confused as I felt that maybe I did something wrong because he asked that question (Supervisee thought processes, 5:14).

Because the supervisor has formal authority over her, she feels duty-bound to accept his appraisal. Since 'C' has implied that her questioning techniques left something to be desired, supervisee 'O' attempts to figure out what was wrong. As she is not successful in this regard and because the supervisor has not explicitly laid out his criticisms, she experiences Level I refutation which temporarily robs her of the alertness required to issue an appropriate response. As it happens, supervisee 'O' is not confounded for long, for she seizes the opportunity presented by 'C's second yes-no question to stamp a positive appraisal on the effectiveness with which she transmitted the lesson's concepts to the students. This suggests Level I ⟶ Level II transitional conceptual functioning for, although supervisee 'O' answers the question with a categorical judgment designed to impose a particular lesson description, she does so in order to neutralize the impact of the supervisor's evaluation and to bolster her own somewhat shaken view of herself as a classroom teacher.

Shortly after this, supervisor 'C' begins to inform 'O' directly about what would have been required for the students to have understood the concepts comprehensively. This prescriptive advice is not, however, refutational for 'O' at 7:21; indeed, she finds the clear prescription

for behaviour confirming, because 'C' is pointing out something that she

had not recognized for herself:

> O: I just realized at that point that what he was bringing up was
> quite true [the need to point out the concept of a "whole" when
> teaching fractions] and that I started asking those kinds of
> questions after the children indicated to me that they didn't
> understand what I was saying (Supervisee thought processes, 7:21).

The important question here is whether supervisee 'O' could have come to

this insight as a result of supervisor probing or whether she would not,

in fact, have concluded that the students had failed to grasp the concept

of a 'whole' without 'C' interpreting it for her. Her thought at 7:21

suggests the latter (in which case she is entrenched at Level I) but

during the conference interaction supervisee 'O' refers to thinking about

it as the lesson was proceeding. Further supervisor probing of this

point, then, could possibly have elicited a similar conclusion but in a

manner where the supervisee, could have owned and internalized the insight.

As it stands, however, the unilateral supervision conditions prevailing

at the time hold 'O' at Level I conceptual functioning, thereby denying

any potential supervisee growth.

Supervisor 'C's general inconsistency throughout the conference,

however, precipitates a Level I⟶Level II transitional reaction in 'O'

at 8:40. After 'C' has asked her how she will proceed with teaching

fractions in the next lesson, supervisee 'O' posits some suggestions and

then demands immediate feedback from the supervisor--"how do you feel

about that?" The counterdependent manner in which this question is put

takes the supervisor by storm and possibly emanates from 'O's growing

sense of frustration at 'C's lack of consistent and clear feedback:

> O: At that point I wasn't quite sure whether I could ask the question
> back to him to get his own feelings on the matter ... I was not
> certain that I could ask him a question because I have to be
> influenced by him, he is the supervisor (Supervisee thought
> processes, 8:40).

Although supervisee 'O' stuns the supervisor during the conference with a question that smacks of Level II negative dependence, her interactive thoughts at the time betray Level I refutation, bolstering and sensitization. The uncertainty of not knowing whether she can make the process more collaborative causes her to reaffirm what she sees as the duty of a supervisee, i.e., to be open to the influence of a person vested with institutionally-derived power of evaluation. The overgeneralized submission inherent in this attitude is typical of Level I conceptual functioning. 'O's vestige of Level II functioning, on the other hand, is merely a supervisee's frustrated reaction to the unreliable unilateral supervision conditions extant at this time.

These conditions still persist at 9:30 when 'C' abruptly switches the conference focus to discussing two points that the supervisee has suggested were not too successful, namely 'O's group control and student attention. The supervisor asks what 'O' would do next time to ensure that students are not inattentive and that her group control fares better. During a seven-second pause, 'O' processes the following thought:

> O: Here I am again trying to decide whether to ask him to give me some suggestions or do as I just did a few minutes ago .... I just don't feel a freedom to ask 'C' one way or the other, I'm sort of hesitant about asking him (Supervisee thought processes, 9:30).

Supervisee 'O' wants to ask 'C' what he would suggest but does not sense, after the incident of 8:40, that there is sufficient freedom in her role as supervisee to allow that. As a consequence, 'O' takes seven seconds, not so much to ponder on the substance of 'C's question, but rather to come to terms with the lack of role clarity that causes her refutation.

This Level I conceptual functioning confirms itself in the conference dialogue itself for 'O' tentatively issues two suggestions in

a most uncertain tone, suggestive of the fact that she thinks that there
are definite answers that the supervisor is looking for; her predicament
is, however, that she has no notion of what the appropriate answers are
and the refutational aspect of this ambiguity buffets her towards pre-
ferring the supervisor to dictate to her explicitly what she should do.
Supervisor 'C' picks up this tone and protests that he has no ideas in
mind; but 'O' has difficulty in accepting this, particularly when the
supervisor reiterates his question:

> O: I think I just wanted to say [in answering the question per-
> taining to discipline] what pleased him and didn't really know
> what to say because I didn't want to say things that might
> offend him (Supervisee thought processes, 10:02).

'O's thought here depicts a stereotypical Level I conceptual functioning.
Because she is interacting with a supervisor vested with formal authority
whom she suspects of having some definite views on her classroom per-
formance but whose mind she cannot fathom, supervisee 'O' determines to
comply. This she does to reduce the effects of her current uncertainty,
notably her wish to placate the supervisor.

The supervisee's suspicion, however, that 'C' is appraising her
according to his own hidden criteria--further evidence of unreliable
unilateral supervision conditions--is verified at 10:58 when the super-
visor begins, finally, to impose his views:

> C: But I think, as I mentioned before, and perhaps this is more of
> a directive thing, is, before your lesson starts, to make sure
> they're really paying careful attention and that they're staying
> in their rows and that there's no moving around. This could be
> a key to their paying attention (Conference dialogue, 10:58).

Supervisee 'O's consistently low conceptual functioning, particularly in
the latter half of the conference, is probably an accurate indication of
the extent to which her thinking is characterized by concreteness. On
the other hand, her conceptual development is severely restricted by 'C's

unilateral supervision conditions which appear to deprive her of the
vital personal and professional growth that one expects to emerge from
a clinical supervision intervention.

Summary

Table 10 summarizes the structural variation categorizations
analysed in C-O post-conference #1. Supervisor 'C' had ten stimulus
points where his thought processes demonstrated variations in structure.
These ten points together with one interviewer question yielded thirty-
one categorizations. Transposed on to the constructive openness scale,
these categorizations accumulated to a score of 102.5, giving supervisor
'C' a conceptual level mean of 3.31 for this post-conference. Supervisee
'O' had seven stimulus points which yielded a total of sixteen categor-
izations of structural variation. When transposed, these sixteen
categorizations amounted to a total score of 42, rendering a conceptual
level mean of 2.62 for supervisee 'O' in this conference.

Table 10

Structural Variation Categorizations for C-O
Post-conference #1 and Participant
Conceptual Level Mean

Supervisor 'C'		Supervisee 'O'	
Stimulus Point	Categorizations	Stimulus Point	Categorizations
1:02	II	1:02	IV/III
1:20	II	1:20	II/II/I
2:26	II/III/II/II/III	5:14	I/I/II
2:58	II/II/I/I	7:21	I
4:42	I/II/III/I	8:40	I/II/I
5:14	I/II	9:30	I/I
7:21	II	10:02	I/I
8:40	I/II/II/I		
9:30	II		
10:02	II/II/III/II		

Interviewer Questions

| #1 | II/I/II/III | | |
| Mean: 102.5/31 = 3.31 | | Mean: 42/16 = 2.62 | |

Chapter 7

CONSTRUCTIVE OPENNESS AND CONCEPTUAL FUNCTIONING

The preceding two chapters have discussed respectively the data
concerning the content and nature of the participants' verbal commun-
ication and an analysis of the structural variations in their dialogue.
The present chapter extends the analysis to an examination of the
relationships between participants' communication and their level of
conceptual functioning.

This analysis begins with an examination of the supervisors'
interactive level of constructive openness in conjunction with the
levels of conceptual functioning achieved both by the supervisors them-
selves and by their supervisees. In a second section a comparison of
supervisor and supervisee conceptual functioning is made, and the third
section examines the relationship between the predicted level of con-
structive openness and the actual level of conceptual functioning in
order to determine to what extent the former may predict not merely
interactive levels of constructive openness, but also levels of con-
ceptual functioning. This third section will also contain a comparison
of the degree of constructive openness which supervisors predicted for
themselves, and that which they actually achieved. The final section
discusses the evidence concerning causal effects—whether or not a
supervisor's way of conferencing has an effect on supervisee development.
This final section concludes by presenting a series of hypotheses which

are suggested by the analysis.

The basic display of data relevant to these explorations is presented in Table 11 which, for convenience, combines the data previously presented in Tables 4 and 6 concerning supervisors' and supervisees' scores on measures of constructive openness and conceptual functioning.

CONSTRUCTIVE OPENNESS AND LEVELS OF CONCEPTUAL FUNCTIONING

This section will examine supervisors' interactive level of constructive openness in conjunction with first, the levels of conceptual functioning achieved by the supervisors, and second, the levels of conceptual functioning achieved by their supervisees.

Supervisor Interactive Constructive Openness and Conceptual Functioning

To determine the relationship between supervisor conceptual functioning and interactive constructive openness, a pearson product moment correlation coefficient was calculated by the raw score method (see Appendix F). The coefficient of 0.88 suggests a high association between supervisor conceptual functioning and interactive constructive openness, this despite apparent discrepancies in supervisor 'B's performance. If, as Wallen (1972) indicates, the influence process in the clinical conference is closely tied to the level of supervisor constructive openness, then this finding that supervisor verbal communication patterns are associated with levels of conceptual functioning, would suggest a possible way to effect a more freeing influence process at work in the clinical conference; namely, to work with existing and would-be clinical supervisors in a manner that helps them develop towards more

Table 11

Participant Preactive, Interactive Levels of Constructive Openness with
Mean Levels of Interactive Conceptual Functioning per Conference

Preactive Level Constructive Openness	Supervisor				Supervisee	
	Interactive Level Conceptual Functioning	Interactive Level Constructive Openness		Influence Process	Interactive Level Conceptual Functioning	Preactive Level Constructive Openness
A 6.12	6.40	6.21	pre-conf. #1	Internalization	4.50	
	6.60	5.84	post-conf. #1	Identification	5.83	5.27 L
	6.38	5.74	pre-conf. #2	Identification	5.44	
	5.82	5.27	post-conf. #2	Identification	6.01	
B 3.01	2.13	4.61	pre-conf. #1	Identification	3.50	4.14 M
	2.58	3.48	post-conf. #1	Non-Identification	2.52	
	2.59	4.33	pre-conf. #2	Identification	4.50	5.08 N
	2.42	3.76	post-conf. #2	Non-Identification	3.54	
C 3.86	3.31	3.62	post-conf. #1	Non-Identification	2.62	2.41 O
	3.40	3.91	post-conf. #2	Non-Identification	2.19	
D 6.02	6.43	7.06	pre-conf. #1	Internalization	4.68	
	6.35	6.54	post-conf. #1	Internalization	6.31	6.37 P
	6.17	7.11	pre-conf. #2	Internalization	5.79	
	6.71	6.59	post-conf. #2	Internalization	6.88	

abstract conceptual functioning. The reverse would be equally true in
that pre-service or in-service work that encouraged more concrete con-
ceptual functioning in clinical supervisors would be likely to bring
about a more binding influence process.

Supervisor Interactive Constructive Openness and Supervisee Conceptual Functioning

A pearson product moment coefficient was calculated by the raw
score method (see Appendix F) to determine if there was any correlation
between these two variables over the 14 conferences. The pearson r
coefficient of 0.81 suggests a positive correlation between supervisor
constructive openness and supervisee conceptual functioning over the
total sample of conferences. This would seem to corroborate Wallen's
(1972) contention that supervisor level of constructive openness
determines the influence process at work in the conference which, in
turn, produces certain effects in supervisee behaviour.

The overall correlation masks individual differences which may
reveal clues about the interrelatedness of these two variables. Table
11 demonstrates that, with the exception of A-L pre-conference #1 and
D-P pre-conferences #1 and #2, all conferences involving 'L', 'N', and
'P', (those supervisees who scored moderately high to high on the
Preactive Behaviour Instrument and preferred the role of responsible
independence) evidenced scores on these variables that were within 0.8
(ten percent of the optimum score on each variable) of each other. This
could mean that, where supervisees are highly sensitized to verbal
communication, i.e., capable of functioning conceptually at Level III
and/or Level IV, the supervisor interactive level of constructive open-
ness may influence supervisee role behaviour and growth. But, on the

evidence, it could also mean that a supervisee capable of high conceptual functioning causes a supervisor to be constructively open. The conference involving 'M' and 'O' (those supervisees who conceived of their role behaviour in low level constructive openness terms) did not evidence scores on both variables that were within 0.8 of each other. The data suggest, then, that the evidence of reciprocal influence observed in the A-L, B-N, and D-P relationships was not present in the B-M and C-O dyads.

How does one explain the pre-conference exceptions in the case of supervisees 'L' and 'P'? Both supervisees evidenced a remarkable drop in their conceptual functioning level during their respective first pre-conferences. It would appear then that supervisees capable of functioning at a high conceptual level are most prone to a reduction in the complexity of their thoughts, and hence a lowering of their interactive conceptual functioning score, at the outset of supervisory intervention. This may be because they realize from the beginning what is involved in a rigorous and penetrating analysis of their instructional performance, a realization that does not strike lower level supervisees ('M' and 'O') until the post-conference where critical feedback is brought to bear. Supervisees who are more highly sensitized to the institutional power of the supervisor seem initially to have a gudgeon-like response to the strong facilitator emphasis contained in the pre-conference, where they fail to grasp the purpose of intervention along clinical lines and consequently are stunned by the rigour of the analytical process that follows.

If one examines the dyads for supervisee growth and development, it is evident that the conceptual functioning of supervisees increased

only in those relationships where supervisors performed at high levels of constructive openness, i.e., A-L and D-P. In these dyads, the interactive level of constructive openness fostered by supervisors 'A' and 'D' appeared to have allowed for and encouraged the 33.5% and 47% increase in the conceptual functioning level of 'L' and 'P' respectively that occurred between the first pre-conference and second post-conference. In the case of B-N, where there was also evidence of reciprocal influence, 'B's interactive constructive openness appeared to handicap 'N's development. A similar phenomenon appeared to be operative in 'B's relationship with 'M'. Supervisee 'M's conceptual functioning decreased 28 percent in proportion to the 24.51 percent reduction evident in supervisor 'B's constructive openness level. In the case of C-O, however, the supervisee's conceptual level dropped when there was evidence of a slight increase in supervisor 'C's level of constructive openness.

The relationship between supervisor constructive openness and supervisee growth, as measured by conceptual functioning level, does not appear, then, to be as definite as Wallen (1972) postulates. Accordingly, the next section will look at the relationship between supervisor and supervisee conceptual functioning.

SUPERVISOR AND SUPERVISEE CONCEPTUAL FUNCTIONING

Table 11 shows seven of the fourteen conferences as having scores on supervisor and supervisee conceptual functioning within 0.8 of each other. These seven conferences consist of the first post-conferences conducted by all four supervisors together with the second post-conference conducted by 'D'. This finding, whilst apparently

similar to the one found in the comparison of supervisor constructive

openness and supervisee conceptual functioning, differs in its inclusion

of the post-conferences conducted by 'B' with 'M' and 'C' with 'O', and

its exclusion of 'B's conferences with 'N'.

Except for 'A's second post-conference, 'B's first pre-confer-

ence and 'D's second post-conference, there was little variation in each

supervisor's conceptual functioning. Each supervisee, however, evidenced

marked variation in their conceptual functioning. Table 12 demonstrates

the possibility of a "pull" exerted by supervisors on supervisee con-

ceptual functioning. In each dyad containing a pre-conference, super-

visors' conceptual functioning in the first pre-conference is compared

with supervisees' conceptual functioning in their respective last post-

conferences. Supervisees' scores in the first pre-conference is

included to show the range and direction of any change. While super-

visees 'L' and 'P' increased their conceptual functioning over two

cycles by 33.55 percent and 47 percent respectively, the conceptual

functioning of supervisees 'M' and 'N' decreased 28 percent and 23.55

percent respectively over one cycle. In each case, the change in

supervisees' scores was always in the direction of the supervisor's

level in the first pre-conference. The fact that this is so marked

seems to justify the idea that it is the supervisor whose influence in

exerting a "pull" on supervisee conceptual functioning.

This appears to illuminate the phenomenon of supervisory

influence, for it would seem to suggest that interactive conceptual

functioning rather than mere verbal communication is a more effective

variable for understanding the influence of abstract and/or concrete

thinking supervisors on supervisees in the post-conference. In other

Table 12

Comparison of Pre-conference Supervisor Conceptual
Functioning with Post-conference Supervisee
Conceptual Functioning

Supervisor	Conceptual Functioning	Conference	Conceptual Functioning	Supervisee
A	6.40	Pre-conf. #1	4.50	L
		Post-conf. #2	6.01	
B	2.13	Pre-conf. #1	3.50	M
		Post-conf. #1	2.52	
B	2.59	Pre-conf. #2	4.50	N
		Post-conf. #2	3.54	
D	6.43	Pre-conf. #1	4.68	P
		Post-conf. #2	6.88	

words, when feedback is involved, supervisees of low-level functioning supervisors take their cue more from the nonverbal behaviour, which is inextricably bound up with a person's thought processes. This is in keeping with research by Harrison (1965) who found that verbal signals carry only a small part of the information that is exchanged in face-to-face interaction; indeed, he estimates that no more than thirty-five percent of the social meaning is carried in the verbal message (p. 161).

Yet this does not appear to be the case with those supervisors who fostered interdependent conditions. In the conferences conducted by supervisors 'A' and 'D' interactive constructive openness was as effective a predictor of their influence on supervisees 'L' and 'P' as interactive conceptual functioning. In other words, the nonverbal messages transmitted simulataneously with the verbal messages generally reinforced the spoken word, depicting an integrated, honest communication within a solid interpersonal relationship. It appears, then, that supervisees 'L' and 'P' could afford to concentrate on the verbal behaviour of their supervisors.

Supervisees 'M', 'N', and 'O', did not, however, appear to be afforded such opportunity. The conferences conducted by supervisors 'B' and 'C' contained many instances of mixed communication, i.e., where the nonverbal belies the verbal. In such situations, the supervisees reported following the nonverbal. Mehrabian (1967, p. 331) reports a project that has a bearing on these situations. He studied the attitudes of persons in interview situations as revealed through head and body movements. He found that when information communicated through non-verbal channels contradicts information communicated verbally, the nonverbally communicated information seems to predominate in the

interpretation of the person receiving the two sets of information. This present study would add to Mehrabian's findings by suggesting that situations of unintended mixed communication tend to occur when the transmitter is a person of low conceptual level. Intentional or strategic mixed communication, on the other hand, where a supervisor wishes to convey a direct message without offending the supervisee, would appear to require high conceptual functioning, since it is an example of nonverbal behaviour being used as a form of meta-communication--i.e., "the nonverbal conveys instructions as to how the verbal message should be deciphered" (Keltner, 1970, p. 111).

Where low level functioning supervisors tended to betray their negative feelings through nonverbal behaviour, high level functioning supervisors utilized nonverbal communication to cultivate supportive affect. When the communication of affect is present within a conference, supervisees seem to attend actively to the verbal message, which in clinical supervision generally pertains to the substance of the teaching process. Where a positive atmosphere of trust is not present and the supervisee senses a degree of behavioural manipulation, nonverbal communication then appears to become a highly significant factor in determining supervisor influence on supervisee growth and development.

Since interactive constructive openness seems only to associate with the impact of high level functioning supervisors on supervisee growth, it would seem that supervisor interactive conceptual functioning, which associates with the impact of both low and high level supervisors, would be a more appropriate variable to emphasize. These comments notwithstanding, a pearson product moment correlation (see Appendix F) shows little overall difference between these two variables. Supervisor

conceptual functioning correlated with supervisee conceptual functioning
at a coefficient of r = 0.81, indicating that either variable could be
used to understand supervisor impact on supervisee conceptual functioning.

How, then, can the apparent discrepancies in supervisor
constructive openness and conceptual functioning be explained? It would
seem that supervisors 'A' and 'D' were capable of varying their verbal
communication, using behaviours they considered appropriate to or
slightly above the current level of thinking and understanding operative
in the supervisee. In other words, if they sensed the supervisee was
looking for feedback and/or support, they would give it, if they sensed
the supervisee had ideas to talk about, they would withhold their
expertise and listen attentively. Consequently, the level of interactive
constructive openness tended to vary according to the "pull" exerted by
supervisee, while their conceptual functioning level remained fairly
constant. Supervisors 'A' and 'D' were able to "read" their supervisees'
needs and the situational constraints in a way that enabled them to
"flex" upwards or downwards in verbal communication to the "pull" of
supervisee initiative.

Supervisors 'B' and 'C', however, were unable to do this. Indeed,
they did not "flex" to the "pull" of the supervisee but rather the
supervisees were, in the final analysis, compelled to "flex" in the
direction of the supervisory "pull". The "pull" with supervisors 'B' and
'C' appears to have been determined more by their conceptual functioning
than by their constructive openness. There are two possible reasons why
this state of affairs existed. First, both supervisors had been exposed
to and practiced, in a limited way, the use of freeing verbal behaviours.
However, since their constructive openness levels were generally higher

than their conceptual functioning levels, it appears that they had

learned how to simulate open communication behaviours without having

fully grasped the significance of their purpose. Second, and this relates

to the differing coding procedures, where the seemingly inordinate

amount of yes-no questions used by supervisors 'B' and 'C' were, on

Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding continuum, coded merely as questions and

therefore as freeing behaviours, the structural variations analysis

unequivocally deemed such behaviours as examples of low conceptual

functioning. This latter reason may, in itself, be even more compelling

than the pearson r coefficient similarity and reinforce, then, the

interpretation that supervisor conceptual functioning could prove a more

effective variable for determining the impact of intervention on

supervisee growth and development.

The preceding two sections have examined constructive openness

and conceptual functioning during the interactive phase of the

conference. Participant thinking during the preactive phase of

preparation for the cycle may also have a bearing on their interactive

performance. Accordingly, the next section examines preactive

constructive openness scores as predictors of interactive constructive

openness and conceptual functioning.

PREACTIVE CONSTRUCTIVE OPENNESS SCORES AS
PREDICTORS OF INTERACTIVE CONSTRUCTIVE
OPENNESS AND CONCEPTUAL FUNCTIONING

This section will first compare preactive and interactive

constructive openness scores in supervisors and second, examine the

potential of participants' preactive constructive openness scores for

predicting interactive conceptual functioning.

Supervisor Preactive and Interactive
Levels of Constructive Openness

Table 13 shows the arithmetic difference between the level of

constructive openness actually observed in supervisors during pre- and

post-conferences and the level which they had predicted for themselves.

The differences recorded are the result of a simple calculation sub-

tracting the larger score from the smaller. In all but A-L post-

conference #2 and 'B' and 'D's respective two pre-conferences, the

differences were less than 0.8 which represents ten percent of the

optimum score on either variable. Given that 'A's second post-conference

misses this arbitrary criterion by a mere 0.05 on the Preactive Behaviour

Instrument's 0-8 scale, these minimal differences would suggest that

preactive constructive openness scores have potential for predicting

supervisor interactive constructive openness in post-conferences. Since

participants reported more instances of misunderstanding and disagreement

during the post-conference than during the pre-conference, it would

appear that the Preactive Behaviour Instrument's potential for predicting

supervisor interactive constructive openness is most appropriate for

conferences involving possible conflict.

