

PATTERNS OF SUPERVISORY DISCOURSE IN POST@LESSON  
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The University of Newcastle, New South Wales, Australia

Dr. Leslie Sharpe  
Senior Lecturer, Division of Policy and Management Studies

Dr. Moo Swee Ngoh,  
Senior Lecturer, Division of Instructional Science

Dr. Lachlan Crawford,  
Lecturer, Division of Policy and Management Studies

Prof. S. Gopinathan  
Dean, School of Education

National Institute of Education,  
Nanyang Technological University,  
Singapore.

This paper should not be cited without the written consent of the  
authors.

Further information on methodology and instrumentation is  
available from,  
and correspondence should be directed to :

Dr. Leslie Sharpe,  
National Institute of Education,  
Nanyang Technological University,  
469 Bukit Timah Rd.,  
Singapore 1025.

### Introduction

Clearly, the question of what is said between supervisors and  
student teachers, and between co™operating teachers and student  
teachers in lesson conferencing goes right to the heart of  
current debates about the aims, structure and control of school@based  
training, and more broadly about the need to make teacher

education more relevant, and to incorporate practice-based knowledge in the teacher education curriculum (Bartlett, L. et al. 1992; Sharpe, L. & Gopinathan, S. 1993). It does so, because these debates concern both the nature of the experiences that should be provided for student teachers as well as the kinds of opportunities for reflecting on and growing as a result of those experiences. In the first case there are arguments about the correct balance between school and university-based course components, and in the second about the respective involvement of university and school staff in school-based training. At the political level, these arguments tend to be about whose voice is more relevant and therefore whose voice shall be heard and at what cost (Bartlett, L. et al. 1992; Cornbleth, C. 1989; Gilroy,

P. 1992); and at the pedagogical level about the kinds of knowledge, learning experiences and personnel that student teachers should be exposed to (Reynolds, M.C. 1989; Smyth, J. 1987; Woolfolk, A.E. 1989).

Surprisingly, given the large amount of literature on the practicum in general, very few empirical studies have been conducted into practicum conferencing worldwide. Of the available studies, those conducted by Zeichner and his associates (Zeichner and Liston, 1985; Zeichner, K.M. et al. 1988) in the US are probably the best known, and we have used them as a basis for this research. To our knowledge this research provides the first systematic data available on the conduct of post-lesson teaching practice conferences in Singapore. The research project was an officially funded research project of the National Institute of Education and, in addition to lesson conferencing, studied the division of labour between university supervisors and school-based co-operating teachers (CTs).

### Methodology

Data reported here was collected from NIE supervisors, school-based co-operating teachers and second year student teachers involved in the Diploma in Education and B.A./BSc. teaching practice held during the September term 1992. In all, 28 Diploma in Education, 5 BA/BSc student teachers and 24 NIE staff were involved in the discourse analysis component of the research. Students were selected at random, and invited to take part in the study. The supervisors of those students who agreed were then approached and with the exception of one all agreed to take part in the study. Participants were invited to tape-record post-lesson conferences and, to this end, student teachers were provided with blank tape cassettes and asked to make tape-recorders available. They were asked to indicate on the tape the date, class, subject and name of their supervisor. Confidentiality was achieved by providing

stamped and addressed envelopes into which the tapes were to be placed and sealed after recording, before posting back to NIE. Knowing that many co-operating teachers would find our request to tape-record their post-lesson conferences difficult to comply with, we decided to invite them to participate on a totally confidential basis, meaning that if they agreed to take part they could return their tapes to us anonymously. CTs of 17 students joined the project on this basis. This was gratifying given the particularly invasive nature of the project, and we wish to express our thanks to all those involved. Care was taken to give only the briefest outline of the research project, and no information was provided as to the nature of the tape analysis itself. This was to avoid pre-structuring of the participants' views.

On receipt at NIE, the tape recordings were transcribed and analysed by two of the research team. A decision was taken not to code directly from the tapes themselves. There were two reasons for this: firstly, we found this a practical impossibility, given the poor quality of some of the tapes; and secondly we felt that having tape transcripts would enable us to conduct further in-depth study at a later date. For each transcript, ten minute segments were chosen from either the beginning or end of the tapes. It was felt that this would keep the task within manageable proportions given the number of thought units involved. Care was taken to ensure that at least one segment from the beginning and one from the end of each tape

was chosen for each supervisor or CT who had completed more than one tape recording. In all, 92 post-lesson conference tapes were transcribed by the research team and then analysed using the discourse inventory: 57 from NIE supervisor conferences, and 35 from CT conferences.

Though very time consuming, transcribing the tapes ourselves gave us a better 'feel' for the data than would have been the case had we employed others to do it for us.