To verify this potential, a pearson product moment correlation

Table 13

Arithmetic Differences between Supervisor
Preactive and Interactive Levels
of Constructive Openness

	Supervisor			
	Preactive Level Constructive Openness	Interactive Level Constructive Openness		Arithmetic Difference
A	6.12	6.21	pre-conf. #1	0.09
	6.12	5.84	post-conf. #1	0.28
	6.12	5.74	pre-conf. #2	0.38
	6.12	5.27	post-conf. #2	0.85
B	3.01	4.61	pre-conf. #1	1.6
	3.01	3.48	post-conf. #1	0.47
	3.01	4.33	pre-conf. #2	1.32
	3.01	3.76	post-conf. #2	0.95
C	3.86	3.62	post-conf. #1	0.24
	3.86	3.91	post-conf. #2	0.45
D	6.02	7.06	pre-conf. #1	1.04
	6.02	6.54	post-conf. #1	0.52
	6.02	7.11	pre-conf. #2	1.09
	6.02	6.59	post-conf. #2	0.57

coefficient was calculated by the raw score method (see Appendix F). The coefficient of 0.83 suggests a high association between supervisor preactive and interactive constructive openness levels. This measure would seem to corroborate the predictive potential of the Preactive Behaviour Instrument, although this would require verification by further testing in other research studies.

A further look at the data in Table 13 reinforces the distinction between the pre-conference and post-conference. In every case except 'C' where no pre-conference results were obtained, supervisor level of interactive constructive openness was higher in the pre-conference than in the post-conference. A probable determinant of this is the nature and purpose of the clinical pre-conference which is heavily weighted towards supervisee initiation of instructional observation concerns. Consequently, clinical supervisors tend to ask a lot of questions and give themselves more to attentive listening and paraphrasing as they attempt to elicit from the supervisee the nature of the proposed lesson and the particular issues that are to form the basis of a pre-conference agreement. During the post-conference, however, because of the need to deal with critical feedback and to derive specific instructional courses of action that can be implemented in the next cycle, supervisors seem to spend less time on active listening and more on suggesting alternative courses of action. It would appear that the Preactive Behaviour Instrument rating associates more readily with supervisor constructive openness in the latter type of conference.

Since supervisor interactive constructive openness and conceptual functioning were found to associate over the fourteen conferences,

and since preactive and interactive constructive openness also had a high measure of association, it follows logically to compare participant preactive constructive openness and interactive conceptual functioning.

Preactive Constructive Openness and Interactive Conceptual Functioning

Table 11 demonstrates that in every conference except one ('B's first pre-conference) there was little difference between supervisor preactive constructive openness scores and interactive conceptual functioning scores. To verify this finding, a pearson product moment correlation coefficient was calculated by the raw score method (see Appendix F). The coefficient of 0.98 represents a very high correlation between supervisor preactive constructive openness and interactive conceptual functioning. Indeed, it suggests that the Preactive Behaviour Instrument may be more accurate in measuring how supervisors will function conceptually rather than verbally.

This coefficient is, without doubt, quite absurd. As with all the pearson r correlations, it is spuriously high because of a truncated range in the sample and a discontinuous distribution of scores on both variables. These problems, which stem from the exploratory nature of the study, could be eradicated in further research by enlarging the sample to achieve a more normal distribution of scores. If that were done, it is possible that the tendency of Preactive Behaviour Instrument ratings to associate with interactive conceptual functioning could be corroborated. Nevertheless, the pearson correlations in the present study can only serve as confirmatory indicators of possible association between variables.

Given the disclaimer, however, the high association found between supervisor preactive constructive openness and interactive conceptual functioning is remarkable because a scattergram places the scores on a straight line except for a tail down-turn caused by the score of 6.71. Further research is therefore needed to confirm or disconfirm this absurdly high association.

Further examination of the data in Table 11 may reveal the nature of the relationship between supervisor preactive constructive openness and interactive conceptual functioning. With supervisors 'B' and 'C' the preactive rating was slightly above their highest level of conceptual functioning while with supervisors 'A' and 'D' the preactive rating was, in all conferences but one always lower than their conceptual functioning level. These findings, then, illuminate the nature of the predictive potential of the Preactive Behaviour Instrument: namely, that it predicts the conceptual level at which supervisors are potentially capable of functioning rather than rendering an accurate prediction of performance. As such, it may be a useful measure for anticipating supervisor intervention performance and for diagnostically assessing candidates who wish to follow the clinical approach.

If further research confirms this study's tentative finding that the interactive conceptual functioning of supervisors may be critical in determining the impact of intervention on supervisee growth and development, then the Preactive Behaviour Instrument could become an important means of anticipating successful intervention along clinical lines and of selecting would-be clinical supervisors. Further research is needed, however, to test this study's findings before widespread use of the P.B.I. is warranted.

The interactive conceptual functioning of supervisees was not expected to associate closely with their preactive level of constructive openness. This was based on the assumption that supervisees generally perceive their role as a subordinate one and hence are unlikely to predict high constructive openness levels for themselves. The data in Table 11, however, reveal this expectation to have been false. A pearson product moment coefficient was calculated using the raw score method (see Appendix F). The coefficient of 0.85 suggests a high correlation between supervisee preactive constructive openness and interactive conceptual functioning. The overall correlation masks the variation in supervisee conceptual functioning over the series of conferences. While supervisees 'L' and 'P' increased their level of conceptual functioning between the first pre-conference and second post-conference by 33.55% and 47.01% respectively, the conceptual levels of 'M', 'N', and 'O' decreased over one cycle by 28%, 21.33%, and 16.41% respectively. The high correlation between these two supervisee variables is probably more indicative of the fact that the preactive measure very roughly approximates the mid-point of supervisee conceptual functioning variation, e.g., 'L' varies between 4.50 and 6.01, giving a mid-point of 5.25, 'O' varies between 2.62 and 2.19, rendering a mid-point of 2.40. This would also apply to supervisee 'P' if one discounts the somewhat abnormal plunge in conceptual functioning evidenced during the initial pre-conference due, in large part, to nervousness stemming from an unfamiliar supervisory relationship, i.e., 'P's conceptual functioning varies between 5.79 and 6.88, giving a mid-point of 6.33. This speculative explanation does not, however, fit the situation of 'M' and 'N'; but, if one accepts that supervisor 'B's espousal of

unilateral conditions, particularly in the post-conference, is a major

determinant of supervisee reduction, then the plausibility of this

explanation remains unblemished. Nevertheless, it is, at this point

merely a hypotheses that requires testing in further research.

Given the growth observed in some supervisees but not in others,

the next section will examine the impact of supervisory intervention

along clinical lines.

THE IMPACT OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION INTERVENTION

This section examines the data for possible evidence of cause

and effect and attempts to generate hypotheses from the foregoing

analysis.

The Evidences for Cause and Effect

Table 14 demonstrates the impact of supervisory intervention on

supervisee conceptual functioning over the course of a cycle. (With

supervisee 'O' it is over the course of two post-conferences). Increases

in conceptual functioning occurred in all cycles for supervisees 'L' and

'P', with notable increases evident in the first cycles. Supervisees

'M', 'N', and 'O', however, all experienced decreases in their con-

ceptual functioning.

The first A-L clinical cycle saw an increase of 29.56 percent

in the supervisee's conceptual functioning, while the first D-P cycle

evidenced a supervisee increase of 34.83 percent. Increases in the

second cycles were not as marked; 'L's conceptual functioning increased

by 10.48 percent while 'P' registered an increase of 18.83 percent.

Supervisee 'M's conceptual functioning underwent a 28 percent

Table 14

Supervisee Growth as Measured by Increase
or Reduction in Conceptual
Functioning Level

Supervisee	Pre-conference Conceptual Functioning	Cycle	Post-conference Conceptual Functioning	Range
L	4.50	#1	5.83	29.56% increase
L	5.44	#2	6.01	10.48% increase
M	3.50	#1	2.52	28% reduction
N	4.50	#2	3.54	21.33% reduction
P	4.68	#1	6.31	34.83% increase
P	5.79	#2	6.88	18.83% increase

	Post-conference #1		Post-conference #2	
P	2.62		2.19	16.41% reduction

reduction over the course of one cycle with 'B', while supervisee 'N' also experienced a reduction of 21.33 percent. Over the course of two post-conferences, supervisee 'O's conceptual functioning dropped by 16.41 percent.

If one considers that these changes in supervisee functioning occurred in conferences with supervisors who, as has already been shown (Chapter 6), demonstrated marked differences in level of conceptual functioning, then it becomes at least plausible to speak of a "pull" being exerted by supervisor functioning on supervisee conceptual functioning. It would appear that supervisors who function conceptually at Level III and/or Level IV cultivate a conference atmosphere where supervisees progress towards becoming more responsibly independent while those functioning at lower levels seem unable to foster supervisee growth. This becomes most marked when the performance patterns of supervisees 'L' and 'N' are examined. Both functioned conceptually at 4.50 in the respective first pre-conferences but, where 'L's conceptual functioning increased by 29.56 percent, 'N' registered a reduction of 21.33 percent. As a consequence, one is tempted to speculate about the impact of supervisory intervention on supervisee 'N's conceptual funct- ioning if, for example, she had been supervised by 'A'. From the findings of this study it would seem that such a relationship would have a positive impact on her growth and development. Equally tempting is to conjecture the impact on supervisee 'L' if 'B' had been his supervisor. Certainly the study's findings suggest that the range of improvement would not be so high, if, in fact, 'L' were to improve at all. The important question would be whether 'L' could withstand the pressure of 'B's unilateral conditions better than 'N'. Since 'L' is only a

beginning teacher and 'N' has taught for several years and has been principal of a rural school, it would appear safe to surmise that the intervention impact would be negative.

Hypotheses Suggested by the Analysis

Effective intervention may be regarded as one which yields an increase in supervisee conceptual functioning level. The findings of this study therefore make it possible to generate several hypotheses.

1. Supervisee preactive level of constructive openness approx- imates the mid-point of supervisee conceptual functioning variation.

2. Supervisor preactive level of constructive openness approx- imates the conceptual level at which supervisors are potentially capable of functioning rather than the actual performance level.

3. Supervisor interactive conceptual functioning is a determinant of supervisee growth and development.

    3.1 The intervention of supervisors of Level IV or Level III conceptual potential with supervisees of all levels of conceptual potential will lead to supervisee growth.

    3.2 The intervention of supervisors of Level II or Level I conceptual potential with supervisees of all levels of conceptual potential will not lead to supervisee growth.

    3.3 Supervisors of Level IV or Level III conceptual potential will exert "pull" on and "flex" to the "pull" exerted by supervisees of all levels of conceptual potential.

    3.4 Supervisors of Level II or Level I conceptual potential w will exert "pull" on supervisees of all levels of conceptual potential but will not "flex" to a reciprocal "pull".

4. Supervisor levels of interactive constructive openness will be higher in pre-conferences than in post-conferences.

5. Supervisor levels of interactive constructive openness is an indicator of supervisory influence only with supervisors of high conceptual potential.

6. Supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will notice more nonverbal communication by supervisees than will supervisors of low levels of conceptual functioning.

7. Supervisors of low levels of conceptual potential will unintentionally transmit contradictory verbal and nonverbal messages.

8. Supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will intentionally use nonverbal behaviour to cultivate supportive affect.

9. Supervisees of supervisors of low levels of conceptual potential will focus on nonverbal and verbal communication.

10. Supervisees of supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will focus primarily on verbal communication.

11. Supervisees of supervisors of low levels of conceptual potential will experience reduction in conceptual functioning during post-conference lesson analysis.

12. Supervisees of supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will experience reduction in conceptual functioning at the beginning of intervention.

13. Supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will voluntarily choose to work with supervisees of high levels of conceptual potential.

14. Supervisees of high levels of conceptual potential will cause supervisors of all levels of conceptual potential to be constructively open.

Chapter 8

GENERAL PATTERNS OF THOUGHT AND BEHAVIOUR

This chapter addresses research question 2.3, reporting the
general patterns of thought and behaviour that appeared to associate with
supervisors and supervisees functioning at different conceptual levels.
The general patterns pertaining to supervisees are framed around their
appreciation of the interpersonal relationship they experienced with their
respective supervisors. Generalities relating to supervisors are inte-
grated into a comparative analysis of the exploration procedures and
feedback techniques used by more abstract and more concrete functioning
supervisors.

SUPERVISEE APPRECIATION OF INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS

In general, the supervisees of more abstract functioning super-
visors ('L' and 'P') reported thinking favourably about the supervisory
relationship, often characterizing it as based on trust and openness.
Supervisees of more concrete functioning supervisors ('M' and 'N'), on
the other hand, did not characterize the relationship as positively.
(Supervisee 'O' did not report having in either conference one thought
that pertained to her relationship with supervisor 'C').

Towards the end of the second cycle, supervisee 'L' is most
appreciative of the relationship he has experienced with 'A' in the
intervention. Shortly after supervisor 'A' has given his reasons for
wanting to observe 'L' in the Block D Social Studies class where he, 'L',

had previously had discipline problems, the supervisee cannot conceal

his surprise and pleasure at the way 'A' has handled the supervision

process:

> It hadn't occurred to me that that was his motive [to help 'L'
> to realize that if he could handle this class well, then he had
> really improved], I was surprised by that, that that was his motive
> for coming into that specific class. I think I still tend to view
> anyone in that classroom as an evaluator, that there's only one
> reason why they're there, that is to pick out faults and write it
> all down and show it for me. But that comes totally out of my
> previous experience, that's never happened with 'A' at all. But I
> have had supervisors who have done that and said--"there's no point
> in me mentioning your strengths at all; we're not here to find out
> what your strengths are, we're here to iron out your weaknesses.
> Such an approach really "pisses me off"! (Supervisee 'L' thought
> processes, 23:25, post-conference #2).

'L's appreciation turns to admiration when, at the end of the second

post-conference stimulated recall session, the interviewer asks him to

sum up his feelings after the clinical supervision experience with 'A':

> Interviewer: How do you feel now at the end of a supervising
> experience like this one?

> I'm surprised because originally I thought that this whole idea
> of evaluation and supervision, dissecting lessons and all that, was
> right up the wall, you know, something people did just to busy
> themselves. But I'm impressed by how much I've learned through the
> process, I really am, which surprises me because I'm overjoyed that
> I've done it. You see, supervision was always something that you
> had to put up with and you dreaded every minute that the supervisor
> was in the class and I never thought of it as a beneficial experience
> much except for one; all the rest, I just thought they were there to
> judge, you know, to bring out their prejudices from time to time.
> It wasn't always constructive either, so I thought that the whole
> supervision process wasn't constructive. I can see now where it
> can be.

> Interviewer: But your experience with 'A' is somewhat different,
> you say?

> Yes. I'm trying to analyse why that is the case. I think
> genuinely I like the man, that has a lot to do with it, and the
> feelings of respect are mutual, so that makes the situation more
> relaxed. But I think too he has a nice way of making what with some-
> one else would be a [destructive] criticism into a helpful suggestion
> and that's a consummate skill I really admire. So that's why I don't
> look on this supervisory experience as a threatening situation.

The last comment about 'A's consummate skill is something a clinical supervisor could treasure, not only because its expression is edifying but also because it is an insight that has come to the supervisee as a result of an actual intervention. Consequently, in its designation of clinical supervision as a successful experience, it is far more telling than any comment elicited in previous studies where typically participants have reacted positively to a researcher designed scenario of an ideal intervention.

Supervisee 'P' was no less appreciative of his relationship with 'D', but his thoughts came during conference interaction. In other words he expresses his appreciation of the supervisory relationship as it is unfolding.

> I remember here thinking, my goodness, I'm not "bullshitting" at all, I really am being open and honest and I was amazed because this represents a change even from the first pre-conference where I had a feeling of awkwardness about opening up and here I'm opening up without any degree of discomfort. A lot must be said to 'D's credit there for the relationship that has evolved through this cycle; but I remember thinking how remarkable it was that I was actually opening up to a supervisor (Supervisee thought processes, 25:45, D-P post-conference #1).

This point is reiterated by 'P' at 33:28 in the same conference:

> I remember thinking at this point--my, I'm really amazed at my own honesty, I'm prepared to open up in a way which I'm telling about my own shortcomings, and that amazes me. And I'm comfortable too in that situation (Supervisee thought processes, 33:28).

The fact that 'P' is able to execute these kinds of thought appraisals during the interaction and still remain fully immersed in the process is an interesting phenomenon in the D-P relationship.

Towards the end of the first cycle, 'P' admits to wanting 'D' to continue supervising him:

> At this point, I remember thinking--it would have been nice if 'D' were to offer to come again; but, in fact, that never really became a question. The whole process evolved so naturally and

spontaneously that we both wanted to continue this approach and I had come to the point where I was asking her to come back and see me in a different class and that's what I genuinely wanted. Now if you'd have asked me before the conference began whether I would have been saying that as a genuine expression of concern, I would probably have said: "no, if I ask 'D' to come back, it's because I think I ought to", whereas I'm asking her to come back because I want further supervision (Supervisee thought processes, 42:25).

The second cycle did take place and the progress that 'P' felt had been

made in the first cycle appeared to be continued during the second cycle.

During the second post-conference, 'P' finds the supervisor to be supp-

ortive at a time that she is pressing him to clarify his own instructional

behaviour and its consequences:

I found 'D' there to be very supportive, and that went through my mind that she's really trying to be supportive in helping me articulate the reasons for this particular state of affairs in the class (Supervisee thought processes, 7:31).

Later in the same conference, he is impressed by the facilitator role

played by 'D' and the impact of her behaviour on his growth and their

interpersonal relationship:

We're talking here about something which is a real concern of mine and 'D' is facilitating the expression of that. I'm trying to articulate thoughts that I've had about it [breaking out of a propensity towards a teacher-centred mould] because this kind of topic has fascinated me and as I'm being allowed to enunciate it, it makes me feel good, knowing that someone else is listening so intently. This, once again, is an uplifting experience and develops a great deal of trust between us as supervisor and supervisee (Supervisee thought processes, 16:03).

At the end of the second cycle, supervisee 'P' is asked the same question

as put to supervisee 'L':

Interviewer: How do you feel now at the end of a supervising experience like this one?

After it's all over, I feel good about that experience because I know that I've learned a tremendous amount about my own teaching. When I first went into it, I thought that it might be useful experience and that I might learn something but I was going into it more as an experiment; whereas I know now for next time that this will really produce something of insight and enlightenment for me about the way I teach and it's a process which will contribute to my improving as a teacher, something which is quite important to me,

Because this intervention has produced "insight and enlightenment" about his teaching, 'P' perceives that the value he was beginning to see in clinical supervision has been confirmed. Since improving as a teacher is important to him, he wants to involve himself again in a process that apparently contributes towards that goal.

The appreciation expressed by supervisees 'L' and 'P' for the interpersonal relationship they experienced during clinical supervision is not matched by the supervisees of 'B', i.e., 'M' and 'N'. Their thoughts contain scant reference to the relationship they experience with 'B' but they do comment on the value of the clinical supervision process when asked to do so by their supervisor towards the end of their respective post-conferences. (Because supervisor 'B' posed such a question to each of his supervisees during conference interaction, the interviewer decided not to pursue the matter at the end of the stimulated recall session for fear of creating a forced situation).

To be confronted with a straightforward question about the value of the clinical supervision process by a supervisor could present the supervisees with an acute dilemma. On the one hand, the question ostensibly calls for an honest answer; but, on the other, they could sense a need to answer in a fashion that would not disparage 'B's supervisory performance. Nonverbally, both 'M' and 'N' react in a manner that suggests that they are experiencing the awkwardness of this situation, but only 'N' comments upon it in her thought processes:

> [Supervisor question about usefulness of process] If I don't like it, I'm going to tell him, OK, and I'm just like that with everybody, so when he asked me that, I was thinking--are you asking me a loaded question or do you really, what are you trying to do here? Then he kind of looked at me and I thought, OK, I'm going to give you the truth, you know, this is how I feel and this is where it's at and, you know, he's aware that I'm going to say that, so I didn't know whether he was kind of feeding me that just for your benefit or

whether he thought I'd back down, you know, and I'm sure he didn't
think I'd back down after knowing me as long as he has (Supervisee
thought processes, 9:58, B-N post-conference #2).

'N's relationship with 'B' is such that her thoughts at this point in the
conference are characterized by negative dependence; not only does she
reaffirm her ability to speak forthrightly regardless of the recipient,
but she also begins to mistrust the supervisor's motives for posing the
question in the first place. (Since she surmised that 'B' was, in fact,
taken up with displaying all the phases of Goldhammer's (1969) clinical
cycle, an aspect verified by the supervisor in his thought processes, the
interviewer's decision not to address the issue of how she felt after the
intervention was doubly necessary.) Such thoughts are in contrast to
those of 'L' and 'P' who at no time evidenced doubts about the authent-
icity of their respective supervisors' questions.

This is verified by close analysis of the conference dialogue
between 9:53 and 10:29:

    B: What about the process? Is it worthwhile?
    N: (tentatively) Yes, I think so (her thought at 9:58 occurs here)
    N: No, I do, because if you don't know what I'm doing or what I
        want you to look for--why come? I mean, if a student is off-task
        or not doing as he should, the supervisor gives me information
        that is useful for me to check up on students. Also, it tells
        me if the moving of kids is successful or if I'm jumping on kids
        too much (Post-conference #2 dialogue, 9:53-10:29).

'N's second statement,--"No, I do"--coming after her initial, tentative
answer, could be interpreted as implying that she did not really consider
the process worthwhile but lacked the freedom to say so. From her thought
processes we know that this is not the case since her tentativeness
stemmed from her trying to figure out supervisor 'B's agenda in posing
the question. But supervisor 'B' was not privy to 'N's thought processes
and he reported interpreting her first comment as an expression of
unwillingness to enter into the process:

What she really wants to say there is, I'd rather you didn't
come to my classroom, but if you've got to come in the classroom,
then I'm not willing (Supervisor thought processes, 10:07).

He further interprets 'N's understanding of the usefulness of the

process in utilitarian terms: "She's got another policeman in the class-

room, that's the benefit she sees of me being there" (Supervisor thought

processes, 10:21). These thoughts in 'B's mind border on cynicism and

portray the esteem in which both supervisor and supervisee appear to hold

their interpersonal relationship.

Supervisor 'B's relationship with 'M' does not fare differently.

Although 'M' does not process any thoughts about his relationship with

'B', the manner in which he responds to the supervisor's question about

the usefulness of the clinical supervision process seems to betray an

inner sense of disquiet. To 'B's direct question--"do you see any value

in the process"--supervisee 'M' shuffles forward nervously, sighs and

says:

This is what we've been doing anyway. I do see value in it
because it gives me a chance to go over what you wrote. That's
quite different from my student teaching days when my supervisors
would just appear and then disappear without telling me anything.
This process is more useful because at least there is a discussion
of data. I guess what I appreciated was the criticisms, well they
were constructive, and once I realized what you wanted, I could
change (B-M post-conference #1 dialogue, 10:43-11:31).

At first glance, this seems to be a positive appraisal--but it is

positive only in as far as it compares favourably to the apparent

inspectoral approach characteristic of his student teaching supervision.

'M's evaluation of clinical supervision focuses more on what he knows

constitute its principles and procedures than on the particular inter-

vention he has experienced with supervisor 'B'. When he does eventually

allude to his specific relationship with 'B', he describes his behaviour

as acquiescing to the expectations placed upon him by his supervisor.

That a supervisee should regard this as "value" in the process of clinical

supervision is suggestive of a less than effective supervisory relation-

ship.

At the end of the stimulated recall interview, the interviewer

attempted to probe the usefulness of the relationship to 'M' along a

different tack:

> Interviewer: When 'B' showed you the feedback at the beginning of
> and during the post-conference, did you feel you had an adequate
> picture of what went on in the class under observation?
>
> Yes, I think so. What you have to do, in my position, is just
> look at, well, when I'm up there, a lot of the times I don't realize
> what I'm saying, you know it's sort of just coming out and he writes
> down I guess what he sees as significant things I said and then I can
> look at it and decide for myself if I'm doing a good job.
>
> Interviewer: So the verbatim data was very helpful to you when you
> saw it?
>
> I don't know. What it does is recreate what happened in the
> classroom and from that I can decide on whether it went well for me
> or not, so I guess it must be helpful.

One distinct feature of 'M's response is the absence of any notion of

collaborative appraisal. This, more than his unclear thinking about the

purpose and function of the verbatim data, suggests that his relation-

ship with supervisor 'B' is not characterized by an atmosphere of

"colleagueship" which Cogan posits as the most productive type of relation-

ship between supervisor and teacher. (1976, p. 16) and as an essential

component of the clinical model (1973, p. 68).

The remaining supervisee, 'O', did not report any thoughts that

pertained to the supervisory relationship, nor did she utter anything

during the conference that could be constructed as appreciation (or lack

of it) for the way in which supervisor 'C' conducted the intervention.