### 3. Discourse Inventory

Analysis of the tape recordings was accomplished using a modified version of an inventory originally constructed by Zeichner and his associates. Whilst the essential features of this instrument were retained, a number of important changes were made in the light both of local conditions and our difficulties in using the Zeichner instrument.

Like Zeichner, the key measure of discourse that we incorporated into our discourse inventory was the "thought unit". By this we

mean the smallest discriminable segment of verbal behaviour to which the observer, after training, can assign a category listed on the discourse inventory (Bales, R. 1951) The thought unit measurement provided us with a way of quantifying discourse. In terms of what to measure, we also followed Zeichner in making a distinction between the substance and manner of discourse. Essentially, this involved a distinction between what was talked about (substantive discourse) and how it was talked about (practical discourse). All told, we included 8 substantive and 4 practical categories, producing 32 possible combinations for each thought unit recorded on the inventory.

### Practical Discourse

Our final inventory (Appendix 1) contained four types of practical discourse. However, we decided not to take separate measures of a number of subcategories, as Zeichner had done, because we found this gave the instrument a complexity that confounded us and ruled out any possibility of achieving adequate reliability. Thus, though we retained the subcategories of "descriptive", "informative", and "hermeneutic" as useful descriptors of different types of factual discourse, we decided not to collect separate measures for them, preferring instead one overall measure of each major category. A similar paring down was done for the other practical discourse categories, as discussed below. The four major categories of factual discourse are :

#### (a) Factual

By factual discourse we mean discourse pertaining to "what has occurred in a teaching situation or with what will occur in the future". The following are typical examples of discourse classified as factual in our analysis:

Supervisor: "What will you do in your lesson ?" (1 TU)

Student: "I will let three of them act it out in front of the class (1 TU), and after that a few of them will be acting out the different parts ( 1 TU ), and after that they'll have to finish off their story." (1 TU)

#### (b) Prudential Discourse

By prudential discourse we mean discourse that " revolves around evaluations of what has been accomplished". It includes instructions, advice/opinion, evaluation and support.

Typical examples of prudential discourse from our study are :

Supervisor: "O.K. I certainly enjoyed your Art and Craft lesson just now. I think it's really fantastic." (1 TU)

CT: " Now, regarding your point about your back being to the class, now you're not supposed to write a lot of information on the board." ( 1 TU )

#### (c) Justificatory Discourse.

Justificatory discourse "entails the identification of various types of reasons and rationale underlying past, present, or future pedagogical actions and factors related to such actions". The following are typical examples of justificatory discourse taken from our analyses :

Student: " That's why I told them what the passage required and handed out the...." ( supervisor interrupts). ( 1 TU )

Supervisor: " You must put them in some sequence (1 prudential TU), otherwise the children will have to hunt for words. )  
( 1 justificatory TU )

#### (d) Critical Discourse

We found this category the most difficult to work with. Zeichner's definition seemed to us to be too narrow, which might explain the very low percentage of thought units classified as critical in his study (only half of one percent). We decided to retain Zeichner's definition that critical discourse "assesses the adequacy of rationales offered within the realm of Justificatory Discourse", but to extend it to include discourse intended to elicit critical reflection on, as well as student suggestions about, alternative pedagogical action. Critical discourse, on this definition is about getting the student to reflect either on the adequacy of pedagogical reasons or to consider alternative pedagogical actions. We feel that this should be clearly distinguished from prudential discourse where supervisors or cooperating teachers make suggestions to the student teacher about alternative pedagogical actions.

Examples of critical discourse taken from our study, using this extended definition, are:

Supervisor: "Now what ways could you revise with them other than using a verbal feedback method that you were doing today?" ( 1 TU )

CT: "What could you have done in that situation ?" (1 TU)

Student: "...I emphasized on the new song that they are going to learn from 'Sing-a-Ling' and in the song I think the beat of the song is important, that the children feel the beat of the song." (1 Factual TU and 1 Justificatory TU)

The supervisor responds with a critical question :

Supervisor: "Why do you say that ?" ( 1 TU )

Student: "I need to give the students more primary tasks before they could attempt such a high level". (1 TU)

## 5. Substantive Discourse

Substantive discourse categories are concerned with what is discussed in post-lesson conferences. As before, we generally adopted Zeichner's categories, but added one extra category and divided a further one into two. Our final research instrument had the following eight categories :

Goals: "Discourse pertaining to the goals for the past, present, and future actions".

Curriculum and Materials: "Discourse pertaining to the content of lessons ( past, present or future ) and materials used or to be used".

Procedures: This category was divided into two parts :  
Instructional Procedures: "Discourse pertaining to methods used in past, present, or future lessons," but excluding matters of classroom management.

Management: Matters pertaining to classroom management and discipline used in past, present, or future lessons.

Lesson, General: "Discourse pertaining to past, present, or future lessons where distinctions are not made between procedures, goals, and curriculum materials."

Students: "Discourse concerning the actions, thoughts, and products of students".

Context: "Discourse concerning various factors not covered under the previous categories: classroom context, school context, community context, pupils' homes, supervisor's or student teacher's biography, student teaching seminars, educational research, co-operating teachers, and the supervisory process itself."

Student Teacher: Discourse pertaining to characteristics of the student teacher such as voice, height and attitude.

As indicated earlier, each thought unit was coded using both substantive and practical categories, for example as "Goals/Factual", "Students/ Prudential" and so on. Certain utterances were not coded, for example concurrences in the form of "mm", "yes"; repetition of the last words spoken by the previous speaker; and statements such as "O.K. I'll pass you the form." Care was also taken not to be misled by poor English and needless repetition.

## 6. Inter@rater Reliability

Early trials of the discourse inventory were discouraging, leading to recurrent problems in achieving acceptable levels of inter@rater reliability. There were two main problems. The first concerned attempts to code thought units directly from the

tape@recordings themselves, without making transcripts. The second was the complexity of instantaneous judgement required by the multiple subcategories that we were trying to use. When combined with considerable variability in the quality of tapes and dialogue, these problems became insurmountable, and we decided to simplify procedures as discussed above.

All four members of the team took part in the first stages of the inter@rater reliability trials, but during the later stages this was reduced to three when one of the team left on sabbatical. Very high levels of inter@rater reliability were eventually achieved between the three raters. At that point, somewhat ironically, one of the three was hospitalized leaving just two team members to transcribe and code the tape recordings.

## Results

2,292 supervisor, 1,165 CT and 1,152 student teacher thought units were recorded, totalling 4,609 thought units in all. At this stage, we have not measured the length of conferences, but during our analysis of the tapes it was clear that there were marked differences in length between supervisor and CT conferences, with supervisor conferences on average typically being at least twice as long. Of the 1,152 student thought units, 944 were recorded in conferences with supervisors and 208 in conferences with CTs. Analysis of this data

has so far focussed on a number of key questions concerning the distribution of thought units between the three categories of participants in different post-lesson conferences. These will be dealt with in turn.

#### Proportion of Supervisor/CT vs Student Thought Units

Taking all post lesson conferences together, student teachers were found to have contributed exactly 25% of the total thought units. Supervisors and CTs accounted for 75 %.

There was a significant difference, however, in the proportion of student TUs recorded in supervisor and CT conferences. In supervisor conferences students recorded 944 out of a total of 3,236 TUs ( 29 % ), whereas in CT conferences they recorded 208 out of a total of 1,373 TUs. ( 15 % )

#### Substantive Categories

Table 1 shows the distribution of thought units between the substantive categories for all post lesson conferences. It shows that overall, talk about lesson procedures dominated discussion, taking up almost 40 % of time. This is followed by talk about students which took up around 17 % of time, and talk about management and curriculum materials which together accounted for just over a further 25 % of time. The remaining four categories accounted for fewer than 20 %

of thought units, with discussion on goals accounting for only 3%.

#### TABLE 1: Distribution of Thought Units between the 8 Substantive

Table 2 compares the distribution of substantive thought units in supervisor and CT conferences. The distributions are almost identical, with the exception of the curriculum/materials and instructional procedures categories. On average a greater proportion of the former TUs were recorded in supervisor conferences, and a greater proportion of the latter in CT conferences. However, the picture is one of similarities rather than differences. This is further confirmed by an analysis of student TUs which produced a similar distribution

for both supervisor and CT  
conferences.

TABLE 2 : Distribution of Substantive Thought Units in Supervisor  
and CT Conferences

#### Practical Discourse

Table 3 shows the overall distribution of practical thought units  
between the four categories. Just  
over 50 % of Factual thought units were recorded, followed by 31%  
Prudential, 13% Justificatory  
and a tiny 3 % of Critical thought units.

TABLE 3: Overall Distribution of Practical ThoughtUnits

As Table 4 shows, however, interesting variations appear when  
comparisons are made between  
supervisors, CTs and students in the proportion of thought units  
recorded. Though the supervisor  
and CT distributions are almost identical, there are clear  
differences between them and the  
student teachers. Whereas supervisors and CTs recorded around 40%  
Prudential Discourse,  
student teachers recorded a greater proportion of Factual, as well  
as Justificatory and Critical  
thought units.

TABLE 4: Proportion of Practical Thought Units bySupervisors,  
Co@operating Teachers and StudentTeachers

#### Factual/Substantive Combinations

In practice, practical and substantive thought units were combined,  
such that each thought unit  
was scored on both dimensions. Thus a thought unit might have been  
recorded as Goals/Factual,  
or Instructional Procedures/Prudential. Table 5 shows, in rank  
order, the ten overall highest  
frequencies for these combinations. It is clear that post@lesson  
conferences were dominated by  
mainly factual and prudential discourse on matters to do with  
instructional procedures, students  
and curriculum materials.