Consequently, at the end of her second post-conference stimulated recall

session, the interviewer attempted to probe certain features of 'O's

relationship with 'C'. During the recall session, supervisee 'O' had
reported experiencing confusion in her thinking because she did not know
whether, in the role of supervisee, she could ask her supervisor a question.
This, in turn, led her to respond to some of 'C's probings in an apparently
equivocal fashion. Her questioning tone of voice, hesitant speech, and
occasional hand movements were so clearly evident on the video tape that
'O' herself commented on them in her non-interactive thoughts. Not
surprisingly, then, the interviewer was interested in finding out more
about why 'O' related to her supervisor in this way:

Interviewer: Did you respond in a questioning tone because you
didn't understand what he was getting at?

No, I wasn't very sure of what he wanted me to say.

Interviewer: Were you asking a question then to try and clarify?

Yes, in a way.

Interviewer: But you didn't think you could ask him "what do you
mean by that?"

Yeah!

Interviewer: Did you have that freedom?

No, I guess not. Maybe that's why I've put on some weight. I
seem to do that throughout most of the conference, say things in a
questioning way, because I'm not sure of what he expects.

Interviewer: And you always feel you want to say what he expects
you to say?

Yes.

Interviewer: Has that been true with other supervisors as well or
just with 'C'?

Maybe with others too, maybe it's myself wanting to please, I'm
not sure.

As much as the supervision conditions espoused by 'C' may have
contributed to the supervisee's perplexity, it appears that there could
also have been something in 'O's disposition, a conditioned response from

previous supervision experiences or a normative belief derived from her

particular cultural background, which seems to prevent her from entering

into a rigorous discussion of her instructional performance. This, in

turn, would have contributed to the difficulty her supervisor reported

experiencing in attempting to push the lesson analysis beyond a super-

ficial level. This difficulty was reported by 'C' as being particularly

acute in the second cycle because of his own acknowledged inability to

dissect a "very good" lesson for purposes of instructional improvement.

'C's lack of experience as a clinical supervisor, together with dis-

positional traits on the part of 'O', may have rendered the supervisee's

appreciation of the relationship somewhat bland and uncertain:

Interviewer: As a result of the conference do you feel good about
the evaluation of your lesson? How do you feel as a result of having
that talk after what 'C' characterized as a "very good" lesson?

It makes you feel very pleased and you can learn a lot, you
might think everything went well, but somebody might pick up on
something that you hadn't realized.

Interviewer: Did you have a sense of relief with it being the end
of the practicum and having done such a good lesson? Are you going
away with a good feeling?

Yes.

Interviewer: But you still had that hesitancy to ask questions of
'C' when you were unsure of what he was meaning?

Yes.

Interviewer: You said that it was because you wanted to please him,
would that be more to do with your role as a student teacher or is
it something to do with 'O' herself?

I think it's to do with the role of being a student teacher.

Interviewer: So if you had been two colleague teachers, you feel you
would have the confidence to say: "I'm sorry, I didn't understand,
what do you mean by that?"

Perhaps, I'm not quite sure.

Even conversing with the interviewer, supervisee 'O' is not very

expressive. One may conclude, then, that, although she did not enter much into the process of collaborative instructional analysis, 'O's relationship with 'C' had greater potential for future cycles than the relationships that 'M' and 'N' experienced with supervisor 'B'. It does not, however, compare with the appreciative understanding and insights that 'L' and 'P' reported as a result of being supervised along clinical lines. It would seem that the supervisees of more abstract functioning supervisors not only experienced an increase in their own level of conceptual functioning but also appeared to derive considerable satisfaction from being involved in the clinical supervision process.

The distinction between supervisors 'A' and 'D' on the one hand and 'B' and 'C' on the other has already been depicted in terms of interactive level of conceptual functioning. Because growth was reported by the supervisees of 'A' and 'D' but not by the supervisees of 'B' and 'C', supervisee appreciation of and satisfaction with the supervisory relationship only served to accentuate this distinction. The distinction was confirmed by the general patterns of thought and behaviour that emerged from the data yielded by more abstract and more concrete supervisors.

MORE ABSTRACT FUNCTIONING SUPERVISORS

Supervisors 'A' and 'D' tended to distinguish themselves from supervisors 'B' and 'C' by the nature of the questioning strategies and exploration procedures they used to facilitate supervisee discovery of insights rather than directly sharing critical feedback.

Questioning Strategies

Verbal communication has been divided into two broad categories

of freeing and binding (Wallen, 1972). The findings of this study suggest that these categories can also be applied to questions. A freeing question employed a carefully devised strategy for eliciting clarification and appraisal from the supervisee in a manner where supervisors signalled that there was no single or "right" answer. Rather, they adopted a curious pose, seeking help from the supervisee to understand the complexities of the lesson observed. In this way, the questioner's rank was removed as far as possible, freeing the supervisee to respond. A binding question, on the other hand, appeared to be loaded with the innuendo that the supervisor knew the answer and was checking to see if the supervisee could work it out too. Supervisees generally dealt with binding questions by trying to figure out what the supervisor wanted. This kind of questioning engendered stress in supervisees of moderate to high conceptual level potential. Because they felt anxious about failing to answer correctly, they seemed unable to think creatively about the range of responses possible, thus evidencing a drop in their conceptual functioning.

Four kinds of freeing questioning strategies, information-seeking, information-giving, delimiting, and guiding, would appear to be useful in facilitating supervisee growth.

Information-seeking questions. Supervisors posed information-seeking questions to elicit supervisee ideas. They also served to assess supervisee readiness to explore certain aspects of the lesson. Information-seeking questions, then, were intentionally tentative and open-ended without becoming obscure. As such, they were more easily appropriated during pre-conferences where the purpose was to find out information pertaining to the lesson to be observed. During post-

conferences, however, because the questions posed derived their substance from deliberations undertaken during the immediately preceding analysis and strategy phase of the clinical cycle, supervisors were sometimes in a position where they did know, at least in a partial sense, what information could be included in lesson analysis. How, then, did supervisors use information-seeking questions in this setting to facilitate supervisee appraisal and discovery? The technique observed in the conferences of more abstract functioning supervisors was to ask the question without giving any clue as to what reponse was expected; they also appeared to be prepared to accept and work with whatever response emerged.

Information-giving questions. On occasion the response of supervisees to an open-ended question can betray that they lack information that supervisors consider critical to releasing the analytical process. In such situations more abstract functioning supervisors avoided the temptation of telling them directly (which risked putting supervisee appraisal in jeopardy) by posing questions that supplied the relevant information. This involved wording the question in a manner which communicated a good deal of specific information but which also concealed the supervisor's intention and strategy. The consequence was their supervisees sensed they knew something without having been told by a superordinate.

Since this type of question was less common than information-seeking ones, two examples are included. At 22:39 during 'D's first post-conference with 'P', the discussion is focussed on the supervisee's concern that the class under observation gives him little feedback and, as a consequence, he does not know whether his attempts to stimulate total group discussion are misguided or relatively successful. Supervisor

'D' senses that 'P' has not really considered asking the group directly, but rather than risk demeaning the supervisee by telling him the obvious, she poses a question that presents 'P' with this option: "Do you think this class might be ready for a little more encouragement from you ... could you talk to them ... about these activities?" Similarly, at 28:20 during the supervisor "press", 'D' provides the supervisee with the key piece of information that is essential for him to grasp the extent of his instructional shortcomings in giving directions to the class. "Now let's see (thumbing throught data notes), you wrote this on the board ...?" Although not technically a question, this utterance signals clearly through 'D's intonation that a response is expected and, as such, serves as an information-giving question.

Delimiting questions. Not infrequently, more abstract functioning supervisors had to focus supervisee thinking. To do so without nullifying the exploration thrust of their facilitating role required the posing of a specific question that delimited the course of discussion to two or three possible alternatives. Although this strategy involved supervisor manipulation, it was a moulding of the task environment as distinct from supervisee behaviour, for the final choice always appeared to be made by the supervisee. This type of question seemed to be especially useful when the thinking of supervisees was meandering off-task, particularly during the pre-conference where supervisors were looking for specific, instruction-related information, but also when there was a need to effect closure in either conference and the observation agreement in the pre-conference.

An example of this occurred in 'D's first pre-conference with 'P'. The supervisee has been explaining the activity he has planned for the

students in terms of teaching behaviour expectations but, by 6:19, has

not yet communicated anything relating to his expectations for student

behaviour. Consequently, supervisor 'D' decides to focus him on this

aspect by use of a delimiting question: "Will they be doing this in class,

will they be doing it individually or in groups?" The supervisee begins

then to describe this aspect of instruction.

Guiding questions. This questioning strategy essentially

controlled supervisees when they momentarily seemed unable to cope with

a situation or problem. This would initially appear to be contradictory

to the freeing nature of the questions under discussion; in one sense,

guiding questions did bind supervisees but the reported intent was to

bind them in a way that freed them to continue their development. To

employ this kind of questioning strategy successfully, then, supervisors

had to disguise their intent. This they did by appearing to cogitate out

loud, making use of an earnest, but never controlling, tone of voice.

An example of this kind of question is drawn from 'D's first

pre-conference with supervisee 'P'. At 12:51 'P' has gone on to talk

about lesson momentum as one of his great concerns, maintaining that the

directions for the sub-group activity have to be clear at the students'

level of understanding if the instruction is to flow smoothly. Super-

visor 'D', however, had been attempting to establish a specific contract

for observation and she begins to think that the focus is growing too

large. At the same time she becomes concerned that 'P' might not have

rehearsed the directions during his planning. Consequently, when the

supervisee reiterates that the directions have to be clear before the

students can be expected to become engrossed in the activity, supervisor

'D' communicates that concern through a guiding question: "What have you

thought about to help ensure that that [students becoming engrossed in the learning activity] will happen?" The message was clear, the effect was successful, but the interpersonal and professional slight was missing.

Exploration Procedures

Supervisors 'A' and 'D' generally explored the lesson with the supervisee rather than told them what their appraisal was. This involved them in holding questions in abeyance and retrieving them to be probed, probing for clarification and insight, occasionally pressing the supervisee towards greater autonomy and the reinforcement of insight, and ultimately the skill of withholding their expertise but not their supportiveness.

Holding questions in abeyance. Both supervisors 'A' and 'D' demonstrated the ability to hold questions in abeyance while the supervisee was still talking. During this time they would be listening intently, capable of processing more than one stimulus at a time. As a consequence, supervisors 'A' and 'D' were able to transcend the immediacy of the task environment.

This feature manifested itself in supervisor ability to withhold an idea that had occurred to them until the current topic of discussion had been exhausted. An illustration of this happened at 2:03 in D-P pre-conference #1 where, whilst listening to 'P' explain the rapport-building strategy behind his initial visits to student teachers on practicum, supervisor 'D' processes the following thought:

I was curious at this point that 'P' didn't say that another reason for going to the schools was to become familiar with the student teachers' environment and the teachers that they were working with (Supervisor thought processes, 2:03, D-P pre-conference #1).

Despite the relevance of the question that 'D' articulated out of this

thought, she did not raise the issue until 3:50 in the conference

dialogue, by which time supervisee 'P' had finished his background

description. By waiting, supervisor 'D' was able to ask the question

matter-of-factly; had she been given to "stimulus boundedness" and

expressed it as soon as she processed it, it is possible that the super-

visee would have withdrawn from an initiating role.

A similar situation occurred in the first post-conference

between 'A' and 'L'. At 6:38 in the conference, supervisor 'A' probes

the supervisee's purpose in putting the assignment essay questions on the

blackboard. While expressing himself tentatively in the conference, 'A'

processes a definite thought, the substance of which he hopes his initial

probe will unearth.

> I wanted to establish there, the one thing I did question when
> I was watching the lesson, there were four long questions and why
> did you give it to them to copy down all four--that kind of bothered
> me if he wasn't going to use them for something. I thought it was
> kind of busy work, because the students could have chosen one and
> started writing (Supervisor thought processes, 6:38, A-L post-
> conference #1).

Because the supervisee takes 48 seconds to address his first question,

'A' does not specifically ask why 'L' made the students copy down all the

questions from the board until 7:54. As it is, the supervisee develops a

satisfactory explanation for his instructional decision; but, since 'L'

reported not having previously thought through his reasons for this pro-

cedure, supervisor 'A' could easily have stultified the supervisee's

nascent ideas had he voiced his concern without first probing for a

possible explanation.

Retrieving questions to be probed. This involved supervisors 'A'

and 'D' in holding on to relevant points (which they considered required

further exploration) in their minds whilst listening attentively to

whatever the supervisee had gone on to discuss. There were two variations

of this feature: first, where the supervisors veered away from a full

exploration of an aspect of the pre-conference agreement because they

sensed a lack of readiness in the supervisee to talk about it at that time,

and second, where they deliberately withheld probing a point to which they

sensed the supervisee was oblivious until the discussion of the data had

opened up the way for further exploration.

At 3:55 in the first A-L post-conference, supervisor 'A', wishing

to give the supervisee feedback on how he, 'L', broke up the lesson (a

supervisee pre-conference concern that became part of the agreement),

tentatively suggests that it happened in an interesting manner. 'A's

tentativeness here does not stem from uncertainty but rather from his

desire to discuss the data pertaining to this concern in a manner whereby

the supervisee could clarify and appraise his own instructional behaviour.

The supervisee, however, failing to read the supervisor's intent, cues

on the word "interesting" rather than the tentative tone. Consequently,

'L' attempts to clarify what the supervisor means and when 'A' asks how

'L' consciously segmented the lesson, the supervisee explains his planning

for transition points in the class discussion. It is not until 11:23 that

supervisor 'A' seizes the opportunity to link the supervisee's deliberate

planning for transitions to the absence of any evidence of "jumping around"

as 'L' attempted to_lead the discussion. This 'A' reported doing because

the supervisee had not drawn the connection for himself in the discussion

between 3:55 and 11:23.

A similar instance occurred with 'D' and 'P' in their first post-

conference. At 12:46 in the conference, supervisor 'D' tries to move on

to discussing 'P's use of instructions when setting students into a sub-

group activity, but the supervisee is not ready to talk about his pre-conference concern that the instructions be clear and precise. At that point in time, 'P' is more caught up in exploring how he involved the students and their ideas in the class discussion. Consequently, supervisor 'D' holds the new focus in abeyance until 27:10 when she retrieves the question about the supervisee's instructions for further exploration.

Both supervisors also displayed an ability to hold on to relevant points and retrieve them later in the conference on matters that fell outside the strict confines of the pre-conference agreement. But they were careful to broach these issues tentatively, thus permitting the supervisee initially to clarify and appraise what was happening.

During the observation phase of the first cycle, supervisor 'A' had noticed that none of the girls in the class answered any questions. Believing this to be too important to be omitted from the post-conference discussion merely because it had not constituted part of the pre-conference agreement, 'A' initially raises the topic at 2:50. He does so, however, by asking how the girls respond when Anita, one of the better students, is present:

> I wanted him to be aware, if he wasn't already, that the girls couldn't answer any questions--but I wanted to ask him in such a way that we could talk about it a bit. That's why I kept referring to Anita who is his best student and wasn't there today (Supervisor thought processes, 2:50, A-L post-conference #1).

Supervisee 'L', however, does not nibble the bait and 'A' decides not to force the issue at that time. At 6:38, however, he again alludes to the girls and their part in the discussion in the hope the supervisee will "bite a little"--but 'L' appears oblivious to this aspect of the lesson. Supervisor 'A', faced with the choice of telling 'L' directly, withholding the point until later in the conference, or dropping the issue, adopts

the latter course of action. This he did, presumably, because he did not consider the feedback so important as to depart from his general strategy of eliciting an appraisal of the teaching-learning situation from the supervisee himself.

The most noteworthy example of this particular exploration procedure occurs, however, in the first pre-conference between 'D' and 'P'. When the supervisee articulates that he intends to allocate only five minutes to a sub-group activity, 'D' critically evaluates the time-frame in her thoughts: "I wondered if five minutes was enough time" (Supervisor thought processes, 6:19, D-P pre-conference #1). She decides not to pursue this concern during the pre-conference on the assumption that the events of class instruction would better serve to validate the time-frame's adequacy for allowing the completion of the assigned tasks. Consequently, the question pertaining to the time allocation does not surface until 34:11 in the post-conference when 'D' probes whether the students were able to generate the kind of data that 'P' was looking for during the five minute activity.

The various exploration procedures observed in 'A's and 'D's conferencing approaches differ only by degree; holding questions in abeyance and retrieving them at opportune moments all contribute to the need to probe for clarification and possible supervisee insight.

Probing for clarification and supervisee insight. The purpose of probing in clinical supervision is to evoke in supervisees a clarification and analysis of their own teaching that will subsequently precipitate insight. The conferencing of supervisors 'A' and 'D' seemed to be characterized by this emphasis.

During the first post-conference between 'D' and 'P' the super-

visor was able to probe so effectively that not only did 'P' acquire an

insight but also thought that the interaction had produced the insight

for supervisor 'D' as well. The discussion revolved around how effect-

ively 'P' was able to use the ideas generated by the students to teach

the concepts of the lesson. Sensing that he had perhaps presented the

concepts more didactically than having involved the students in their

derivation, the supervisee stated that one of his instructional goals is

to stimulate students to want to be involved in a learning process. At

13:21, supervisor 'D' probes intently: "How can you do that?" (Conference

dialogue, 13:21, D-P post-conference #1).

Simultaneously, she thinks about her reasons for probing:

It didn't seem to me that it was enough to still be saying, well,
we want to do this. I thought we really had to start looking at more
specific ideas (Supervisor thought processes, 13:21, D-P post-
conference #1).

After brief discussion, where the supervisee suggests that he has to

think of questions that key into the experience of students so that their

interest is fired, 'P' suddenly realizes that he evaluates his own growth

and effectiveness as a teacher in terms of how he stimulates learning and

involvement in students whom he has not known for very long, such as a

workshop situation:

I remember at that point, that really was an insight to me, but
as I watched 'D's reaction, it appeared to be an insight to her as
well and it's a case then where the supervisee, as a result of that
kind of probing, was actually providing an insight for the supervisor
(Supervisee thought processes, 14:42, D-P post-conference #1).

The insight comes as a result of 'D's deliberate probing, a strategy that

is, of necessity, concealed from the supervisee.

While supervisee 'P' was oblivious to 'D's probing strategy in

the above example, supervisor 'A', during the second post-conference with

'L', was unaware of the supervisee reaching any insight as a result of

supervisor probing. The discussion was focusing on how to involve

students in an orchestrated class discussion and supervisor 'A' probes how

'L' handled the unexpected answers that came from clever students. In the

conference, the supervisee does not pursue this issue, appearing not to

take stock of the kinds of openings that such questions could provide.

Consequently, supervisor 'A' redirects the conference focus to 'L's

expectations for students when they are instructed to take notes from the

supervisee's introductory talk. What 'A' does not realize is that 'L'

did, in his thoughts, recognize a need to improve in the area of handling

student questions during discussion:

> I make a mental note at this point that I should spend some time
> thinking about how I respond to student questions because it's a
> whole different ball game when they toss it back to you, to bring up
> an issue with you. I don't mind it, you know, but I want to deal
> with it better in the future (Supervisee thought processes, 13:11,
> A-L post-conference #2).

Despite supervisor 'A's nescience in this instance, his strategy of

probing had registered an insight in supervisee 'L's thoughts.

Towards the end of the first D-P post-conference, the interaction

again focuses on the supervisee's discussion orchestration. Supervisor

'D' encourages 'P' to effect a comparison of total group discussion in

his undergraduate and graduate classes. On finding that discussion

falters only in the class under observation (the supervisee's sole under-

graduate class), 'D' suggests that they look closely at the type of

questions the supervisee poses when trying to stimulate total group

discussion:

> When 'D' said that, I thought--what a good point [supervisor
> suggested that the way supervisee dealt with a class where discussion
> had to be checked and redirected from time to time, might shed light
> on this class where supervisee experienced difficulties in stimulating
> discussion]--again, something which I hadn't thought of; and I was so
> pleased that she'd pointed it out that I could probably, in analysing
> the concern I had with this class today, learn a lot more about it in

the way I handle a similar situation, in other classes. I guess now
as I say it, I'm amazed that I didn't think of it myself; but in the
other classes the situation is almost the opposite where the discuss-
ion flows and I have difficulty in checking it. In this class the
discussion doesn't flow at all, the difficulty I have is in bringing
it out. But in the analysis of both cases may lie some degree of
answer or solution to the concern, the problem which I think I have
(Supervisee thought processes, 39:36, D-P post-conference #1).

The outcome of this probing by supervisor 'D' is further insight for the

supervisee into his own teaching, namely, that he tends to ask open-ended

questions to stimulate discussion regardless of the class level (graduate

or undergraduate):

Again, this was an insight [some of the questions were too open-
ended for the group to handle] I was coming to, that I hadn't really
thought through my questions as well as I should and that hadn't
occurred to me until we looked at the hard data and I was able to see
that the kinds of questions I'm asking for these students at the
undergraduate level are really graduate-type questions, where students
are used to thinking things through and articulating their own
positions and opinions, and at this level maybe that, not that they
shouldn't be led in that direction, but that the questions cannot be
as broad and open-ended (Supervisee thought processes, 40:48, D-P
post-conference #1).

But the probe does not end there. Supervisor 'D' takes 'P' through three

examples of questions that he had used with the class under observation,

analysing those that are precise and specific and those which may expect

too much of undergraduates because their focus is too broad. In doing

most of the analysis himself, the supervisee's insight is deepened:

The insight there is really beginning to sink in. I'm asking
questions which are not really at the level of difficulty, they're
too high above the level of difficulty for the students to whom they
are put and it didn't hit me before that time--but that's what's
going through my mind in this period of silence (Supervisee thought
processes, 41:50, D-P post-conference #1).

This last example once again evidences the similarity that exists

amongst the different variations of exploration procedures identified in

the data pertaining to supervisors 'A' and 'D'; for, although it is a

probe for clarification and supervisee insight, the strategy involves

many features that characterize a supervisor "press".

Supervisor "press" for autonomy and deep insight in supervisee.

Probing for clarification was generally followed by intensified probing

that often led to supervisee insight. On occasion, however, it was

necessary for supervisees to be extended even further. Such a "press"

towards greater supervisee autonomy and insight seemed to be viable only

when the supervisory relationship was trusted and the supervisees were

mature enough to handle the stress. During a "press" supervisors 'A' and

'D' tended to act in a paradoxical fashion. On the one hand, they entered

into an interpersonal relationship which, on pragmatic grounds, valued

"closeness" (Goldhammer et al., 1980, p. 203); on the other, however,

they appeared to be objective in their analysis of supervisee behaviour.

Too much objectivity, however, could damage even a well-established

relationship. The observed key to effectiveness in the paradoxical

complexities of a "press" was that more abstract functioning supervisors

were objective only about supervisees' behaviour they deemed profession-

ally inappropriate. It was when supervisors sensed an avoidance of

professional responsibility and/or an ignorance of instructional short-

comings on the part of supervisees that they used a "press"; for it pro-

vided a constructive tension that appeared to force supervisees to enlarge

their understanding of teaching processes by exploring difficult and

delicate areas of their own classroom performance.

"Presses are deliberate reinforcements of probes" (Wagner, 1976,

p. 89) so as to bring the supervisee to deep insight and autonomous

thinking. Supervisors do not let supervisees off the hook with a super-

ficial understanding of their own teaching behaviour but rather push them

to extend that understanding to a deeper level. A supervisor "press" may

then be regarded as an essential component of conferencing effectiveness;

for it constitutes the rigour in the analysis of teaching process, without which clinical supervision could not possibly effect an improvement of instructional practice.

Supervisor 'A's press for autonomy and greater insight in 'L' towards the end of their first post-conference has been well documneted in Chapters 5 and 6. Since a full description of a supervisor press involves the reporting of many details and data, only one "press", taken from D-P post-conference #1, will be included here.

At 27:10 in the post-conference, supervisor 'D' comes back to probe 'P's use of directions for a sub-group activity, a topic she had tried unsuccessfully to address at 12:46. This time, however, the supervisee is ready to talk and volunteers his analysis of the data:

> P: It seems to me that I may have gone on too long [with the directions] . In order to make things quite clear, I may have been overdwelling on them (Conference dialogue, 27:41-27:53).

This prompts the following thoughts in supervisor 'D's mind:

> I agreed with that wholeheartedly in my mind ... overdwelling was a good phrase. I had actually gone through and written down for myself each different sentence or group of sentences 'P' used to describe each question and I didn't give that to him earlier on, I had done it mostly for myself as part of my analysis, I didn't at this point want to whip it out and say, look you said this four ways here for question number one, you said question two four different ways; because I felt that if I did that I would be whipping out a hidden agenda and I didn't want him to feel that I had a lot of things lurking back in the corner that I was going to pop out at him (Supervisor thought processes, 27:45; 27:53, D-P post-conference #1).

Although she is, at this point, still engaging in probing for supervisee clarification and insight, supervisor 'D' here exposes her reasons for "pressing" the supervisee on the issue of his directions. The "press", however, does not begin until, through probing, 'D' ascertains an opportune opening. This occurs when supervisee 'P' alludes to writing the directions on the board:

P: I really say them about three or four times, if you include when
    I wrote them up on the board I think that maybe with students at
    this level, to have said them twice was enough (Conference
    dialogue, 28:01-28:13, D-P post-conference #1).

'D's thought here confirms that a "press" is about to begin:

        Now he mentioned the writing it up on the board and I was curious
    to know if we would ever discuss that because I know that I myself
    would have suggested to him that, if he were one of my student
    teachers for sure, "you might have written that up on the board much
    earlier than you did" (Supervisor thought processes, 28:13, D-P
    post-conference #1).

Quickly 'D' seizes the opportunity:

D: Now let's see (thumbing through data notes), you wrote this on
    the board ...? (both 'D' and 'P' become engrossed in the data)
    (Conference dialogue, 28:13-28:20, D-P post-conference #1).

and simultaneously processes the following thought:

        I knew I was being very directive then, I wanted him to get that
    out about the timing of writing the directions on the board
    (Supervisor thought processes, 28:20, D-P post-conference #1).

Supervisor 'P' then is "pressed" into examining when the directions first

went on the board:

P: Well, first of all I said it, then I rephrased it, which was a
    second time ...
D: It wasn't until quite late, in fact, that it did go up on the
    board (Conference dialogue, 28:20-28:35).

        At this point, a look of recognition comes across 'P's face, a

phenomenon which his thoughts help to explain:

        I remember that this came as a startling insight to me [the way
    in which the directions for the initial activity had been delivered].
    Although I'd read the data-notes over beforehand, it didn't hit me
    that I possibly hadn't used instructional time as well as I could
    have done when giving the initial instructions for the first activity.
    It was only thinking through 'D's question that I came to that insight
    and I thought, that's really good, I'm glad I've been able to have
    that pointed out ...
        I remember here thinking, yes, she's pointing it out, that is the
    real cause [not putting the directions on the board until late] and
    yet she's doing it in such a nice way, I can't take offence at that
    at all, and it's really prodding me to the further insight that the
    reason why I took so much time over the directions was because I
    didn't write it on the blackboard simultaneously with giving the
    first lot of instructions; I was extremely late in thinking about

that [writing on blackboard] as an approach to take and 'D' has led me towards that insight (Supervisee thought processes, 28:27; 28:35, D-P post-conference #1).

These thoughts immediately precede 'P's conference acknowledgement of an instructional omission:

> P: Yes, I have to confess something there, I forgot about putting it on the board; it should have gone on the board when I was doing it the first time.
> D: (determinedly at 28:51) Why?
> P: Because that way I'm saying it, they're seeing it, so they have two ways of processing the directions the first time, then I would only have needed to reinforce it once. By forgetting about it--it was like a bolt that suddenly hit me, I'm taking away from my own clarity here--you see, I'd gone over it three times before I put it on the board, whereas I should have started off standing up, describing the scenario and putting the notes on the board at the same time and then I only needed to go over it once more (Conference dialogue, 28:35-29:47, D-P post-conference #1).

At 28:51, the supervisor "press" is extended. Because of the growing supervisory relationship, the supervisee welcomes the "press":

> Now in the past, if 'D' had said "why" in the straightforward manner that she did, I would have felt a little bit uneasy or maybe even perplexed, but here our relationship has become such a good one where she has led me to the point of realizing that that is the question that has to be answered [why put the directions on the board earlier?], and I don't mind her putting the question so briefly and straightforwardly as that; in fact, I'm glad because it was all part of leading me to the insight [about the use of directions and how they could be improved] and I want her to be straightforward at this point (Supervisee thought processes, 28:55, D-P post-conference #1).

For the next two minutes the conference interaction focuses on the questions of when and why the directions became clear to the students. At 31:58, however, 'D' recharges the "press" as she directs the discussion to what the data notes may have further to say about the supervisee's directions. The supervisor's refusal to relinquish the attempt to expand 'P's understanding of his teaching performance into areas of knowledge to which he is apparently blind bears results:

> P: Yes, I'm just thinking, in fact, that it may well be, it's only just struck me, that the number of times I went over the directions at the beginning was a contributing factor to the

        lack of time I experienced.
('D's reaction at this point, 32:36, is to exclaim "ah, ah" in a
voice that suggests she has just realized it too, when, according to
her thought processes, she had known all along).
P: That would have contributed to the slight degree of anxiety that
     was going on inside me (Conference dialogue, 32:34-32:43).

At 32:36 both supervisor and supervisee process thoughts relating to the

outcome of the "press". Where 'P' is taken aback by his enlightenment,

supervisor 'D' is delighted that the supervisee had pinpointed the major

shortcoming of his instruction:

     Again, that was something that just came to me as an insight
that my taking so much time over the directions at the beginning may
have accounted for the pressure of time I felt during the activity
and from 'D's reaction, it appears that it had just come to her too.
All of these kinds of experiences are contributing to making me, at
least, feel that the conference is a satisfying encounter (Supervisee
thought processes, 32:36).

     I felt a real joy that you had come to the observation that the
number of times the directions were gone over contributed to the
shortage of time during the ensuing activity (Supervisor thought
processes, 32:36).

The discussion continues to focus on the supervisee's uneasiness, and

the relationship between this phenomenon and the noted shortage of time.

At 33:28 the supervisee suddenly recognizes that his propensity for

becoming didactic occurs when he is pressured by a shortage of time which

causes him anxiety and affects the smoothness of the lesson flow.

     For approximately six minutes, then, supervisor 'D' has "pressed"

the supervisee towards deeper insight into his teaching performance. Not

content merely to inform 'P' that the time lost in repeating directions

at the beginning of the lesson compounded his problem of breaking away

from a teacher-centred didacticism, supervisor 'D' induced the supervisee

to think it through for himself. To do so, however, required more than

an emphasis on facilitating; supervisor 'D' has also "pressed" 'P' beyond

his current level of understanding. If the clinical supervision process

is to make significant breakthroughs in supervisee learning and effect

a positive impact on classroom teaching performance, then the concept of

supervisor "press" would seem to be an important one to consider.

As an exploration procedure, however, supervisor "press" would

appear only to be effective when it is accompanied by a further feature

peculiar to more abstract functioning supervisors, namely, the ability

to withhold expertise but not supportiveness.

Withholding expertise but not support. Bringing rigour into the

analytical process would be relatively straightforward, were it not for

the emphasis on freeing communication, i.e., increasing supervisee autonomy

rather than decreasing it, that clinical supervision espouses. To combine

effectively analytical rigour with the role of facilitator would seem to

require a further exploration procedure, that of supervisors withholding

their expertise but not their support. This procedure involved super-

visors in deliberately acting as if the supervisees knew much more than

they did and in strategically communicating that the supervisees possessed

the information and analytical ability that were critical for deriving

new insights into the teaching process. At the same time as withholding

their analytical expertise and critical feedback, however, supervisors

were careful to provide, through a judicious mix of verbal and nonverbal

behaviour, a supportive atmosphere in which supervisees could analyse

their instructional performance. This procedure did not amount to super-

visors withdrawing their expertise; on the contrary, their expertise was

always available so that the "heterogeneity ... nurtured in ... the

interaction of unequal levels of competence and dissimilar competencies"

which "constitutes one of its [clinical supervision's] principal strengths"

(Cogan, 1973, p. 68) actually occurred. Rather, supervisory analytical

expertise presented itself in exploratory questioning, not in didacticism.

This exploration procedure occurred when, during a "press", supervisor 'D' intentionally conveyed to the supervisee that he knew more than she did and possessed the information essential for fresh understandings into the teaching process. At the same time as reporting withholding her expertise in the area of analysis, 'D' was always careful to provide a supportive atmosphere in which 'P' could appraise his instructional performance. She was so effective in this particular form of exploration that, on two occasions during the "press" reported above, supervisee 'P' was convinced that the insight he had acquired was also new to 'D':

> When 'D' said--that's a good point--I suddenly realized that we were both coming to an insight, and that I found a tremendous experience, it really made the whole process seem worthwhile. We were both learning as a result of this probing and questioning and having to articulate things which previously had just been tacit knowledge (Supervisee thought processes, 29:47, D-P post-conference #1).

'P' mistakenly thinks that his insight about the need to issue directions verbally and visually at the same time had not entered the supervisor's mind, when, in fact, 'D' had used a carefully devised strategy to bring him to that understanding.

The supervisee's perceptions are once again misinformed immediately after he has, at 32:36, pinpointed what 'D' considered to be the major shortcoming of the whole lesson:

> Again, that was something that just came to me as an insight that my taking so much time over the directions at the beginning may have accounted for the pressure of time I felt during the activity and from 'D's reaction, it appears that it had just come to her too. All of these kinds.of experiences are contributing to making me, at least, feel that the conference is a satisfying encounter (Supervisee thought processes, 32:36, D-P post-conference #1).

Unbeknown to 'P', supervisor 'D' had intended to bring him to this appraisal ever since the analysis and strategy phase of the clinical cycle.

Yet she has done it in a way where the supervisee thinks the learning is truly collaborative. By withholding her own expertise as an analyst of teaching-learning situations but fostering supportive supervision conditions, she has facilitated the supervisee's discovery of aspects of his instructional performance that could stand improvement.

Sharing Feedback: Pre-conference Agreement Focus

On occasion, supervisors 'A' and 'D' departed from their reliance on exploration procedures to share feedback directly with their supervisees. Whenever this occurred, two aspects were noticeable: first, the focus of such feedback was always the pre-conference agreement concerns that 'L' and 'P' had raised, and second, supervisors 'A' and 'D' reported resorting to informing directly only if they sensed that their exploration procedures were not going to be effective in bringing a point home to the supervisee. This contrasted with supervisors 'B' and 'C', who reported interpreting their role as clinical supervisors in terms of an emphasis on sharing feedback with little reference to viable exploration procedures.

MORE CONCRETE FUNCTIONING SUPERVISORS

Supervisors 'B' and 'C' placed a strong emphasis on the pre-conference agreement when giving feedback. Unlike 'A' and 'D', however, their attempts at exploration were often inappropriate and their giving of critical feedback sometimes foundered because of unexpected difficulties.

Inappropriate Exploration Techniques

Two variations on the same theme presented themselves in the transcripts of conferences conducted by supervisors 'B' and 'C': on the one hand, the supervisors were given to bifurcated judgments, causing a

proliferation of what Good and Brophy (1978, pp. 363-364) describe as
yes-no or simple choice questions that often seemed to frustrate their
exploration purposes; on the other hand, they would sometimes make use
of an open-ended question in situations that required a specific focus.

Supervisor use of yes-no questions instead of probing. Several
instances of 'B' and 'C' using yes-no questions have been documented in
Chapters 5 and 6; indeed, Chapter 5 shows 'C' employing a series of such
questions, between 7:25 and 7:54 during his first post-conference with
supervisee 'O', that thwart rather than facilitate collaborative
exploration. Supervisor 'B' used yes-no questions inappropriately four
times in his conferencing with 'M' (pre-conference #1, 3:01, 5:45, 6:08;
post-conference #1, 5:30); supervisor 'C' evidenced this tendency six
times in his two conferences with 'O' (post-conference #1, 1:20, 5:14,
7:25; post-conference #2, 3:11, 3:33, 9:20); and supervisor 'B' exhibited
this pattern of four occasions in his cycle with 'N' (pre-conference #2,
1:33, 2:34, 10:19; post-conference #2, 0:27). Since Chapter 5 contains
many examples of 'B' and 'C' frustrating their exploration purposes with
supervisees 'M' and 'O', and Chapter 6 includes detailed illustrations
of this pattern in B-M pre-conference #1, and C-O post-conference #1, only
the instances from 'B's interacting with supervisee 'N' will be included
here.

At the beginning of B-N pre-conference #2, the supervisor poses
such questions at 1:33 and 2:34, when his purpose of facilitating super-
visee expression of lesson plans and concerns could have been better
served by open-ended ones. An illustration of this would be to transform
his questions of 1:33--"So review is going to happen at the board?" and
"during review will students be in their seats?"--into more supportive

and facilitating forms of inquiry, e.g., "could you describe for me what will be happening during review?", and then guide the focus towards location and teacher expectations for students. There are times when it is inappropriate for a supervisor to pose open-ended questions but such times rarely present themselves so early in a pre-conference. At this point, however, supervisor 'B's exploration purpose is not frustrated because supervisee 'N' chooses to address the spirit of the question rather than answering yes or no and redirecting the conference focus. This is in contrast to supervisee 'M's dealings with 'B' and also supervisee 'O's conferencing with 'C' where both supervisees tended to answer the question directly and, during the ensuing momentary silence, changed the topic for discussion. The regularity with which this occurred is more likely to be put down to 'M' and 'O' thinking there was nothing more to be said on the question rather than deliberate obstruction on their part. Supervisee 'N', however, is, at the beginning of her cycle with 'B', functioning at a moderately high conceptual level and this, more than any other factor, probably accounts for her ability to look beyond the wording of the question to the supervisor's exploratory intent.

What 'N' is capable of in the first minutes of the cycle does not, however, last for long. Gradually and, to 'N', imperceptibly, supervisor 'B's influence appears to obtrude the supervisee's thinking and, becoming less open to the rigour of the clinical supervision process, she experiences a lowering in her conceptual functioning level. Correspondingly, 'B's yes-no question issued at 10:09 in the pre-conference is answered directly because 'N' is, by this time, displaying increasing aspects of counterdependence:

 B: Now I'm going to be in there charting, are you going to treat them as if I wasn't there?

> N: Yes (sitting up stiffly), and if Wayne or Dion hassles too much,
> they'll go right out of the room. No, there'll be no difference
> in that way (Conference dialogue, 10:09-10:17, B-N pre-conference
> #2).

Supervisor 'B's thought processes at 10:09 and again at 10:17 reveal

how determined and almost defiant 'N's answer is here. 'B' suggests he

has always found her to be nervous during observation, which he puts

down to the supervisee's fear of evaluation and not to his particular

style, and he reports having had discussions with 'N' on previous occasions

about her ejecting students and his dislike of such a discipline tactic.

When, early in the post-conference, supervisor 'B' again displays

his propensity for asking a simple choice question instead of a probing

one, supervisee 'N' answers it in a way that thwarts 'B's exploration

intent:

> B: Was it a normal day?
> N: No! OK, the lesson and that was but the interruptions weren't
> and the excitement was higher than normal with the cake selling.
> B: Do you think it met what you were planning to do?
> N: Yes, that all happened (Conference dialogue, 0:00-0:27, B-N
> post-conference #2).

Supervisor 'B's inappropriate use of yes-no questions gives the post-

conference an unfortunate beginning. Not only does 'N' maintain as early

as twenty-seconds into the conference that the lesson met all her planning

expectation, but she then redirects the focus, making it doubly difficult

for the supervisor to engage her in any form of lesson appraisal. Had

'B' simply asked--"how did the lesson go today?"--he might have found it

easier to facilitate a collaborative analysis of 'N's teaching performance.

Supervisor use of open question when specific focus required.

The use of yes-no questions when the situation called for supervisor

probing characterized the attempted exploration procedures of supervisors

'B' and 'C'. This was not, however, the only kind of inappropriate

questioning techniques used by 'B'; he also used, an open-ended question
when the situation called for one that focussed the supervisee's thinking.

During his first pre-conference with supervisee 'M', 'B' appears
consumed by his concern for teacher behaviour. At 3:01 supervisor 'B'
experiences some frustration because the supervisee is not articulating
what his ('M's) classroom behaviour will be. The supervisor attempts to
focus 'M', however, with a yes-no question about teacher behaviour which
the supervisee simply answers in the affirmative, thus permitting him to
return to talking about his expectations for student performance and
behaviour.

At 3:57, supervisor 'B' switches the focus to the Grade 6 students
and their instruction. His thought at this juncture indicates an
objective of finding out "what his behaviour is going to be" (Supervisor
thought processes, 3:57, B-M pre-conference #1), but 'B' effects this
refocusing with the open-ended question: "what about the Grade 6's?"
(Conference dialogue, 3:57). Because supervisor 'B' wishes the supervisee
to focus on teacher behaviour, this open-ended question seems inappro-
riate for it does not guide 'M' to that specific topic. The supervisee
responds by talking about the marker's duties with the Grade 6's and then
becomes sidetracked talking about a worksheet he will use with these
students once he has finished with the Grade 5's. In other words, the
supervisee does not address the focus desired by supervisor 'B' because
he, 'M', seems to be unaware of 'B's objective. This, in turn, arises
from supervisor 'B's choice of open-ended question, which does not
delimit the focus of discussion. As a consequence, supervisor 'B' reports
experiencing as much frustration after using an open-ended question as he
does after posing yes-no questions. This stems from the fact that, in

both instances, the choice of question technique was inappropriate for
what the supervisor intended.

Difficulties in Giving Critical Feedback

While supervisors 'A' and 'D' generally gave feedback through use
of carefully devised exploration procedures, supervisors 'B' and 'C'
tended to emphasize the direct giving of critical feedback according to
the concerns that constituted the pre-conference agreement. Although all
four supervisors conducted the post-conference with the observation
agreement as its focus, supervisors 'B' and 'C' did not appear to culti-
vate a collaborative appraisal of the lesson. In giving feedback directly,
however, they made use of untrue statements, confounded a straightforward
issue and forfeited opportunities for supportiveness through "stimulus
boundedness".

Supervisor use of untrue statements to disarm corrective feedback.

During his first cycle with 'O', supervisor 'C' is concerned about the
supervisee's group control and the consequent student inattention. At
9:30 'C' asks 'O' what she would do next time to ensure that the students
were not inattentive and her group control was better. For seven seconds,
the supervisee is silent. During this period, she reports in her thought
processes, she wanted to ask her supervisor what he would suggest, for
she senses that he has some definite ideas for improvement. Because she
does not feel the freedom to ask her supervisor any questions, however,
'O' makes two suggestions in a very uncertain voice. Almost as if he has
read her mind, supervisor 'C' counters by saying that he has no suggestions,
he merely wants 'O' to articulate tactics with which she would be comfort-
able. This statement appears to disarm the corrective feedback in as far

as it implies that the remedies for improving 'O's group control are not

obvious to an outside observer. The intent behind this statement is

understandable; 'C' reported wanting to stimulate instructional analysis

and forward planning in the supervisee and he knows that she will be unable

to do this if the feedback on her group control devastates her confidence.

But such a strategy requires consistency. 'C's credibility is severely

damaged at 10:02 when he proceeds to list the things that supervisee 'O'

should incorporate into her next lesson. Although 'C's intent was laud-

able, his interaction with supervisee 'O' is plagued by 'O's constant

trying to figure out what he as supervisor wants her to say. It would

appear, then that the tactic of using an untrue statement to disarm

corrective feedback merely serves to reinforce this state of affairs.

     A few seconds after this incident, when bringing the conference

to a close, supervisor 'C' succumbs to this temptation again:

> C: I think the lesson was well handled. The only thing affecting
>   it was the fact that some of the children weren't attending and
>   because of that, I mean it wasn't a reflection on your teaching
>   but the fact of control was somewhat lacking (Conference
>   dialogue, 10:41-10:52, C-O post-conference #1).

Concerned that the thrust of his corrective feedback about group control

does not rob the supervisee of her confidence as a classroom teacher,

supervisor 'C' issues the underlined statement above. It cannot comp-

letely disarm the effects of the feedback, however, because it simply is

not true. Group control is not distinct from but very much a central

part of the teaching process (particularly in the mind of a student

teacher). This does little, then, to instill confidence in the super-

visee; it merely exposes the difficulty 'C' has in combining the

supportive atmosphere characteristic of clinical supervision with the

giving of critical feedback.

Supervisor 'B' fares little better than 'C' in this regard. During the first post-conference with supervisee 'M', 'B' is attempting, unsuccessfully, to bring the supervisee to see that his directions for the Grade 6 activity were unclear. Indeed, the supervisee maintains that they must have been clear since he checked for understanding the two students whom supervisor 'B' least expected to grasp what had been said and they knew what to do. Half a minute later at 6:27, 'B' brings the focus back to 'M's directions. This prompts the supervisee to ask !'B' directly if the directions were clear enough. Because he recognizes 'M's need for reinforcement (verified in his thought processes at 6:28), supervisor 'B' tries to give it to the supervisee: "It seems to me that they were able to do it" (Conference dialogue, 6:28-6:31). This statement, however, gives the supervisee the impression that the directions were clear. Confronted by a direct question, supervisor 'B' has neither answered it honestly nor given 'M' the critical feedback that he has requested. Not surprisingly, the supervisee verbalizes that the directions could not really have been articulated in any other way and 'B' shows his frustration nonverbally.

Supervisor 'B' then decides to tell the supervisee. "There were a couple of things that I worried about at the time, but it didn't seem to cause a problem" (Conference dialogue, 6:28-6:34). Because supervisor 'B's thoughts at 6:28 indicate that he considered the directions as a problem in that they caused the supervisee to lose a lot of instructional time, the underlined statement above is both unnecessary and untrue. The intent is indeed to reinforce the supervisee at a time when 'B' is beginning to cudgel 'M's brain with critical feedback. But it merely confuses the supervisee all the more who cannot understand why something

that "didn't seem to cause a problem" should continually be brought up
in the discussion. Clearly, if the directions "didn't seem to cause a
problem", then supervisor 'B' could have dropped the issue when the
supervisee did not recognize the hint that they could be improved in some
way. As it stands, this incident is a further example of a more concrete
functioning supervisor attempting to be supportive by disarming the thrust
of corrective feedback but resorting to the use of untrue statements in
the process. The immediate consequence is supervisee confusion; ulti-
mately, however, it breeds mistrust and an unwillingness in the supervisee
to accept and internalize any form of feedback.

Supervisor confounding of straightforward issue. When dealing
with the critical feedback pertaining to 'M's directions, 'B' succeeds in
confounding an issue that was, in fact, straightforward to the supervisee:

> B: There were a couple of things that I worried about at the time
>   but it didn't seem to cause a problem.
> ('B' then repeats the directions about the scissors as they were said
> chronologically by 'M').
> B: 1) You're going to have to have scissors—and all the students
>   started digging in their desks for scissors—and 2) but before
>   you get your scissors ('M' here emits a laugh as if he has had a
>   sudden insight) you're going to have to make ... and then you
>   started showing them what they had to do with the scissors.
> M: Oh.
> B: I wasn't quite sure at that point if some would be taken up with
>   finding their scissors that they wouldn't listen to the second
>   instruction.
> M: So I probably should have mentioned that [direction #1] last.
> B: Possibly. The students don't need the materials before they
>   know what they're doing. (Tentatively) Does that seem to make
>   sense? It seemed to work today, though.
> M: That's because I probably realized what I'd done, I cut right in
>   and got them into the assignment (Conference dialogue, 6:28-8:10).

Two times the supervisee proposes a straightforward solution to the
dilemma caused by his directions, namely, that he should have reversed
the order. After the first time, supervisor 'B' says "possibly" and goes
on to tell 'M' about the timing of materials distribution. In other

words, 'B' is too engrossed in his own train of thought to recognize that the supervisee has seen his mistake. One possible explanation for this is that supervisor 'B' was not expecting 'M' to come to this insight so soon. After the frustration he experienced with the supervisee thinking his directions were appropriately formulated, 'B' seems so intent on telling 'M' that he misses the fact that the supervisee has already realized the point.

As if to bring this to supervisor 'B's attention, 'M' seizes the opportunity presented by 'B's reference to it working well that day to reinforce what he had previously said. But he adds a significant piece of information--that he realized during the lesson what he had done and rectified it as he was teaching. Supervisor 'B', however, misses this point completely in the conference as he apparently had missed 'M's adjusting of the directions during the actual lesson. Far from dropping the issue the supervisor continues to talk about 'M's faulty directions in a manner that suggests that he, 'B', is trying to make a complex problem intelligible to supervisee 'M'. This is verified by 'B' in his thought processes at 7:51. Although the supervisor sees his mistake c... clearly during the stimulated recall session, he did not recognize what he was doing at a time when he could have corrected it.

> He's already solved it, that part, you know, what was said there.
> So it worked with him, he solved it even more simply than I did, but
> I don't think I heard him say that, I don't think I heard him say--
> "Well, I should probably do that last"--while we were actually
> sitting in the conference (Supervisor thought processes, 7:51, B-M
> post-conference #1).

The underlined phrase is the key. Supervisor 'B' has not heard and understood statements that are explicitly clear, resulting in his confounding an issue that, to the supervisee, was egregiously straight-forward.

Opportunities forfeited through "stimulus boundedness". The
concept of "stimulus boundedness" was first articulated by Kounin (1970).
He used it to describe a teacher behaviour that militated against the
smoothness of the lesson flow by unnecessarily breaking up students'
attention in a way that draws them off-task, thereby making them a
potential discipline problem. It is characterized by a teacher who pays
attention to details that are irrelevant, intrusive, and often immediate.
The term is used in this study to convey supervisor preoccupation with
similarly irrelevant, intrusive and often immediate details in a manner
that interferes with the ongoing analysis of teaching.

Supervisor 'C's bouts of "stimulus boundedness" in his first post-
conference with 'O' have been documented in Chapter 6, but the second
post-conference also contains incidents that illustrate his forfeiting of
opportunities to present the supervisee with feedback. One such incident
occurred between 2:04 and 2:29. 'C' has asked 'O' how she introduced
some ethnic clothing that she used in the lesson under observation. The
supervisee recounts how she first of all engaged students in discussion
about special days that Canadians celebrate in order to lead into the
special boys' and girls' days (the garments on display were worn on these
occasions) that are celebrated in Japan. This instructional strategy of
leading students from their own culture and experience into an unknown
realm of social custom is not, however, explored by supervisor 'C'.
Because he is preoccupied with his next point--some positive feedback on
'O's classroom control--he merely says "that's a good parallel to draw"
and quickly moves on to talking about the supervisee's group management.
Although 'C's statement represents a reinforcement of sorts, the curtness
with which it is expressed suggests a token gesture. As a consequence, a

viable opening for giving supervisee 'O' supportive feedback is lost and

the opportune moment does not present itself again.

Supervisor 'B' values similar action in his pre-conference with

'N'. At 9:18, the supervisee makes a suggestion about two students she

wants 'B' to observe that seems half-way to solving the dilemma she faces.

She ruminates that they may be potential discipline problems because the

work she gives them is somewhat tedious and long. Supervisor 'B', however,

still focusing on the previous discussion's thoughts where he was con-

vinced that 'N' had pre-judged the data-chart he had shared with her,

curtails discussion with "let's wait and see what the pattern is".

Ironically, just as the supervisee is beginning to speculate that the root

cause of the problem may lie in her instructional planning, supervisor 'B'

ends the discussion. When the supervisee appears ready for further super-

visor probing, 'B' is preoccupied by 'N's reaction to his handiwork. As

a consequence, an opportunity to link what the supervisee is saying here

with what he (in his thought processes at 9:18) has suspected all along--

namely, that it is something in her teaching behaviour that is at fault--

is forfeited because of supervisor 'B's inability to transcend the

immediate (and irrelevant) thoughts that fill his mind.

SUMMARY

General patterns of thought and behaviour derived from the data

contained in transcipts of conferencing dialogue and participant thought

processes were reported in this chapter. Supervisee appreciation of the

interpersonal relationship appeared to be characterized more positively

by 'L' and 'P' than by 'M', 'N' and 'O'. Since 'L' and 'P' were super-

visees of supervisors 'A' and 'D', a comparison between more abstract

and more concrete functioning supervisors was made.

Supervisors 'A' and 'D' tended to explore the lessons under analysis in a manner where the supervisees entered into the analysis of teaching as colleagues. As such, they employed four kinds of freeing questioning strategies that have been labelled as: information-seeking, information-giving, delimiting, and guiding questions. In addition, their exploration procedures were characterized by: holding questions in abeyance; retrieving relevant questions to be probed; probing for supervisee clarification, analysis and insight; supervisor "press" for supervisee autonomy; and withholding expertise but not support. Only when they were unable to facilitate conjoint lesson appraisal did supervisors 'A' and 'D' give feedback directly. On these occasions they were careful to ensure that the feedback was supportive and that it focussed on the concerns contained in the pre-conference agreement.

Supervisors 'B' and 'C' tended, in contrast to 'A' and 'D', to focus more on giving critical feedback based on the pre-conference agreement rather than on using exploration procedures to facilitate supervisee analysis. Their attempts at exploration were generally characterized by inappropriate but prolific use of yes-no questions and by use of open-ended questions when the supervisor intended a specific focus. In giving feedback both supervisors encountered difficulties; to disarm the effects of corrective feedback, supervisors 'B' and 'C' made use of statements that were untrue; in wishing to make the complexities of the teaching process intelligible to the supervisee, 'B' confounded an issue that was straightforward; and both 'B' and 'C' forfeited through "stimulus boundedness" opportunities to render critical feedback when their respective supervisees appeared to be open to receiving it.

Chapter 9

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND
TENTATIVE RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

Despite clinical supervision's apparent popularity and its claim
as "a method which meets the criterion of best existing practice" (Cogan,
1961, p. 12), empirical "research on in-class supervision as a specific
area is ... inadequate" (Sullivan, 1980, pp. 14-15). This exploratory
research was conducted, then, to contribute to empirical knowledge about
the clinical supervision process.

Problems and Purposes

Because there is insufficient empirical knowledge about the
clinical approach, attempts at testing its effectiveness have proved
problematic. Despite this, many writers expound the model's desirability
and suggest that clinical supervision provides for supervisory adaptation
to supervisee needs. Yet we know little about how flexible and adaptable
clinical supervisors are to the needs of the teachers with whom they
interact and no previous research has investigated how supervisors
diagnose and influence supervisee acquisition of alternative teaching
behaviours.

The basic purpose of the study was to explore the clinical
supervision relationship in a naturalistic setting. An understanding of
how supervisors "read" interpersonal interaction and "flex" to super-
visee personal and professional needs in the intensity of the clinical

conference, together with a grasp of how supervisees exert "pull" on supervisors as they enter into a collegial relationship, was regarded as prerequisite to developing a practical theory of clinical supervision.

In investigating how clinical supervision participants related to each other during the conference, the following topics were addressed: (1) the nature of verbal communication during conference interaction, (2) the nature of the information processing approach used by participants, with particular reference to the structural variations observable in their dialogue and thought processes, and (3) the interrelationships observable between overt and covert participant conference behaviour.

This investigation of clinical supervision participants' conceptual functioning was predicated on a view of the supervisor as "a teacher of teachers" (Mosher and Purpel, 1972, p. 64) and of "supervision as teaching" (Goldhammer et al., 1980, p. 27). Because Goldhammer (1969, p. 365) maintained that "it is the relationship that teaches" and later, Goldhammer et al. report that "experience and research both suggest that positive supervision will not develop unless both the supervisor and the supervisee feel authentic affection for each other" (1980, p. 204), the study attempted to understand how clinical supervision participants relate in the conference.

A review of the literature and related research found current supervision practice to be characterized by fast-paced, fragmented activities that involved little reflection. The clinical model appeared to be desirable in that it provided opportunities for conceptual-analytical thought but empirical knowledge about the process was found to be scant. The current link in research on teaching between conceptual level and teacher flexibility suggested the usefulness of exploring the

potentiality of a connection between clinical supervision and participants' conceptual development.

The conceptual framework for the study integrated Harvey et al.'s (1961) levels of conceptual development and supervision conditions with levels of constructive openness that Wallen (1972) suggests influence supervisees' conference role behaviour. This integration included the addition of a further supervisee role and a further influence process, causing a re-integration of the possible interrelationships between supervisor influence and supervisee role behaviour that Wallen (1972) posits.

Methodological Procedures

This investigation was an exploratory study using the naturalistic observation method characteristic of a grounded theory approach, and an introspective technique called stimulated recall.

Four volunteer supervisors, one secondary principal, one elementary principal, one sponsor teacher and one faculty adviser, all previously exposed to the clinical approach, participated in the project with their respective supervisees. Each supervisor completed two cycles of the clinical model. With the exception of supervisor 'C' who only managed two post-conferences, each supervisor was videotaped conducting two pre-conferences and two post-conferences. Fourteen conferences were videotaped and subsequently replayed, within twenty-four hours, to both participants at separate times to stimulate their recall of the thoughts they had processed during conference interaction. The participants' verbal reports of their conscious thoughts were recorded on audiotape and, along with the audiotrack of the videotaped conferences, later transcibed. The transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes

thus represented the principal data of the study.

Preactive data were also collected from all participants on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument to rate the level of constructive openness at which participants thought they would eventually function during the conference. In addition, each supervisee completed a brief questionnaire designed to characterize the role he or she had adopted in previous supervisory interventions.

Data Analysis Process

Each conference was initially analysed for supervisor level of constructive openness. Then transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes were scrutinized many times. Differences in performance appeared to be more readily explainable by the "structural variations" rather than the substantive content of participant thoughts and conference dialogue. These variations occurred as a participant differentiated and integrated the events experienced in the clinical supervision process and served as indicators of conceptual functioning level. Low conceptual functioning, it was found, represents the use of "static structures with fixed rules" while high conceptual functioning employs "emergent rule structures" (Schroder et al., 1967, p. 6).

Analysis of the transcipts was carried out at two levels. At a micro-level, the transcripts were coded using ClinSuPICLAS, a structural variations content analysis system based on the thinking of Harvey et al., (1961), developed specifically for interpreting supervision participant conference dialogue and interactive thoughts. Categorizations for supervision participants in each conference were then transposed on to a 0-8 scale, their accumulative value derived and a conference mean for each participant's interactive conceptual functioning calculated. A case

study approach was used to present the micro-level analysis of data in order to illustrate how different levels of conceptual functioning affected the supervisory relationship during conference episodes and critical incidents.

At a macro-level of analysis, general patterns of thought and behaviour were derived from the data transcripts. This analysis looked across conferences for general themes pertaining to high and low conceptual functioning. Supervisee appreciation of the interpersonal relationship was examined and a comparison effected between the exploration procedures and feedback techniques of more abstract and more concrete functioning supervisors.

CONCLUSIONS

The investigation of the clinical supervision conference relationship brought the variable "conceptual functioning level" to the fore and essentially rendered two of the research questions articulated in Chapter 1 central to the study's investigation: 2.2) What is the nature of the structural variations in each participant's conference dialogue and interactive thought processes? and 2.3) What patterns of thought and behaviour generally associate with different levels of conceptual functioning in clinical supervision? Because the sample was small and not randomly selected, generalizations about the population of clinical supervisors from which the subjects were drawn cannot be inferred with certainty.

Structural Variations Analysis Findings

The content analysis for structural variations in conference dialogue and participant interactive thoughts produced findings in three

important areas: it provided a measure of distinction amongst participants according to their level of conceptual functioning, it allowed for a tentative estimate of the impact of supervisory intervention along clinical lines, and indicated the possibility of an association between preactive and interactive stages of thought and behaviour.

Participant interactive conceptual functioning. Two supervisors were found to function interactively at high conceptual levels while the other two were given to concrete thinking and low level conceptual functioning. Although supervisee interactive conceptual functioning varied according to different situational conference constraints, it also associated with the different and varying levels of their respective supervisors.

The two more abstract functioning supervisors seemed able to "read" their supervisees' needs and the situational constraints in a way that enabled them to "flex" upwards or downwards in their verbal communication to the "pull" of supervisee initiative. The two more concrete functioning supervisors, on the other hand, seemed unable to do this. Indeed, they did not "flex" to the "pull" of the supervisee but rather the supervisees were compelled to "flex" in the direction of the supervisory "pull".

Impact of clinical supervision. A gradual but marked increase in conceptual functioning over two cycles was noted in those teachers whose supervisors performed interactively with more abstract conceptual functioning. The opposite was the case with supervisees of the more concrete functioning supervisors: a reduction in conceptual level, particularly during post-conferences, was observed. Supervisees of the

two more abstract functioning supervisors reported coming to self-derived insights about teaching during conference interaction, feeling at ease with the supervisory relationship, and deeming the process a successful means of intervention. Supervisees of the more concrete functioning supervisors recalled experiencing frustration with supervisor didacticism, discomfort in the role of supervisee, and were indifferent to its effectiveness in helping them improve instruction. The growth and development patterns, evident in supervisee conceptual functioning and confirmed in their comments at the end of stimulated recall sessions, served to emphasize that, while high supervisor conceptual functioning cultivated a conference atmosphere that encouraged teachers towards professional and responsible independence, low supervisor conceptual functioning generally fostered unrealistic dependency or counterdependency in supervisees in this four-dyad set of cases.

Preactive and interactive associations. Supervision participant scores on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument, i.e., levels of preactive constructive openness, were found to associate with levels of interactive constructive openness and conceptual functioning. The association between supervisor level of preactive constructive openness and interactive conceptual functioning was particularly high, perhaps indicative of the interdependence of language and thought that Vygotsky (1962), Britton (1970), Chomsky (1972), Parsons (1974), Custance (1975), and Tough (1979) claim is a fundamental feature of human communication. Indeed, supervisors' scores on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument were found to have predictive potential in the sense that they anticipated the conceptual level at which supervisors were potentially capable of functioning rather than rendering an accurate prediction of actual

performance. Because the interactive conceptual functioning of supervisors seemed to be critical in determining the impact of intervention on supervisee growth and development, the Preactive Behaviour Instrument might, with further testing and refinement, serve a useful diagnostic purpose for clinical supervisors.

General Patterns of Thought and Behaviour

General patterns of thought and behaviour that associated with different levels of conceptual functioning emerged from a macro-level analysis of data contained in transcripts of conference dialogue and participant thought processes. Since supervisee appreciation of the interpersonal relationship appeared to be characterized more positively by those teachers interacting with more abstract functioning supervisors, a comparison of general patterns associated with more abstract and more concrete functioning supervisors was made. Three broad distinctions were found to involve supervisor questioning strategies, exploration procedures, and the rendering of feedback.

Questioning strategies. Four freeing strategies were found to characterize the questioning of the more abstract functioning supervisors in all their eight conferences. These strategies consisted of information-seeking questions, information-giving questions to supply missing facts, delimiting questions to focus supervisee analysis, and guiding questions to control supervisee off-task discussion. The more concrete functioning supervisors' attempts at questioning were characterized by inappropriate but prolific use of simple choice questions and by some use of open-ended questions when the conference situation suggested a specific focus.

Exploration procedures. The two more abstract functioning

supervisors tended to explore the lessons under observation in a manner whereby the supervisees conducted the analysis for themselves. This involved the use of procedures such as: holding questions in abeyance; retrieving questions to be probed; probing for supervisee clarification, analysis and insight; supervisor "press" towards supervisee autonomy; and withholding expertise but not support. The more concrete functioning supervisors, on the other hand, tended to emphasize the giving of critical feedback rather than using probes to facilitate supervisee analysis and discovery.

Rendering feedback. Only when they were unable to facilitate supervisee lesson appraisal did the more abstract functioning supervisors give direct feedback. On these occasions they were careful to ensure that the feedback was supportive and that it focussed on the concerns contained in the pre-conference agreement. The more concrete functioning supervisors, however, whilst maintaining a similar pre-conference agreement focus, seemed to encounter difficulties when giving direct feedback. In attempting to remain supportive while communicating criticism, they occasionally made use of untrue statements to disarm the effects of corrective feedback. Further, opportunities to give feedback when their respective supervisees appeared ready to receive it were forfeited because of supervisor "stimulus boundedness".

IMPLICATIONS

Research related to the conceptual development of teachers (Harvey et al., 1966) indicates that over sixty percent of practitioners function at low levels of conceptual complexity. More recent research (Bernier, 1976; Oja, 1977; Bents, 1978) has confirmed that only a

minority of teachers function at the higher levels. Silver (1975)
explored the relationship between administrator conceptual level and
leadership style. As in the research on teachers, she found that most
administrators functioned at low conceptual levels and that they tended
to favour what she termed "autocratic" leadership styles. "Democratic"
leadership styles, she found, associated only with the minority of
administrators who evidenced high conceptual level on a sentence
completion test.

The consensus of the limited research conducted places most
teachers and administrators/supervisors on the lower half of the abstract-
concrete continuum. Yet the findings of this study suggest that the
effective implementation of the clinical model as a humanistic but
rigorous form of instructional supervision may require supervisors who
are capable of functioning at a high conceptual level. These findings
may begin to explain why clinical supervision has apparently enjoyed
little success in its implementation into public education. They also
raise the question of how appropriate current clinical supervision
practices are, given the generally low conceptual levels of practitioners,
especially administrator/supervisors. As such, they hold specific
implications for administrator preparation programmes and clinical
supervision practice.

Administrator Preparation Programmes

Goldhammer et al. (1980) make a significant comment at the
conclusion of their book:

> We have been struck time and again by one particular form of
> perceptual and intellectual distortion that seems more salient than
> any other amongst educators--namely, their tendencies to see and to
> conceptualize phenomena in global and undifferentiated terms. We
> are aware that the human tendency to form such "gestalts" is

compelling; and we see this condition as constituting the principal
need for clinical supervision to exist .... We require teacher
training methods that help to facilitate strong capacities for diff-
erentiated thinking and observing, and our experiences suggest that
the ideal arena for such training is in the school, and that the
most advantageous medium for such training is supervision of this
type (p. 206).

Their concern relates to teacher education and their recommendation is

that clinical supervision is the most useful tool for making good any

omission in teacher preparation programmes. Supervisors, however, are

often "hierarchical, normatively coopted administrators" who were once

teachers (Grimmett, 1981c, p. 4) and who appear to conceptualize phenomena

in similarly undifferentiated terms. The thinking of Goldhammer et al.

appears to have overlooked supervisors' conceptual abilities which,

according to this study's findings, may be critical to the effectiveness

of clinical supervision. On the basis of the findings of the present

study there would appear to be a need to develop and improve the con-

ceptual functioning of supervisors in order to help them acquire and

practice the questioning strategies and exploration procedures that

characterize the interdependent conditions that encourage supervisees to

greater professional autonomy and responsibility. In other words, to

improve the practice of clinical supervision, those responsible for

administrator preparation programmes should consider providing opport-

unities for would-be supervisors to stretch their conceptual functioning

to higher levels of complex, abstract thought.

Clinical Supervision Practice

Clinical supervision, by definition, seeks ways in which

instructional intervention can be enhanced. The findings of this study

suggest that certain strategies were more useful than others in

facilitating supervisee growth and development. Because they were only

observed in more abstract functioning supervisors, these findings imply
that, to increase the impact of supervisory intervention on classroom
performance, it is necessary to help supervisors raise their level of
conceptual functioning. Specifically, the study's findings imply a
varying appropriateness of information-seeking, information-giving,
delimiting, and guiding questioning strategies that is dependent upon
supervisee conceptual level:

(1) Although supervisors could use all four types of questioning
     strategies in the clinical conference, the manner of their app-
     ropriateness would vary according to the particular conceptual
     level at which supervisees function during specific conference
     situations. Supervisees functioning at Level I tend not to fare
     very well in an environment which rewards responses to unstruct-
     ured and ambiguous questions. Persistent use of information-
     seeking questions, then, could cause them frustration and dis-
     satisfaction with the clinical supervision process. It would seem
     that Level I supervisee conceptual functioning calls for super-
     visors to make greater use of those questions which are more
     structured and which do not communicate as high an expectation of
     a creative response as open-ended ones. In other words, super-
     visors would use delimiting and guiding questions with greater
     frequency when faced with this situation.

(2) Questioning strategies that are too open-ended also seem to
     frustrate supervisees when they are functioning conceptually at
     Level II. Consequently, supervisor appropriateness of questions
     would be similar to that when dealing with supervisees at Level I
     but with one important distinction. Supervisors would, in

emphasizing the use of delimiting and guiding questions, spare no efforts to minimize their being perceived by supervisees as orchestrating the intervention. Should supervisees at this level detect any semblance of direction and/or control, they would tend to react with negative thinking and counterdependent behaviour. Astute use of delimiting and guiding questions, then, could go a long way towards providing supervisees functioning at this level with the structure they need whilst giving them the opportunity to direct their own learning. Any point they fail to grasp, however, should not be "pressed", for supervisees at Level II could find such interaction forced and anxiety-producing which might engender a psychological withdrawal from the process.

(3) Supervisees functioning conceptually at Level III, in contrast to those functioning at Levels I and II, would appear not to need such a structured task environment. They would, however, need a good deal of encouragement about the calibre of their teaching. Consequently, supervisors could develop an emphasis on information-giving questions to provide supervisees with supportive feedback without depriving them of the initiating role in the analytical process. Conversely, supervisors working with supervisees funct- ioning at this level might, from time to time, be required to focus the thinking of some teachers who, because of their sensit- ization to sought-out others, continually seek to impress them. In these situations, it would seem appropriate to make delimiting questions a priority.

(4) Since supervisees functioning conceptually at Level IV are highly adaptable and are comfortable in less structured, ambiguous task

environments, supervisors could make greater use of information-seeking questions. The freedom to concentrate more on information-seeking questions is afforded by Level IV supervisees' ability to focus and control their own thinking. A proliferation of information-seeking questions might release potential for growth in supervisees at this level, given that they generally prefer a minimum of external direction.

(5) As previously stated, the appropriateness of questioning strategies would vary according to the particular conceptual level at which supervisees function during specific conference situations. Emphases, then, might not only change among conferences according to different contexts and different supervisees, but, more significantly, might change within conferences according to different situations and fluctuations within the conceptual functioning of individual supervisees.

TENTATIVE RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the present study warrant certain recommendations for the nature of administrator preparation programmes, for future research on the conceptual functioning of supervision participants, and for the practice of clinical supervision.

Administrator Preparation Programmes

The study's findings suggest the need for those responsible for administrator preparation programmes to consider providing opportunities for further conceptual development in supervisors. This would lead to a tentative recommendation that a developmental perspective be incorporated into such programmes, particularly in the teaching of conceptual-

analytical skills.

There have been some beginnings in programme development along these lines (see Sprinthall and Mosher, 1971, 1978; Hills, 1975, 1977; Sprinthall and Sprinthall, 1980; Glassberg and Oja, 1981). However, no model for a programmatic thrust in developmental growth has yet been designed. It would seem necessary then, for programme developers at this level to begin re-thinking the constitution of administrator preparation programmes not merely according to what Hunt (1977) describes as "phenotypic" objectives which are concerned with producing specific behavioural change but with a primary emphasis on "genotypic" objectives which emphasize long-term developmental changes in the underlying processes of structural organization in a person's thinking. This would involve programme participants in many role-taking experiences where they are expected to perform more complex interpersonal tasks than previously attempted, with continual opportunities to reflect on such practical experiences in light of theoretical constructs. Ultimately, however, the programme design must combine the provision of psychological support with the necessary developmental challenge, so that participants do not encounter more cognitive dissonance than they can handle (Birch, 1969).

Future Research

This study was a first step in attempting to understand the clinical supervision conference relationship. Further exploratory research is required to validate the centrality of interactive conceptual functioning level as a critical variable in understanding the clinical supervision process, and to test and verify the usefulness of the Preactive Behaviour Instrument for predicting conference performance potential of supervisors. In addition, there is a need for further

research to confirm or disconfirm the relationships found in the present
small number of cases to exist between supervisor level of conceptual
functioning and supervisee growth. The present study's analysis would
suggest the following hypotheses for testing:

1. Supervisee preactive level of constructive openness approximates
    the mid-point of supervisee conceptual functioning variation.

2. Supervisor preactive level of constructive openness approximates
    the conceptual level at which supervisors are potentially
    capable of functioning rather than the actual performance level.

3. Supervisor interactive conceptual functioning is a critical
    determinant of supervisee growth and development.

    3.1 The intervention of supervisors of Level IV or Level III
         conceptual potential with supervisees of all levels of
         conceptual potential will lead to supervisee growth.

    3.2 The intervention of supervisors of Level II or Level I
         conceptual potential with supervisees of all levels of
         ..conceptual potential will not lead to supervisee growth.

    3.3 Supervisors of Level IV or Level III conceptual potential
         will exert "pull" on and "flex" to the "pull" exerted by
         supervisees of all levels of conceptual potential.

    3.4 Supervisors of Level II or Level I conceptual potential
         will exert "pull" on supervisees of all levels of conceptual
         potential but will not "flex" to a reciprocal "pull".

4. Supervisor levels of interactive constructive openness will be
    higher in pre-conferences than in post-conferences.

5. Supervisor levels of interactive constructive openness is an
    indicator of supervisory influence only with supervisors of
    high conceptual functioning.

6. Supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will notice more nonverbal communication by supervisees than will supervisors of low levels of conceptual functioning.

7. Supervisors of low levels of conceptual potential will unintentionally transmit contradictory verbal and nonverbal messages.

8. Supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will intentionally use nonverbal behaviour to cultivate supportive affect.

9. Supervisees of supervisors of low levels of conceptual potential will focus on nonverbal and verbal communication.

10. Supervisees of supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will focus primarily on verbal communication.

11. Supervisees of supervisors of low levels of conceptual potential will experience reduction in conceptual functioning during post-conference lesson analysis.

12. Supervisees of supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will experience reduction in conceptual functioning at the beginning of intervention.

13. Supervisors of high levels of conceptual potential will voluntarily choose to work with supervisees of high levels of conceptual potential.

14. Supervisees of high levels of conceptual potential will cause supervisors of all levels of conceptual potential to be constructively open.

Further research also needs to examine the nature of supervisee influence on the outcome of the clinical supervision process. Where this study discovered that the more abstract functioning supervisors were effective in promoting supervisee development and explicated the

questioning strategies and exploration procedures used to that end,
further research should focus on how supervisors functioning at Level III
and/or Level IV adapt these strategies and procedures to meet the varying
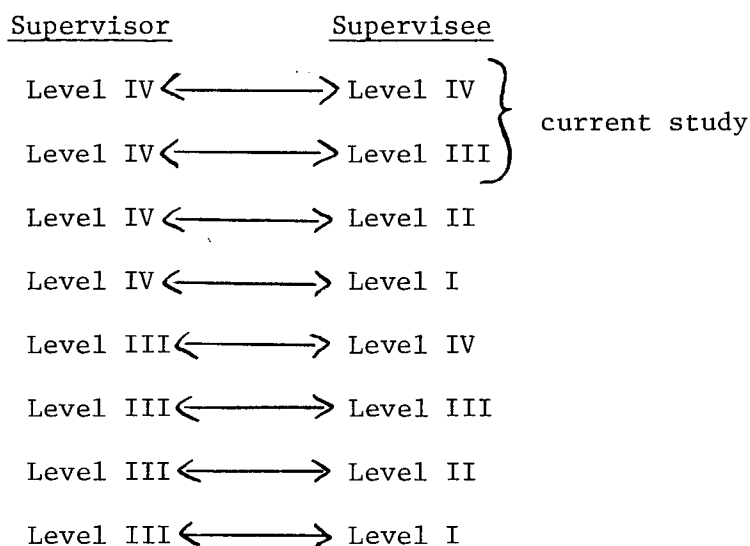needs of supervisees functioning at different conceptual levels.

Of the four supervisors in the current study, two functioned at
Level IV (Autonomy and Interdependence) and two at Level II (Negative
Dependence). One of the supervisees conferencing with the Level II super-
visors also functioned at Level II while the other functioned at Level
III (Conditional Dependence and Mutuality). Of the supervisees relating
with the Level IV supervisors, one also functioned at Level IV while the
other functioned at Level III. No participants were found to function
at Level I (Unilateral Dependence). This study, then, investigated
interactions between the following dyads, expressed in terms of conceptual
levels of each participant in the dyad:

Supervisor	Supervisee
Level IV⟷	Level IV
Level IV⟷	Level III
Level II⟷	Level III
Level II⟷	Level II

Since the two more abstract functioning supervisors were
relating with supervisees who also functioned at a high conceptual level,
the exploration procedures they used may only be effective with super-
visees of similar conceptual level. How then would an ostensibly
effective Level IV supervisor facilitate growth in supervisees functioning
at Levels I and II?

The current study found that Level II supervisors were unable to
create the interdependent conditions necessary for the pursuit of clinical

supervision's primary goals, i.e., improved classroom instruction through teacher professional growth. Further research might then focus either on probing the way in which Level III and IV supervisors do this, or on how Level I and II supervisors fail to. As an example of the former it is suggested that to the two "effective" relationships in the current sample could be added six new supervision dyads. Each of the six supervisors would be potentially capable of functioning conceptually at Level III and/or Level IV. Supervisees' conceptual level potential could be controlled to ensure an even distribution throughout the sample. Graphically, the proposed sample of eight dyads could be as follows:

Supervisor	Supervisee	
Level IV ⟷	Level IV	} current study
Level IV ⟷	Level III	
Level IV ⟷	Level II	
Level IV ⟷	Level I	
Level III ⟷	Level IV	
Level III ⟷	Level III	
Level III ⟷	Level II	
Level III ⟷	Level I	

Further research could similarly examine the ways in which Level I and II supervisors interact with supervisees capable of functioning conceptually at all four levels. The graphic representation for this sample of dyads could be as follows:

Supervisor	Supervisee	
Level II ⟷	Level IV	
Level II ⟷	Level III	} current study
Level II ⟷	Level II	
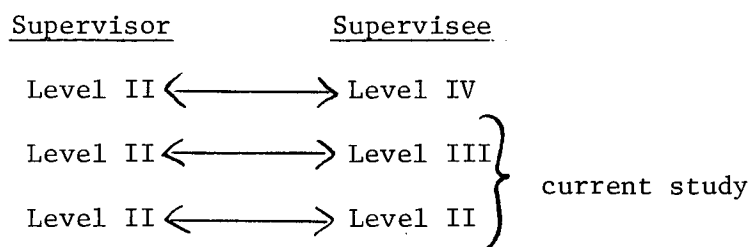
Supervisor		Supervisee
Level II	$\longleftrightarrow$	Level I
Level I	$\longleftrightarrow$	Level IV
Level I	$\longleftrightarrow$	Level III
Level I	$\longleftrightarrow$	Level II
Level I	$\longleftrightarrow$	Level I

Such research would contribute significantly to empirical knowledge of clinical supervision conference interaction.

Clinical Supervision Practice

If the goal of clinical supervision is "to improve students' learning by improving the teacher's classroom behavior" (Cogan, 1973, p. 9) through "the development of a professionally responsible teacher who is analytical of his own performance, open to help from others, and withal self-directing" (p. 12), i.e., to facilitate improved instruction through teacher growth, then the present study would suggest that only supervisors who are capable of functioning conceptually at Level III and/ or Level IV be utilized. This would allow for the cultivation of inter-dependent supervision conditions that appear to play a critical role in helping teachers become autonomous, accountable professionals, capable of surviving and coping positively with the dynamic, ambiguous and uncertain world of the classroom.

If such a limitation were imposed it would reduce the current amount of clinical supervision practice if only because there appear to be few supervisors capable of meeting the minimum conceptual level requirement. It would also imply a questioning of the wisdom of any attempt (e.g., the 1979 British Columbia Administrative Handbook for schools) to make clinical supervision a mandatory practice. The intent

of such attempts may be understandable; but this study has uncovered a variable (supervisor conceptual level) potentially of great importance which educational policy-makers could not have considered and which appears to have serious implications for the operationalization of the clinical model. As a consequence, the implementation of clinical supervision should be carefully considered and might be "piloted" by starting with carefully selected supervisors who are characterized by a high level of conceptual complexity. This recommendation is grounded on the premise that supervisors of high conceptual level are better equipped to cope with a demanding and constantly changing professional environment through greater differentiation and integration of task difficulty levels and possible alternatives. It also rests on the assumption (and hope) that what takes place in the conference interaction between supervisor and teacher is likely to be mirrored in the instructional interaction between teachers and students (Mueller and Kell, 1972). In short, teachers develop when supervisors are developing, and students learn when teachers are learning.

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APPENDIX A

CONSTRUCTIVE OPENNESS INSTRUMENTS

CONSTRUCTIVE OPENNESS INTRUMENTS

Two constructive openness instruments measure respectively interactive and preactive behaviour. Because the preactive behaviour instrument was derived from Wallen's (1972) "Interpersonal effect of various responses", the interactive behaviour instrument will be presented first.

Interactive Behaviour Instrument

The interactive behaviour instrument essentially consists of items on a freeing-binding continuum. Eighteen behaviours in all are identified, ten having a binding effect, eight producing a freeing effect. The instrument not only categorizes behaviours according to freeing or binding but also differentiates degree of interpersonal effect among freeing and binding behaviours. In other words, "active, attentive listening" is regarded as more freeing than "paraphrasing" and considerably more freeing than "offering new alternatives". Similarly, "emotional obligations" is regarded as more binding than "commands, orders", and considerably more binding than "changing the subject without explanation".

The arrows convey these degrees of effect. As such, they imply a weighting of freeing and binding behaviours. "Active, attentive listening" is eight times more freeing than "offering new alternatives" and "emotional obligations" is ten times more binding than "changing the subject without explanation". The further from the freeing-binding intersection point on the continuum, the higher the weighting assigned to a behaviour--up to a maximum of eight on the freeing side and ten on the binding side. The resepective weighting for each behaviour is included in the instrument.

Coding involves categorizing conference verbal behaviours according to the eighteen identified freeing and binding behaviours. The frequency count for each category is then multiplied by the assigned weight factor to yield the adjusted score for that behaviour. The adjusted scores are then transposed on to the Preactive Behaviour Instrument's graph for plotting levels of constructive openness. This process will be delineated after the Preactive Behaviour Instrument has been presented.

The Preactive Behaviour Instrument

This instrument was derived from Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding continuum. Each question on the P.B.I. pertains to one of the eighteen categories of behaviour. The order of the questions, however, is deliberately rearranged to prevent participants from recognizing the specific category upon which any question is based. The following is

FREEING EFFECTS: Increases other's autonomy as a person; increases sense of equality

8   Active, attentive listening: Responsive listening, not just silence

7   Paraphrasing: Testing to insure the message you received was the one he sent

6   Perception check: Showing your desire to relate to and understand him as a person by checking your perception of his inner state; showing acceptance of feelings

5   Seeking information to help you understand him: Questions directly relevant to what he has said, not ones that introduce new topics

4   Offering information relevant to the other's concerns: He may or may not use it

3   Sharing information that has influenced your feelings and viewpoints

2   Directly reporting your own feelings

1   Offering new alternatives: Action proposals offered as hypotheses to be tested

BINDING-CUEING EFFECTS: Diminishes other's autonomy by increasing sense of subordination

1   Changing the subject without explanation: For example, to avoid the other's feelings

2   Explaining the other, interpreting his behavior: "You do that because your mother always...." Binds him to past behavior or may be seen as an effort to get him to change

3   Advice and persuasion: "What you should do is...."

4   Vigorous agreement: Binds him to present position--limits his changing his mind

5   Expectations: Binds to past, "You never did this before. What's wrong?" Cues him to future action, "I'm sure you will...." "I know you can do it."

6   Denying his feelings: "You don't really mean that!" "You have no reason to feel that way" Generalizations, "Everybody has problems like that."

7   Approval on personal grounds: Praising the other for thinking, feeling or acting in ways that you want him to, that is, for conforming to your standards

8   Disapproval on personal grounds: Blaming or censuring the other for thinking, acting, and feeling in ways you do not want him to; imputing unworthy motives to him

9   Commands, orders: Telling the other what to do. Includes, "Tell me what to do!"

10 Emotional obligations: Control through arousing feelings of shame and inferiority. "How can you do this to me when I have done so much for you?"

THE EFFECT OF ANY RESPONSE DEPENDS UPON THE DEGREE OF TRUST IN THE RELATIONSHIP

The less trust, the less freeing effect from any response. The more trust, the less binding effect from any response.

Figure 4.   (chapter 3) Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses.

Preactive Behaviour Instrument

Each question is to be answered choosing one of the following categories A.F.O.S.N.

Always (A) Frequently (F) Occasionally (O) Seldom (S) Never (N)

1. I would advise and even attempt to persuade the supervisee if considered necessary.   A F O S N

2. I would directly report my own feelings.   A F O S N

3. I would show my desire to understand the supervisee as a person by checking my perception of his or her inner state.   A F O S N

4. I would frankly tell the supervisee what to do if he or she were floundering.   A F O S N

5. I would praise the supervisee when he or she displays insights into what I consider to be effective teaching behaviours.   A F O S N

6. I would attempt to use silence as a deliberate response.   A F O S N

7. I would attempt to explain or interpret the supervisees' behaviour.   A F O S N

8. I would offer information relevant to supervisee concerns which may or may not be used.   A F O S N

9. I would try to take a general perspective when the supervisee expresses feelings.   A F O S N

10. I will disapprove of supervisee insights that do not adhere to what I understand by effective teaching behaviours.   A F O S N

11. I would suggest alternatives that could be tried.   A F O S N

12. I would test to ensure that the message I receive is the one the supervisee sends.   A F O S N

13. I would attempt to agree as much as possible with the supervisee.   A F O S N

14. I would ask questions directly relevant to what the supervisee says.   A F O S N

15. I would not shrink from arousing feelings of shame and unprofessionalism in the supervisee if I considered the classroom performance less than satisfactory.   A F O S N

16. I would share information that has influenced my feelings and viewpoints.   A F O S N

17. I would remind the supervisee of his or her expectations and mine.   A F O S N

18. I would change the subject without explanation, if I considered it necessary to do so.   A F O S N

Instructions

1. Circle the following question numbers:
    3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 17

2. Put an * in front of the circled item number if you responded
    S (Seldom) or N (Never).

3. Count up the * in front of 3, 6, 12, 14. Total =
    (Maximum of 4).

4. Count up the * in front of 4, 5, 9, 10, 15, 17. Total =
    (Maximum of 6).

5. For all 18 items, put a "1" in front of the question number if you
    responded A (Always) or F (Frequently).

6. Transfer the "1"s from step 5 to the box below.

7. Multiply the transferred "1"s by the given weight to arrive at
    adjusted score for each question.

8. To the "Freeing" column, add the total from Step 4.

9. To the "Binding" column, add the total from Step 3.

10. Total adjusted scores plus respective totals from Step 3 or Step 4.

Freeing (maximum 42)				Binding (maximum 59)			
Question Number	Weight		Adjusted Score	Question Number	Weight		Adjusted Score
2	.... x 2	=		1	.... x 3	=	
3	.... x 6	=		4	... x 9	=	
6	.... x 8	=		5	.... x 7	=	
8	.... x 4	=		7	.... x 2	=	
11	.... x 1	=		9	.... x 6	=	
12	.... x 7	=		10	.... x 8	=	
14	.... x 5	=		13	.... x 4	=	
16	.... x 3	=		15	.... x 10	=	
+ Total from Step 4		=	_____	17	.... x 5	=	
				18	.... x 1	=	
				+ Total from Step 3		=	_____

To determine constructive openness level, plot total adjusted freeing
and binding scores on the next page and draw a straight line between the
two points.

Levels of Preactive and Interactive
Verbal Communication (Constructive Openness)

Freeing Behaviour

Binding Behaviour
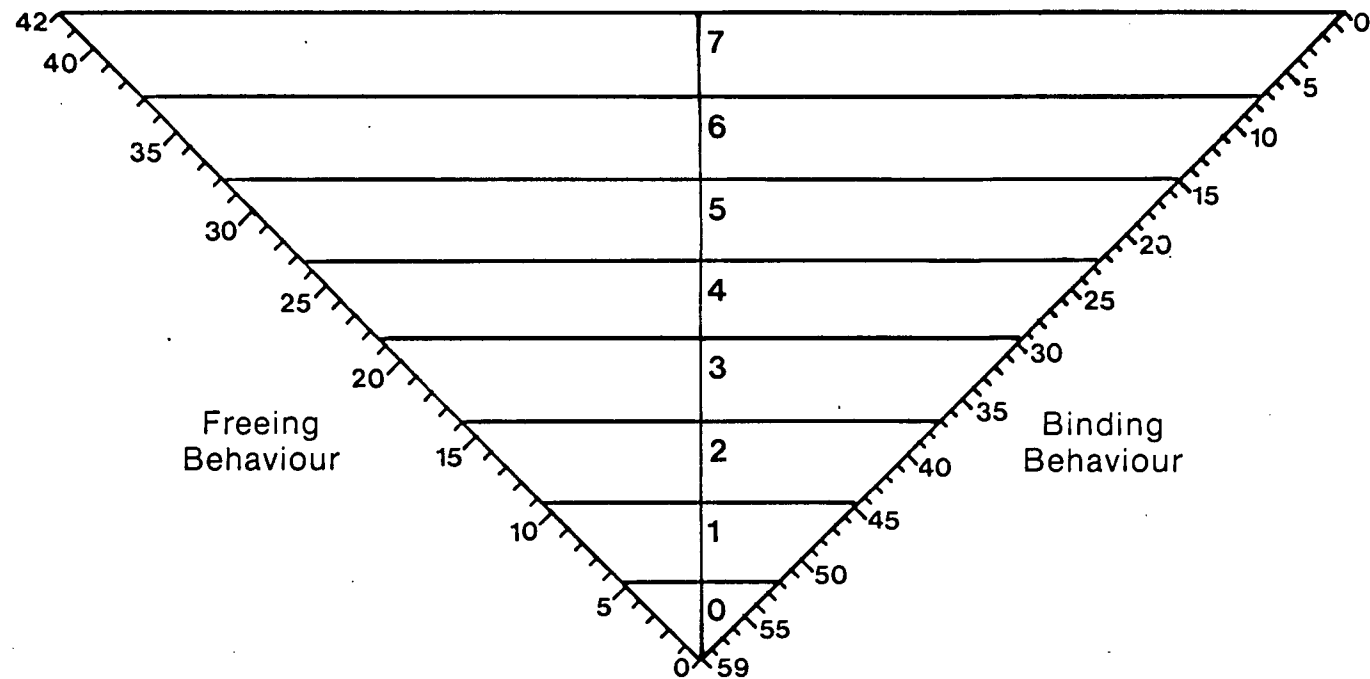
the key to understanding such relationships:

Question 1 -- Advice and persuasion.

Question 2 -- Directly reporting your own feelings.

Question 3 -- Perception check.

Question 4 -- Commands, orders.

Question 5 -- Approval on personal grounds.

Question 6 -- Active, attentive listening.

Question 7 -- Explaining the other, interpreting his behaviour.

Question 8 -- Offering information relevant to the other's concerns.

Question 9 -- Denying his feelings.

Question 10 -- Disapproval on personal grounds.

Question 11 -- Offering new alternatives.

Question 12 -- Paraphrasing.

Question 13 -- Vigorous agreement.

Question 14 -- Seeking information to help you understand him.

Question 15 -- Emotional obligations.

Question 16 -- Sharing information that has influenced your feelings and viewpoints.

Question 17 -- Expectations.

Question 18 -- Changing the subject without explanation.

Participants responded to each question by choosing one of the following categories: (A) always; (F) frequently; (O) occasionally; (S) seldom; (N) never. A score of one was assigned to each question answered (A) or (F). These scores were then multiplied by the respective weight factor for the category upon which the question was based. For example, question 3, based on the perception check category, was weighted to give an adjusted score of 6 on the freeing dimension; question 15, based on the category of emotional obligations was weighted to give an adjusted score of 10 on the binding dimension.

To the eighteen possible responses were added ten further possible scores, six on the freeing dimension, four on the binding dimension. (This redressed the balance between possible freeing and binding responses). These additional scores came from questions based on categories close to the intersection point of the continuum that were answered negatively, i.e., (S) or (N). In other words, for each (S) or (N) response to questions 4, 5, 9, 10, 15, and 17, a score of one was added to the freeing dimension and for each (S) or (N) response to questions 3, 6, 12, and 14, a score of one was added to the binding dimension. Out of the twenty-eight possible responses, then, fourteen scored on the freeing dimension and fourteen on the binding dimension. The maximum adjusted freeing score amounted to 42 (made up of 36 from the weighted positive responses and 6 from the non-weighted negative

responses) and the maximum adjusted binding score computed to 59 (constituted by 55 from the weighted positive responses plus 4 non-weighted negative responses).

To determine participants' preactive level of constructive openness, the total adjusted freeing and binding scores were plotted on their respective dimensions in the graph provided and a straight line was drawn between the two points. Where the straight line intersected the vertical axis indicated the broad level of constructive openness on a scale of 0-8.

The graph is designed to specification, however, and this allows for a more precise measurement of constructive openness level. It consists of a right angle triangle, sub-divided into two further right-angle triangles by the vertical axis. As a consequence, the freeing and binding axes are at a forty-five degree angle from the vertical axis. Both the freeing and binding axes are twelve centimetres in length (120 millimetres) and the vertical axis is eight and a half centimetres long (85 millimetres). By dividing the distance in millimetres from the base of the vertical axis to the point of intersection on the vertical axis by 85 and then multiplying by 8 (the maximum possible number of constructive openness levels on the P.B.I.), a more precise measurement of constructive openness level can be derived. In formula form, the following was used:

$$\frac{y}{85} \times 8 = \text{Precise Constructive Openness Level}$$

where y is the distance in millimetres from the base of the vertical axis, 85 represents the maximum distance in millimetres along the vertical axis and 8 denotes the maximum possible number of constructive openness levels.

The derivation of supervisor 'A's preactive level of constructive openness would serve to illustrate this procedure. Supervisor 'A' scored 37 on the freeing dimension and 18 on the binding dimension. The straight line joining the two points intersected the vertical axis just above the 5/6 line, sixty-five millimetres above the base of the vertical axis. Using the formula:

$$\frac{y}{85} \times 8 = \frac{65}{85} \times 8 = 6.12$$

where y in this case equals sixty-five, 'A's preactive level of constructive openness computed to 6.12.

Transposition of Interactive Scores to the P.B.I. Graph

This procedure was designed to establish out of a quantified blend of freeing and binding behaviours a level of interactive constructive openness that could be compared to the preactive level measured by the P.B.I. Working with the raw and adjusted scores in each

category of Wallen's (1972) freeing-binding continuum, the total frequency of raw and adjusted scores on the freeing dimension was computed. This procedure was repeated for raw and adjusted scores in the ten categories on the binding dimension. The purpose in tallying the raw scores was to establish the total number of verbal behaviours observed in the conference. This combined total of raw freeing and binding behaviours was multiplied by eight (the maximum freeing weight factor) to determine the optimum adjusted freeing score. To determine the optimum adjusted binding score, the combined total or raw behaviours multiplied by ten (the maximum binding weight factor).

To transpose the interactive scores on to the Preactive Behaviour Instrument's graph, a precise measurement of the distance between point zero and the point of interactive performance on both freeing and binding dimensions was calculated. This distance was computed by dividing the total adjusted score by the optimum adjusted score on the respective dimensions and then multiplying by 120, the optimum distance in millimetres on either dimension. The following formula was derived:

$$\text{Freeing Dimension of Constructive Openness} = \frac{WF}{8(F+B)} \times 120 = \text{Distance from point zero on P.B.I. Freeing Dimension in terms of millimetres}$$

$$\text{Binding Dimension of Constructive Openness} = \frac{WB}{10(F+B)} \times 120 = \text{Distance from point zero on P.B.I. Binding Dimension in terms of millimetres}$$

where WF and WB are the accumulations of weighted freeing and binding behaviours, F and B represent the total frequency count of behaviours coded as freeing and binding respectively, 8 and 10 are the respective optimum weight factors for freeing and binding behaviours, and 120 represents the optimum distance in millimetres on the Preactive Behaviour Instrument from point zero on each dimension. Once the distance from point zero to the point of interactive performance on both the freeing and binding dimensions of the Preactive Behaviour Instrument had been calculated and plotted, a line was drawn between the two points to indicate on the vertical axis, scaled from 0 to 8, a measurement of constructive openness. In order to appraise the constructive openness level more precisely, the following formula was used:

$$\frac{y}{85} \times 8 = \text{Precise Constructive Openness Level}$$

where y is the distance in millimetres from the base of the vertical axis, 85 represents the maximum distance in terms of millimetres and 8 denotes the total possible number of constructive openness levels on the P.B.I.

The derivation of supervisor 'A's interactive level of constructive openness in his first pre-conference with supervisee 'L' would serve to illustrate this procedure. Out of a total of 126 verbal behaviours, 114 were categorized on the freeing dimension and 12 on the

binding dimension. The total of adjusted scores in each freeing category amounted to 671, while the total accumulation of adjusted binding scores was 34. The optimum adjusted freeing score (126 x 8) computed to 1008, while the optimum adjusted binding score (126 x 10) was calculated at 1260. Using the formula:

$$\text{Freeing Dimension} = \frac{WF}{8(F+B)} \times 120 = \frac{671}{1008} \times 120 = \text{79.88 millimetres distance from point zero}$$

$$\text{Binding Dimension} = \frac{WB}{10(F+B)} \times 120 = \frac{34}{1260} \times 120 = \text{3.24 millimetres distance from point zero}$$

distances of 79.88 millimetres and 3.24 millimetres from point zero on the freeing and binding dimensions respectively were calculated. A point 79.88 millimetres from point zero on the freeing dimension of the P.B.I. graph was plotted and similarly a point 3.24 millimetres from point zero on the binding dimension. The straight line joining these two points intersected the vertical axis sixty-six millimetres above the base point. Using the formula:

$$\frac{y}{85} \times 8 = \frac{66}{85} \times 8 = 6.21$$

where y in this case equals sixty-six, 'A's interactive level of constructive openness computed to 6.21.

Inter- and Intra-Coder Reliability

The following formula was developed for calculating inter- and intra-coder reliability on a scale of 0 to 1:

$$1 - \left(\frac{WF^H - WF^L}{8\left(\frac{F+B}{n}\right)} \right) + \left(\frac{WB^H - WB^L}{10\left(\frac{F+B}{n}\right)} \right)$$

where WF^H and WF^L are highest and lowest accumulations of weighted freeing behaviours, WB^H and WB^L are the equivalent accumulations of weighted binding behaviours, F and B represent the total frequency count of behaviours coded as freeing and binding respectively, n represents the number of coders or the number of times coded, and 8 and 10 are the respective optimum weight factors for freeing and binding behaviours.

APPENDIX B

SUPERVISEE ROLE BEHAVIOUR QUESTIONNAIRE

Supervisee Role Behaviour Questionnaire

If, after lesson observation, your supervisor suggests a course of action (e.g. to experiment with a different teaching behaviour during the next lesson) for you to consider, which one of the following would characterize your response:

(Please select one response in all four questions)

1.
   a) You respond, "Great, wonderful" but ask no questions.
   b) You look for reasons why the suggestion won't work or you look for flaws in the course of action.
   c) You ask for clarification and explanation and try to understand what is meant.
   d) You point out that the suggestion doesn't solve all the problems you face in the classroom and is therefore rarely applicable.

2.
   a) You point out that you generally do practice that behaviour in your teaching, leaving the impression that either you did not use it during that particular lesson or the supervisor failed to observe it.
   b) You listen actively, then modify and change the suggestion in various ways, discussing such changes with the supervisor.
   c) You (take it as a personal criticism and) justify why you were unable to practice such a behaviour in class today.
   d) You respond, "That is just a terrific idea" and say no more.

3.
   a) you're not quite sure what the supervisor is talking about, so you question further to enhance your understanding.
   b) You're really sold on the idea but once the conference is over you cannot remember how to go about implementing the suggestion.
   c) You quibble with the supervisor over some of the jargon and terminology he uses.
   d) You comment on how helpful the suggestion is but do not intend to do anything with it.

4.
   a) You intellectualize about the suggestion, talking about technicalities, but leave no implication for action.
   b) It suddenly occurs to you to question your supervisor's competence (education, background, and experience) to make such a suggestion.
   c) You begin to build on the suggestion, working through with the supervisor how it would apply to the constraints of your specific teaching situation and the particular needs of your students.
   d) You are overwhelmed by the supervisor's perception and you agree to the suggestion without taking time to think it through.

APPENDIX C

TUCKWELL'S (1980b) PROCEDURES FOR CONDUCTING
STIMULATED RECALL INTERVIEWS

PROCEDURES FOR CONDUCTING STIMULATED
RECALL INTERVIEWS

In setting up and conducting stimulated recall interviews

the following strategies are recommended:

- Before engaging in stimulated recall, study protocols gener-
  ated by other researchers who employed stimulated recall
  methodology in order to gain greater competence with, and
  sensitivity to the technique.

- Conduct a pilot study, reviewing the audiotapes of the
  interviews to:
     1) refine questioning techniques,
     2) identify interviewer bias.
  Also have a third party review the recordings.

- Hold the stimulated recall sessions in a quiet location
  free from interruption. This is important if the teacher is
  to relax and feel free to recall and report " ... the most
  private of his thoughts ...." (Bloom, 1953:162).

- Arrange the equipment as indicated in Figure 1, with the
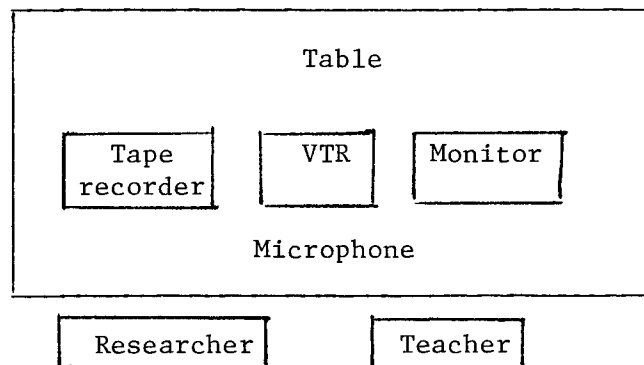 teacher located in front of the monitor for ease of viewing.

Figure 1: Arrangement of Equipment for Stimulated Recall Sessions.

With this arrangement, the controls of the videotape recorder
(VTR) are convenient to both researcher and teacher so that
either can stop the replay. To enable the researcher to monitor
the tape recording of the interviews place the tape recorder
unobtrusively beside the VTR with the extension microphone
located in front of both the researcher and teacher. This will
enable the researcher to monitor:

1) that it was operating,
2) the volume level,
3) when the end of the tape was approaching.
Data lost through a malfunctioning recorder cannot be regained.

- At the commencement of each interview:
    1) engage the teacher in general conversation in order to establish a relaxed atmosphere,
    2) reiterate the objectives of the study to reduce the danger of the teacher constructing his own theory about the researcher's intentions and so distorting data,
    3) outline the rationale for using visual and auditory stimuli to facilitate the reliving of the lesson.
    4) stress the need for complete and accurate recall and ask the teacher to,
        a. indicate when he can not recall the thoughts that occurred at a particular stimulus point,
        b. differentiate between thoughts which occurred during the lesson and those which occurred sub- sequently,
    5) ask the teacher to concentrate on the videotaped replay in order to "relive" the lesson, and recall thoughts, feelings and reactions that were experienced during the lesson.
    6) remind the teacher that the interview will focus on a sample of classroom events that occurred during the lesson. Given the objectives of the study and the decision as to how focused the questioning is to be, encourage the subject to identify stimulus points at which to stop the replay in order to recall his inter- active thoughts. Explain that the interviewer will also identify stimulus points.
        It should be noted that Kagan (Marland, 1977:284) claims that
        ...What little is gained by having the inquirer stop the tape is lost in that the inquiree loses some sense of control in being the ultimate interpreter of his/her own experience.
    7) explain that the role of the researcher is to assist the teacher to recall and articulate thoughts and feelings as accurately and completely as possible. Stress that the researcher is not being evaluative of either the lesson or of the reported thoughts.
    8) guarantee anonymity and the confidentiality of the session.
    9) build on the rapport established in the familiarization period by attending to the affective dimensions such as respect, understanding and interest. Facilitate self discovery by adopting an unobtrusive role; pose open- ended questions when teacher statements require elab- oration or clarification. Leading questions or evaluat- ive statements should be avoided.

10) In order to describe the stimulus points at which the videotape was stopped by either the teacher or the researcher, record the counter number at each stop. This will enable the researcher to review the tape and identify specific details relevant to the stimulus point.
11) When the subject is recalling his thoughts pay close attention to what is being said to:
   a. assure him of the value and importance of his statements,
   b. determine which of the many aspects of the statement require follow up questions.

APPENDIX D

CLINICAL SUPERVISION PARTICIPANTS' INTERACTIVE CONCEPTUAL
LEVEL ANALYSIS SYSTEM AND THE MOTIVATIONAL
PRINCIPLES AND SUPERVISION CONDITIONS
ON WHICH ClinSuPICLAS IS BASED

ClinSuPICLAS AND MOTIVATIONAL PRINCIPLES

Clinical Supervision Participants' Interactive Conceptual Level
Analysis System (ClinSuPICLAS) (see Figure D-1) is a structural variations
content analysis system derived from the thinking of Harvey et al. (1961),
Schroder et el. (1967), and Harvey and Schroder (1963). In its derivation
it follows very closely the tradition of content analysis systems but its
focus in application is markedly different. Where a "pure" content analysis
system would be used to analyse what the substance of conference commun-
ication and interactive thought processes contains, a structural variations
content analysis system would examine that same substance for indicators
of variability in the conceptual schemata that participants use in
thinking and communicating. Although subject to the same guidelines for
unitization and categorization as "pure" content analysis, a structural
variations system attempts to uncover how a person processes the inform-
ation and interpersonal stimuli that make up the substance of communication.

Categories seven throught ten of the structural variations content
analysis system are used exclusively to code supervisors' conference
dialogue and interactive thoughts. These four categories are based on
the substantive discussion of supervision conditions, demonstrated in
Figure 3, that takes place in the generation of the study's conceptual
framework in Chapter 3. Four basic supervision conditions are outlined
along a unilateral-interdependent continuum: reliable unilateral,
unreliable unilateral, protective interdependent, informational inter-
dependent. These four types of conditions, which associate respectively
with conceptual levels I, II, III, and IV, are the basis upon which diff-
erent aspects of supervisory influence, i.e., criteria determination,
direction of rewards, concern for supervisee and supervisor manipulation,
are appraised in supervisors' dialogue and thoughts.

Categories one through six, on the other hand, apply to both
supervisors' and supervisees' dialogue and thoughts, being based on the
motivational principles outlined by Harvey et al. (1961).

MOTIVATIONAL PRINCIPLES AND CONCEPTUAL LEVEL

When clinical supervision participants face a new learning
experience, they will, according to their level of concreteness-
abstractness, come to evolve more or less standardized ways of defining
and reacting to the situation. The conceptual stage, acting as an
experimental filter, comes to determine what is confirming and refuting,
what will produce threat and non-threat, what will result in positive
or negative affect, and what will arouse feelings of success or failure.
(As such, each conceptual level constitutes a set of basic values or
evaluative predispositions which mediate supervision participants'
thought processes and behavioural expression during the conference). The
conceptual level of a person tends, then, to determine the motivational
impact that new experiences arouse.

CLINICAL SUPERVISION PARTICIPANTS'
INTERACTIVE CONCEPTUAL LEVEL
ANALYSIS SYSTEM

1. Sensitization

Level I — closed to personal, open to institutional power.
Level II — resenting control as interpersonal threat.
Level III — open to sought-out others.
Level IV — open to differences in experiences, in task difficulty levels, and in other participant's competence.

2. Confirmation

Level I — unambiguous prescription for behaviour.
Level II — successful control of other participant.
Level III — other participant approval.
Level IV — rigorous, interdependent task analysis.

3. Refutation

Level I — no clear prescription for behaviour.
Level II — evaluative feedback.
Level III — other participant rejection or pressure towards autonomy.
Level IV — restriction of autonomy.

4. Neutralization

Level I — blocking out or distorting critical feedback with categorical judgments.
Level II — deliberate indifference to own responsibility and other participant's reputation
Level III — denial of other participant's responsibility or rejection.
Level IV — denial of relevance of other participant's standard.

5. Bolstering

Level I — impersonal reaffirmation of duty.
Level II — setting excessively high performance goals to reaffirm competence.
Level III — reaffirmation of social acceptance.
Level IV — reaffirmation of concern with information in feedback.

6. Behavioural Responses

Level I — rigid and uncritically submissive.
Level II — other participant devaluation and problem avoidance.
Level III — excessive reliance on sought-out other's evaluation.
Level IV — provisional self-correction and information seeking.

(Categories 7-10 inclusive are for analysis of supervisor dialogue and thoughts only)

7. Criteria Determination

Level I — absolute; supervisor rigid imposition.
Level II — absolute; supervisor subtle imposition.
Level III — relative; conjoint evaluation of exploratory behaviour.
Level IV — relative; supervisee clarification of behavioural consequences.

8. Direction of Rewards

Level I — external standards; consistent application.
Level II — external standards; inconsistent application.
Level III — supervisee exploratory behaviour; supportive feedback.
Level IV — supervisee exploratory behaviour; conjoint approval of instrumental achievements.

9. Concern for Supervision

Level I — supervisee ideas ignored, quashed.
Level II — lack of interpersonal affinity.
Level III — dual accountability.
Level IV — supervisee free to experiment.

10. Supervisor Manipulation

Level I — supervisee behaviour manipulation.
Level II — expectations beyond supervisee ability.
Level III — role modelling.
Level IV — task environment manipulation within supervisee ability.

Figure D-1

Harvey et al. (1961, pp. 204-243) propose the principles of sensitization confirmation and refutation, interpretive manoeuvers and behavioural expression as having relevant motivational powers at each stage. Sensitization or the openness-closedness dimension "determines how reality will be experienced, what will be attended to, and what will be ignored" (Harvey et al., 1961, p. 206). Confirmation and Refutation coincides with the centrality-peripherality dimension. Experiences that are appraised as peripheral to a person's inner self take on a refuting force whereas experiences appraised as central to one's world view become confirming in nature.

Conceptual confirmation is the state resulting from the perception or evaluation of an impinging event as being compatible with or facilitative of the response directionality associated with the concept(s) operative at the particular time. Conceptual refutation, on the other hand, is the condition occurring when an impinging event is evaluated as conflicting with or being incompatible with the behavioral directionality implicitly in existing concepts or subject-object relations. The better defined the directionality of a concept and the greater its strength or preference or outcome, the more pronounced are the behavioral and affective consequences of confirmation or refutation (Harvey et al., 1961, p. 51).

What this in effect means is that confirmation represents the evaluation of a situation as facilitative of goal attainment, while refutation interprets events as portending impediment of goal achievement.

Interpretive Manoeuvers are the ways and means employed by a person's mind to minimize refutation. Two general manoeuvers are possible --neutralizing a potentially negative experience (avoidance) and bolstering one's thought processes through over-compensation. In other words, where neutralizing directly restructures a potentially refuting experience, bolstering indirectly minimizes refutation by reaffirming the positive aspects of the experience. Behavioural Expressions are similar to interpretive manoeuvers in that they are responses aimed at eliminating or reducing the experience of negative affect associated with confirming experiences. They are dissimilar in that they are more likely to occur later in a sequence than interpretive manoeuvers and are, by definition, behavioural rather than cognitive. Figure D-2 demonstrates how all four motivational principles vary according to the conceptual functioning of the person concerned.

Level I: Sensitization

Level I functioning operates within a framework of external causality. A person at this stage of conceptual development does not see other people as powerful because of their expertise and capabilities (closedness to personal power) but rather sees them as powerful when they occupy roles endowed with institutionally-derived power. Consequently, Level I functioning is highly sensitive to cues concerned with external rules, norms, and traditions with little sensitivity towards variations among people.

Conceptual Level	Sensitization	Confirmation	Refutation	Neutralization	Bolstering	Behavioural Responses
Level I	a) closedness to personal power b) openness to institutionally-derived power rules, and traditions	a) no ambiguity b) no role conflict c) clear prescription for behaviour	a) ambiguity b) role conflict c) unconventional behaviour	a) failure to perceive b) distortion and dissociation c) categorical judgments	a) reaffirming one's duty b) impersonalization c) increased valuation of criticized aspects	a) forming standards rapidly b) rigidity c) overgeneralized submission to authority
Level II	a) openness to dimension of control and freedom from its imposition b) categorizes in terms of interpersonal threat	a) no evaluation b) successful opposition to authority	a) evaluative feedback b) interpersonal relationship not grounded in mutual opposition to authority	a) failure to perceive b) non-commitment c) denial of responsibility d) imputation of malevolence	a) reaffirming competence	a) source devaluation b) behavioural avoidance c) "boomerang" response
Level III	a) sensitization to others b) differentiating between others	a) approval b) susceptibility to source-mediated evaluation	a) rejection b) experiences pressuring towards autonomy	a) denial of source responsibility b) denial of rejection	a) reaffirming social acceptance	a) self-evaluation excessive determined by others' evaluation b) overgeneralized submission to influence c) seeking interpersonal support
Level IV	a) openness to differences between events b) openness to differing levels of task difficulty c) openness to variation in competence, or information potential, of sources	a) task analysis from many perspectives b) autonomy and interdependence	a) little experience of refutation b) restriction of autonomy and interdependence	a) assertion of difference between own and others' standard and denial that others' standard is relevant to self	a) reaffirming concern with information	a) maintaining standard in response to non-information social influence b) provisional self-devaluation and self-correction c) exploratory information-seeking behaviour

Figure D-2.   Motivational Principles and Conceptual Level

Level I: Confirmation and Refutation

Confirmation at the Level I level is associated with experiences
that are congruent with external standards, while refutation is associated
with experiences that are incongruent. Refutation, then, tends to be
produced to a slight degree by new experiences and to a considerable
degree by ambiguous situations. Because Level I functioning is highly
concrete and because ambivalence might represent a violation of external
standards, ambiguity produces potential refutation. Getzels and Guba
(1955) have studied the intolerance of ambiguity under the notion of role-
conflict, which they define as follows:

> The critical characteristic of a role-conflict situation for the
> role incumbent is that it is in some measure ambiguous, frustrating,
> and, since negative sanctions are attached to non-conformity,
> threatening (Getzels and Guba, 1955, p. 75).

These authors found that persons high in role-conflict were significantly
more authoritarian than were persons low in role-conflict. Such role-
conflict would lead to refutation in the Level I functioning person.

Confirmation, on the other hand, stems from situations which are
highly structured, involving little or no ambiguity and role-conflict,
and which possess a clear prescription for behaviour. In interpersonal
settings, persons functioning at this level will display approach tend-
encies towards people who are conventional and behave according to the
rules, while they will avoid those who are unconventional, spontaneous
and individualistic.

Level I: Interpretive Manoeuvers

These two manoeuvers only occur when a person at this level of
conceptual development faces a potential refutation experience.

Neutralization at this level consists of the denial of events
that might involve the transgression of rules. Harvey et al. (1961,
pp. 213-215) outline four varieties of neutralizing manoeuvers at Level
I: failure to perceive, distortion, dissociation, and categorical
judgments.

Failure to perceive a potentially refuting experience can occur
only in a poorly differentiated or concrete system and therefore tends
to occur most at Level I. In extreme cases this would involve a total
blocking out of potentially refuting experiences. Distortion and
dissociation deal with the refuting experience, not by denying it as in
failure to perceive, but by redefining it in less threatening terms.
Distortion involves the recall of a negative evaluation as being less
negative and dissociation attempts to dilute the impact of a negative
evaluation by disengaging the source from the communication (e.g.,
questioning that the source actually made the evaluation). These
manoeuvers are activated in a Level I person when one supervision part-
icipant devalues something that the other participant has conceived or
performed, thereby producing a potentially refuting situation.

Categorical judgments or either-or, good-bad, black-white judgments emanate from concrete, poorly differentiated conceptual structures. Persons functioning at this level could be expected to be more dogmatic and narrowminded in their judgments.

Bolstering manoeuvers at this level take on the specific forms of: reaffirmation of one's duty or obligation, impersonalization and an increased valuation of criticized aspects (Harvey et al., 1961, pp. 215-216). Reaffirmation of duty deals with refutation by literally reaffirming one's belief in "the system". At Level I, this would involve responses like "It's my duty to obey him" and "He has a right to do that" (Harvey and Schroder, 1959). Impersonalization involves de-emphasizing the personal aspects of a relationship by focusing upon one's role obligations, a strict kind of bureaucratic functioning. Increased valuation of criticized aspects is a form of bolstering that consists of maintaining respect for authority figures on the one hand, yet denying the validity of their criticism on the other. An example of this would be where a supervisee begins to think more highly of a colleague teacher when a person supervising them both criticizes certain similarities in their teaching, the criticism is then diluted by making it more positive.

Level I: Behavioural Responses

When refutation is experienced at this level, behavioural responses are likely to be rapid, inflexible, and overgeneralized, leading to: the rapid formation of standards, adopting a rigid pattern of response, and submitting to the wishes of an authority figure in an overgeneralized manner (Harvey et al., 1961, pp. 216-218). Rapid formation of standards occurs in ambiguous situations so as to reduce the normative uncertainty as quickly as possible. Behavioural rigidity involves the failure to consider alternative solutions to a problem that poses potential refutation to a Level I functioning person. Overgeneralized submission to authority is the behaviour resulting from interpreting potential refutation events in terms of one's duty, what one ought to do. An example of this would be the experiment described by Milgram (1974) where many subjects increased the voltage power applied to those under interrogation when told to do so by a white-coated experimenter. This pattern of response is indicative of the "authoritarian submission" that Adorno et al. (1950) suggest is one aspect of the authoritarian personality.

Level II: Sensitization

Level II functioning is associated with a heightened sensitivity to the dimension of control, ranging from imposition of control to freedom from its imposition. Experiences are therefore perceived in terms of their actual or implied creation of dependency on another person or in terms of resistance to such dependency. Actions of others, particularly those of one supervision participant directed towards the other participant, are viewed as potentially threatening. Persons functioning at this level are more likely to categorize others in terms of interpersonal threat, e.g., "a person you feel comfortable with" vis-a-vis "a person who makes you uneasy", than in terms of other personal dimensions such

as attractiveness or competence (Hunt and Schroder, 1958). As such, this level of conceptual functioning evidences an underlying distrust and an orientation away from the psychotherapeutic helping relationship espoused by clinical supervision.

Level II: Confirmation and Refutation

Whenever two persons interact, as in the clinical supervision process, they tend, at least initially, to become dependent upon each other for critical feedback, whether explicit or implicit. But the person functioning at this level of conceptual development interprets evaluative feedback as potential control which thus produces refutation. Because Level II functioning is aimed at defining oneself as being different from others, almost all forms of evaluation from another person potentially produces avoidance tendencies in the recipient. This is equally true of positive appraisal as it is of negative evaluation, although the refutation effect is greater with the latter. Confirmation, on the other hand, occurs in interpersonal settings which involve no evaluation at all. An extreme form of confirmation at this level consists in successful opposition to authority, e.g., the rebellious teenager who defies parental authority. For a person functioning at this level to enter into a positive helping relationship with another professional would involve grounding that relationship in mutual opposition to authority--a basis which is highly untenable for an instructional supervisor following the clinical approach.

Level II: Interpretive Manoeuvers

Neutralization. Harvey et al. (1961, pp. 220-223) describe four general patterns of neutralization that are associated with Level II: failure to perceive, non-commitment or denial of interest, denial of responsibility, and imputation of malevolence. Failure to perceive is associated with a lack of attention to the information contained in critical feedback, resulting in participants being unable to utilize information from others to clarify their own self-definition and professional performance. Non-commitment or denial of interest consists of erecting the defence of "indifference" against potential control or dependence. It often involves an anticipatory ploy designed to avoid, soften, or dilute the consequences of an action in advance. Such a denial or qualifier wards off the likelihood of negative evaluation and smacks of what Heider (1958) has described as "the sour grapes mechanism" --that intention (the "try") is as much a factor in a successful outcome as ability (the "can").

> Sometimes the data make it very clear in the absence or failure of action, whether it is the "can" or the "try" that is the missing condition. But sometimes the data are sufficiently ambiguous so that the person's own needs or wishes determine the attribution.
> An example of such egocentric attribution is the sour grapes fable. The fox pretends, or perhaps is even convinced, that he does not want the grapes rather than that he cannot get them. He attributes the failure to the "not want" (and the "not intend" and the "not try")

instead of the "not can," since in this case the former is neutral
as far as his self-esteem is concerned, and the latter is damaging
(Heider, 1958, p. 118).

Non-commitment to the clinical process involving developmental feedback
would evidence itself when a participant expresses diffuse and contra-
dictory interpersonal cues in the conferences and deliberately performs
inconsistently in the classroom; in this way the Level II participant
makes evaluation difficult and effectively avoids interpersonal involve-
ment with another professional. Denial of responsibility is another
means used by a person to avoid negative evaluation. This is done by
ascribing the success or failure, potential or actual, of instructional
performance to factors other than oneself. Although this manoeuver is
designed as a blame avoidance tactic, the person functioning at this level
is quick to assume responsibility when there is credit to be claimed.
Imputation of malevolence is a manoeuver specifically designed to protect
the Level II functioning supervision participant from dependency upon the
other and to serve as justification for retaliation against the source
of critical feedback if necessary.

Bolstering. This interpretive manoeuver takes place when a
person functioning at Level II cannot avoid, through non-commitment etc.,
the necessity of having to take a stand or set a goal. To admit a
weakness would imply a need for professional growth that could potent-
ially be met in the interpersonal relationship with the other supervision
participant; so the person at this level avoids such a consequence by
setting goals which are excessively high in relation to past performance.

Level II: Behavioural Responses

Harvey et al. (1961, pp. 224-226) associate three patterns of
behavioural responses to Level II: source devaluation, behavioural
avoidance, and "boomerang" response. Source devaluation is the
behavioural response closely related to malevolent imputation and is
often enacted along Judaic lines of logic, "an eye for an eye, a tooth
for a tooth"; or more perversely, "screw the other bastards before they
screw you". Persons proffering this behaviour tend to avoid evaluative
feedback by devaluing the source of the criticism.

Behavioural avoidance is a response where a person withdraws
from a problem situation at any sign of difficulty or potential failure.
Harvey et al. (1961, p. 225) maintain that it is useful to view non-
commitment, setting excessively high goals and behavioural avoidance as
Level II modes of coping over a period of time and under varying conditions.
Initially, persons try to avoid commitment; forced to state a goal, they
state it excessively high; falling short of the goal, they relinquish the
challenge at the earliest opportunity.

"Boomerang" response is where the recipient of a criticism
deliberately acts in ways contrary to the feedback communicated. In
other words, a supervision participant functioning at this level would

move in a direction away from the feedback in a boomerang-like response
pattern so as to recoil from any possible influence that the other
participant may be attempting to exercise.

Level III: Sensitization

Because this stage of conceptual development is more highly
differentiated than Levels I and II, the sensitization characteristics
are somewhat more complex. Generally, persons functioning at this level
would be more sensitive to mutuality or dependency. Specifically,
Harvey et al. (1961, pp. 226-228) see them as open to the evaluative
reaction of others, to their behaviour and to the personal character-
istics of the other persons, whether they are attractive or a potential
source of approval for the individual.

Sensitization to others consists of an openness to evaluation
made by sources of approval. In other words, the person is caught up in
mutuality with others and enters into interpersonal dependency relation-
ships very easily because of a propensity to being influenced by others.
Where the Level I person is influenced by traditional prescriptions
and external codes, the Level III person is influenced by individuals
whose approval is sought. Such persons are called "other-directed"
(Riesman, 1950, p. 26) and they have to be able to pick up the varied
signals emitted from their contemporaries which serve as a source of
influence.

Differentiating between others is the Level III sensitivity that
leads to more concern about who the person of influence is. Persons
functioning at this level tend to place more weight upon whether the
other person is someone they like or dislike (Schroder and Hunt, 1958).
At the same time, they differentiate among others by noting their diff-
erential reactions to their own actions. When, however, a person's
conceptual development becomes arrested at this level, these different-
iations become sharper, causing the person to become more sensitive to
the influence of an attractive source.

Level III: Confirmation and Refutation

Refutation at this level is represented by rejection or experiences
that are interpreted to mean "you're on your own now". This kind of
refutation can have positive effects, however, if it pressures the
supervision participant to the next highest level of conceptual functioning.
The negative impact is to send the person spiralling down towards a Level
II mode of autonomy, that of negative independence. Confirmation, on the
other hand, stems from approval by the other participant. In other words,
self-definition and the evaluation of supervisory or instructional per-
formance are largely determined by the effect one can produce upon others:

Self-esteem here depends upon conditions more or less beyond
one's control .... Success is so heavily defined as being what others
want you to be, rather than as doing certain things with effective
skill, that the opinions of others become almost the sole source of
self-feeling and self-esteem (White, 1956, p. 184).

If confronted by negative task feedback i.e., poor performance, that
conflicts with positive source appraisal, i.e., praise, the supervision
participant functioning at Level III is more susceptible to the latter
source-mediated evaluation and thus experiences confirmation (Wells,
and Hunt, 1959).

Level III: Interpretive Manoeuvers

Neutralization. Potential loss of interpersonal support or
rejection may be avoided, according to Harvey et al. (1961, pp. 229-230),
by two interpretive neutralizing manoeuvers: denial of source respons-
ibility and denial of rejection. Denial of source responsibility would
have involve excusing the source for certain actions or reinterpreting
such actions as a special case so as to avoid potential refutation. This
is similar to the Level I neutralization manoeuver of dissociating the
source from the criticism or actions but it is dissimilar in that where
the Level I dissociation is on grounds of cultural and traditional
dimensions, the Level III dissociation stems from the personalized nature
of the supervisory relationship. Denial or rejection attempts to dilute
the impact of critical feedback by not taking it seriously. In other
words, the recipient of criticism begins to joke about a serious matter
in ways that foster mutuality but also neutralize the feedback. This
manoeuver, however, closes out such a person's receptivity to information.
Where Level II neutralizing manoeuvers tend to excuse the self and blame
the other, Level III manoeuvers generally excuse the other person and put
the blame, if anywhere, on the self.

Bolstering. Faced by potential refutation, the Level III
bolstering takes the form of excessively high estimation of one's socio-
metric acceptance.

Level III: Behavioural Responses

Three forms of behaviour responses are outlined by Harvey et el.
(1961, pp. 230-233): excessive reliance on others for determining self-
evaluation, submission to influence in an overgeneralized fashion, and
seeking interpersonal support.

Excessive reliance on others for determining self-evaluation
consists of articulating one's self-definition and performance appraisal
primarily in terms of the effects produced in others. Level III level
persons tend to increase their self-evaluation more following praise
from an attractive source and decrease it following criticism.

Submission to influence in an overgeneralized fashion is a
behavioural response found in persons oriented towards pleasing others,
who need social approval and who place great weight on the attractiveness
of the source of criticism. The difference between Level I and Level III
submission lies in the influencing source; in the former the source
influences through attractiveness.

Seeking interpersonal support is a person's preference to be with
people, rather than alone, before an anxiety-arousing experience

Level IV: Sensitization

This is characterized by openness to the individual's own internal standards and to situations favouring their expression. The highly differentiated, abstract nature of Level IV is associated with conceptual functioning that is more sensitive to situational nuances with less defensiveness or restriction of information.

Harvey et al. (1961, pp. 234-235) identify three specific areas of sensitivity at this level: openness to differences between events, openness to differing levels of task difficulty, and openness to variations in competence or information potential of sources.

Openness to differences between events is a sensitivity to both positive and negative feedback. In other words, such a supervision participant would be carefully attuned to the information contained in any communication and weigh the feedback more objectively, without attaching excessive weight to the source's power or attractiveness and without judging the message in terms of its interpersonal threat. This is possible because this level of conceptual development allows for a differentiation between source and criticism. This, in turn, permits the recipient to respond to the information contained in the criticism as distinct from reacting attitudinally towards the source of the feedback.

Openness to differing levels of task difficulty is the sensitivity to the task at hand, enabling a person to focus on the ramifications that situational variations may make to the level of task difficulty and to adapt accordingly.

Openness to variation in competence, or information potential of sources is a sensitivity to cues regarding the competence of the source. That is, persons functioning at this level of conceptual development "read" reality in terms of potential information available which they sift according to their assessment of the source's competence. They determine what constitutes information by their own internal referents. Facing a difficult task or recognizing a low level of competence in a certain task area, a Level IV supervision participant is likely to take the other participant's opinions and judgments into account as potential information.

Level IV: Confirmation and Refutation

Because of its highly differentiated nature, Level IV functioning does not generally experience a high degree of refutation. Where refutation does occur, it is usually in situations involving restriction of autonomy and interdependent functioning. Confirmation takes place when opportunities which encourage the consideration of a task from many perspectives and which permit interdependent functioning at this level would be capable of creating an atmosphere of trust, mutual respect and constructive openness.

Level IV: Interpretive Manoeuvers

"The more abstract the level of functioning, the more openness to various dimensions. The more openness to various dimensions, the less is the necessity for interpretive manoeuvers" (Harvey et al., 1961, p. 236). Because of its abstract nature then, Level IV functioning has less incidence of reinterpretations.

Neutralization--denial of relevance of standards. Faced with potential refutation, supervision participants functioning at this level may affirm that their standards are different from those of the imposing source and assert that the latter's frames of reference are sufficiently different to obviate any necessity of their applying to him. Such a manoeuver becomes defensive if the other person's standards are distorted in the neutralization. If distortion occurs, it is evidence of a Level II interpretive manoeuver.

Bolstering is by definition, largely unnecessary in a highly differentiated abstract Level IV. In the development and articulation of this level of conceptual development, however, bolstering could take the form of reminding a person of an informational focus in interpersonal settings.

Level IV: Behavioural Responses

Harvey et al. (1961, pp. 237-239) describe three variations of behavioural responses at this level: maintaining standard in response to non-informational social influence, provisional self-devaluation and self-correction, seeking information (exploratory behaviour).

Maintaining standard in response to non-informational social influence indicates that persons functioning at Level IV are less susceptible to generalized social pressure. The internal standard is more easily maintained in such situations because it is subject to continual modification in light of new experiences.

Provisional self-devaluation and self-correction is a behavioural response that Level IV functioning persons use to cope effectively with new learning experiences. In ascribing some degree of inadequacy to their response to a particular situation in the conference or the classroom, supervision participants are in a position to modify their responses more effectively. Schroder and Hunt (1957) describe the nature of this process in the following way:

> Central to the present position is the assumption that, in order to adjust effectively to a situation of failure, an individual must admit that he is doing poorly, that he in some way is inadequate, or that he is, in fact, failing. We assumed that when an "S' interprets failure situation by thinking "This means I'm not very good at this" that such an interpretation implies an admission of some personal inadequacy or self-negation. It should be emphasized that we are not using the term "inadequacy" in its usual sense which implies behavioral

ineffectiveness. In contrast we mean by "inadequate" that the individual is willing to consider possible weaknesses, to admit that he may be wrong, thus opening the possibility for modifying his behavior (Schroder and Hunt, 1957, p. 9).

This would mean that a person functioning in this way could respond more adaptively and appropriately to the collaborative problem-solving approach espoused by the clinical approach to instructional supervision. Failure to perform a task adequately would not cause them to give up but rather spur them to work at correcting and improving their skills. But, as Harvey et al. point out, this level of conceptual functioning is the result of much progress and development.

This System IV-related pattern of flexibility and persistence is also based on the interdependent structure that has developed through experiences of self-competence and mastery. In order to adopt a self-corrective orientation, the person must be sufficiently confident through past successful experiences that his admission of the inadequacy will not be threatening (1961, p. 238).

Persons who have reached this level are rarely given to extreme judgments of others.

Seeking information (exploratory behaviour) is the behavioural response of a highly differentiated conceptual level aimed at testing one's current thinking by trying out new differentiations in situations that provide maximum feedback and, where necessary, subsequent structural reintegration of the cognitive set. Supervision participants functioning at this level are more likely to interpret critical feedback in terms of the information it contains.

Such motivational principles as have been described above are embedded in the functioning of the four levels of conceptual development. Each conceptual level, which Harvey and Schroder (1963) suggest constitutes the "self" in an individual, expresses itself through these motivational tendencies and, at the interface of psyche and world, a person's values and attitudes emerge. Each conceptual level may be regarded then as constituting a set of basic values which determine supervision participants' attitudes towards the clinical process and mediate their thought processes and behavioural expression during the conference.

APPENDIX E

TUCKWELL'S (1980a) GUIDELINES FOR THE
DIFFERENTIATION OF INTERACTIVE
FROM NON-INTERACTIVE THOUGHTS

DIFFERENTIATION OF INTERACTIVE FROM
NON-INTERACTIVE THOUGHTS

Where the research questions focus upon the interactive thoughts of either teachers or pupils, or supervision participants , it will be necessary to differentiate these from the non-interactive thoughts contained in the protocols.

Identification of Interactive Data

At the outset of each stimulated recall interview, reiterate the objectives of the study, outline the rationale of stimulated recall and ask the teacher to distinguish between interactive and non-interactive thoughts. Even given this procedure, differentiation between interactive and non-interactive data remains largely the task of the coder.

The interview protocols will contain clues which simplify the task of distinguishing interactive from non-interactive data.

Examples of clues which indicate interactive data are:

T: Well I thought perhaps I hadn't chosen the right name to describe it's color.

T: I thought that if they sat closer they would hear better.

T: Instead of saying anything to Andrew I thought I'd just move over and touch him. I didn't want to disrupt Kristen's reading ....

Similarly, clues in the transcripts indicate non-interactive data:

T: I notice that I ask a question, and don't ask it properly, and rephrase it.

T: Well now I didn't see--I think I forgot about it when I did the second example but I didn't see that I--I did it in the first but I forgot to do it in the second example.

I: Were you conscious of that in the lesson?

Y: No, but I am now.

<u>Guidelines</u>

For those situations in which the obvious clues are not available to assist the coder in distinguishing between interactive and non-interactive data, the following guidelines have been formulated on the basis of those developed by Marland (1977), Conners (1978), King (1979) and Tuckwell (1980 c). In examples.of non-interactive data, any interactive data have been underlined.

<u>Guideline 1</u>. Label as <u>non-interactive</u> those sections of the protocols in which the teacher is recalling what he was saying or doing or what he had said or done, rather than what he was thinking.

Examples:

T: Then I told them they had good behavior ... I've done that several times to reinforce good behavior.

T: I just started putting the words on the board.

NOTE 1: Statements indicating that the teacher saw, heard, or sensed what a student was saying or doing are to be coded as <u>interactive</u> since it is clear that the teacher was processing other people's behavior during that segment of the lesson.

NOTE 2: When the teacher is describing or referring to a teaching strategy and his description contains reasons, purposes or consequences, then the data are to be coded as <u>interactive</u>.

<u>Guideline 2</u>. Label as <u>non-interactive</u> those sections of the protocols in which the teacher is showing awareness of what he was doing rather than of what he was thinking.

Example:

T: Well I've been sort of watching myself more and I've been noticing, maybe, errors I've been making.

<u>Guideline 3</u>. Label as <u>non-interactive</u> those sections of the in which the teacher is engaged in general discussion about teaching, situations in teaching that sometimes arose, and techniques that should or should not be used.

Examples:

T: I don't over use praise, because I believe through over use it
    begins to mean nothing.

Guideline 4. Label as non-interactive those sections of the

protocols in which it appears the teacher is providing a reason,

explanation, or rationale for what he was doing or saying.

Example:

I: Why did you take that decision?

T: Probably the easiest, that's all and it was, I think, a
    rationalization: I was defending the fact that I should've looked
    at the test ahead of time.

Guideline 5. Label as non-interactive those sections of the

protocols in which the teacher summarizes, restates, or reviews

what he or the interviewer said previously.

Example:

I: That's the same boy?

T: It's the same boy, yes. And he seemed to take it in good stride.

Guideline 6. Label as non-interactive those sections of the

protocols in which the teacher is engaged in general discussion

about the background characteristics of pupils.

Example:

I: Do you think you gear your reaction to each youngster?

T: In some cases yes. Nancy over there, for example, needs more
    personal confidence and more self assurance, so if she makes
    an effort she gets praise regardless of her answer.

Guideline 7. Label as non-interactive those sections of the

protocols where the teacher's consideration of a pre-instructional

plan, decision, or state of mind did not occur during the lesson.

Example:

T: I had entered the lesson with that in mind, but I did decide

to extend the lesson once I saw how far we were in relation
to how much time we had left ...

Guideline 8. Label as non-interactive those sections of the

protocols where the teacher indicates any uncertainty about thoughts

and feelings being interactive.

Example:

T: I'm not sure if I actually thought that at the time or not,
    but I do look about the room ...

Guideline 9. Where the teacher is repetitive and the original state-

ment is elaborated and clarified, include the more specific state-

ment in the interactive data.

Example:

T: The reaction was one of annoyance because they are supposed to
    put the books, all the books back in one particular place ...
    so I was annoyed, although I somehow didn't feel that annoyed.
    I didn't feel angrily annoyed, just annoyed.

Guideline 10. When classifying parts of the protocols as inter-

active or non-interactive, look for contectual clues. Often

decisions about the nature of sections of the data can only be

reached after examining clues found in lines prior, or subsequent,

to the section under scrutiny. Context should be used to determine

whether the use present tense indicates reflection about an event

oe a reliving of the event.

Examples:

T: I am happy about Terri's questions, because it showed that she
    had been going over them the night before.

From the context it is inferred that the teacher is saying that at

the particular moment captured on videotape "I am happy ...."

T: I did not really want to, because it's first thing in the day
    and it's going to be a hard thing to continue with.

Guideline 11. When in doubt, classify the section of the protocols in question as non-interactive.

Connors (1978:353) noted that in transcriptions of audiotapes, teacher's dialogue does not flow smoothly and contains false starts and mazes as two common speech characteristics. Because these do not express a more or less complete idea they do not meet the criteria of a single thought unit as defined. They are not to be unitized.

Examples of false starts (example underlined).

T: I was going to - I saw an error I had made.

T: ... I was wondering, deciding, I was worried whether or not
     that was staying within the lines of the lesson.

Examples of mazes (example underlined).

T: I don't think they, I don't know, it was my questioning or
     whatever, I don't think I gave a good beginning ...

APPENDIX F

PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION
COEFFICIENTS CALCULATED BY
THE RAW SCORE METHOD

Pearson r Correlation Coefficient: Supervisor
Conceptual Functioning and Interactive
Constructive Openness

X = Conceptual Functioning   Y = Interactive Constructive
                                                    Openness

$\sum X = 67.34$ $\sum X^2 = 370.14$ $\sum Y = 74.07$ $\sum Y^2 = 414.62$

$\bar{X} = 4.81$ $\sum XY = 384.97$ $\bar{Y} = 5.29$

$$r = \frac{\dfrac{\sum XY}{n} - \bar{X}\bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{\sum X^2}{n} - \bar{X}^2\right)\left(\dfrac{\sum Y^2}{n} - \bar{Y}^2\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{\dfrac{384.97}{14} - (4.81 \times 5.29)}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{370.14}{14} - 23.17\right)\left(\dfrac{414.62}{14} - 27.98\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{27.50 - 25.44}{\sqrt{(26.44 - 23.17)(29.62 - 27.98)}}$$

$$= \frac{2.06}{\sqrt{3.27 \times 1.66}} = \frac{2.06}{2.33}$$

$$= 0.88$$

Pearson r Correlation Coefficient: Supervisor
Constructive Openness and Supervisee
Conceptual Functioning

X = Supervisor Constructive   Y = Supervisee Conceptual
Openness   Functioning

$\sum X = 74.07$ $\sum X^2 = 414.62$ $\sum Y = 64.31$ $\sum Y^2 = 325.56$

$\bar{X} = 5.29$ $\sum XY = 361.46$ $\bar{Y} = 4.59$

$$r = \frac{\dfrac{\sum XY}{n} - \bar{X}\bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{\sum X^2}{n} - \bar{X}^2\right)\left(\dfrac{\sum Y^2}{n} - \bar{Y}^2\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{\dfrac{361.46}{14} - (5.29 \times 4.59)}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{414.62}{14} - 27.98\right)\left(\dfrac{325.56}{14} - 21.07\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{25.82 - 24.28}{\sqrt{(29.62 - 27.98)(23.25 - 21.07)}}$$

$$= \frac{1.54}{\sqrt{1.64 \times 2.18}} = \frac{1.54}{1.89}$$

$$= 0.81$$

Pearson r Correlation Coefficient: Supervisor
and Supervisee Conceptual Functioning

X = Supervisor Conceptual   Y = Supervisee Conceptual
        Functioning   Functioning

$\sum X = 67.34 \qquad \sum X^2 = 370.14 \qquad\qquad \sum Y = 64.31 \qquad \sum Y^2 = 325.56$

$\bar{X} = 4.81 \qquad\qquad\qquad \sum XY = 339.32 \qquad\qquad \bar{Y} = 4.59$

$$r = \frac{\dfrac{\sum XY}{n} - \bar{X}\bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{\sum X^2}{n} - \bar{X}^2\right)\left(\dfrac{\sum Y^2}{n} - \bar{Y}^2\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{\dfrac{339.32}{14} - (4.81 \times 4.59)}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{370.14}{14} - 23.14\right)\left(\dfrac{325.56}{14} - 21.07\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{24.24 - 22.08}{\sqrt{(26.44 - 23.14)(23.25 - 21.07)}}$$

$$= \frac{2.16}{\sqrt{3.30 \times 2.18}} = \frac{2.16}{2.68}$$

$$= 0.81$$

Pearson Product Moment Correlation: Supervisor
Preactive and Interactive
Constructive Openness

X = Preactive Level   Y = Interactive Level

$\sum X = 68.32$ $\sum X^2 = 360.88$ $\sum Y = 74.07$ $\sum Y^2 = 414.62$

$\bar{X} = 4.88$ $\sum XY = 382.23$ $\bar{Y} = 5.29$

$$r = \frac{\dfrac{\sum XY}{n} - \bar{X}\bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{\sum X^2}{n} - \bar{X}^2\right)\left(\dfrac{\sum Y^2}{n} - \bar{Y}^2\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{\dfrac{382.23}{14} - (4.88 \times 5.29)}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{360.80}{14} - 23.81\right)\left(\dfrac{414.62}{14} - 27.98\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{27.30 - 25.82}{\sqrt{(25.77 - 23.81)(29.62 - 27.98)}}$$

$$= \frac{1.48}{\sqrt{1.96 \times 1.64}} = \frac{1.48}{1.79}$$

$$= 0.83$$

Pearson r Correlation Coefficient: Supervisor
Preactive Constructive Openness and
Interactive Conceptual Functioning

X = Preactive Constructive
Openness

Y = Interactive Conceptual
Functioning

$\sum X = 68.32$ $\sum X^2 = 360.88$ $\sum Y = 67.29$ $\sum Y^2 = 370.14$

$\bar{X} = 4.88$ $\sum XY = 363.86$ $\bar{Y} = 4.81$

$$r = \frac{\frac{\sum XY}{n} - \bar{X}\bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum X^2}{n} - \bar{X}^2\right)\left(\frac{\sum Y^2}{n} - \bar{Y}^2\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{363.86}{14} - (4.88 \times 4.81)}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{360.88}{14} - 23.81\right)\left(\frac{370.14}{14} - 23.14\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{25.99 - 23.47}{\sqrt{(25.78 - 23.81)(26.44 - 23.14)}}$$

$$= \frac{2.52}{\sqrt{1.97 \times 3.3}} = \frac{2.52}{2.55}$$

$$= 0.98$$

Pearson r Correlation Coefficient: Supervisee
Preactive Constructive Openness and
Interactive Conceptual Functioning

X = Preactive Constructive
Openness

Y = Interactive Conceptual
Functioning

$\sum X = 69.82$ $\sum X^2 = 370.91$ $\sum Y = 64.31$ $\sum Y^2 = 325.56$

$\bar{X} = 4.99$ $\sum XY = 342.84$ $\bar{Y} = 4.59$

$$r = \frac{\dfrac{\sum XY}{n} - \bar{X}\bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{\sum X^2}{n} - \bar{X}^2\right)\left(\dfrac{\sum Y^2}{n} - \bar{Y}^2\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{\dfrac{342.84}{14} - (4.99 \times 4.59)}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{370.91}{14} - 24.90\right)\left(\dfrac{325.56}{14} - 21.07\right)}}$$

$$= \frac{24.49 - 22.90}{\sqrt{(26.49 - 24.90)(23.25 - 21.07}}$$

$$= \frac{1.59}{\sqrt{1.59 \times 2.18}} = \frac{1.59}{1.86}$$

$$= 0.85$$