TABLE 5 : Most FrequentPractical@Substantive Combinations

## Student Diaries

It was obvious to us from the discourse analysis that there were large variations in the quantity and quality of discourse that the student teachers experienced. Many post@lesson conferences were of only ten minutes' duration, and contained few memorable points. Others, in contrast, ran to over 30 minutes and contained large quantities of information. Given this variation, we decided that it was important to try to measure the impact of discourse on the student teachers. Additionally, we hoped that the diaries (Appendix 2) would be able to shed some light on the reasons why the student teachers had made relatively few comments in post@lesson conferences, and why discourse had typically been of a low level.

A random sample of 31 students from the larger sample completed the diaries. They were requested to complete the diary after each post@lesson observation conference. A total of 152 completed diary entries were returned to the research team at the end of the teaching practice. 79 entries were based on conferences with NIE supervisors and 73 with CTs.

## Impact of Conferences on the Student Teachers

The central assumptions of post@lesson conferences are that students will remember something of what has been said, be convinced of its relevance and value, and will desire to change their practice in some way.

We found that, on average, students recorded an average of 3 points per conference that they remembered having been discussed either by their supervisor or CT. Students stated that they were already aware of 59% of the points made by their supervisors and 62% of the points made by their CTs. For the most part, then, post@lesson conferences covered ground already familiar to the student teachers (Turney, C. 1985). Given the preponderance of factual and prudential, over justificatory and critical discourse, this is perhaps to be expected.

With regard to how relevant and valuable the conferences had been, we asked students to

indicate which of these points they agreed with and which they disagreed with. The vast majority of students ( 88% ) stated that they agreed with the points made. Regarding specific pieces of advice given, we found that students indicated that they had received an average of 1.4 suggestions for each supervisor diary entry and 1.1 suggestions for each CT diary entry.

Table 6 shows how useful the students found these suggestions to be.

TABLE 6 : Students' Perception of the Usefulness of Supervisor and CT Suggestions

A final observation is that when asked whether they thought that the supervisor/CT had been pleased overall with their lesson, on 91% of occasions students reported that their supervisors and CTs had been pleased or quite pleased.

It seems, then, that student teachers were able to remember a number of points made and some of the advice given in post lesson conferences. ( 1 ) However, few of the points made appear to have been new to the student teachers and for the most part students appear to have been in agreement with them. Students on the whole found the advice given to be useful, though almost 30% either thought it to have little use, or were not prepared to comment. Furthermore, the vast majority felt that their efforts were appreciated by their CTs and supervisors..

#### Student Silences and Low Level Discourse in Post-Lesson Conferences

As indicated earlier, only 25% of discourse was student discourse, though a higher number of student thought units was recorded in supervisor than in CT conferences. Also, the majority of discourse was factual. Analysis of the diaries suggests reasons for this. With regard to silence, it could be, of course, that students were silent because for the most part they were listening to points that they were already aware of. Alternatively, they could have been afraid to over-expose their own felt inadequacies and be strategically complying (Lacey, C. 1977). With

regard to the quality of discourse, it could be that they were simply lacking in 'oral intelligence' (Lowman, J. 1984). In this respect, an earlier study into distinction teaching practice students in Singapore had concluded that distinction students excelled in those aspects of teaching most heavily reliant on language skills (Sharpe, L. 1993). When we analysed the diaries, however, we found that students were prepared to offer reasons for both their agreements and disagreements. Our impression was that for many students, the diaries offered an opportunity for reflection not afforded in the conferences. For example one student remarked, "I agree with my supervisor's comments that the pace of the lesson was too slow because if the pace was quicker then I would maintain the pupils' enthusiasm". Comments such as these suggest that the student teachers were capable of higher order, justificatory discourse and were not as acquiescent as their long silences in post-lesson conferences would suggest.

As we analysed the diaries, we were beginning to see that there were differences in 'opportunity

to talk ' in the conferences and that some supervisors and CTs were able to create and sustain these, whilst others tended to 'close ' them down. To test this possibility, we identified a number of instances of disagreements recorded in the diaries, and were able to match them with tape transcripts. We were particularly interested in whether the students had voiced their disagreements during the post-lesson conference, and, if they had not, whether they had been given an opportunity to do so. The following is one of the six disagreements we were able to match in this way.

The student teacher recorded 4 points that she remembered from the 8 minute long post lesson conference on her science lesson. She indicated disagreement with the second point, where the supervisor had pointed out that "slides on the different communities are also available". In this case, the disagreement is located in a long passage of 11 supervisor thought units, lasting 3 minutes. The following is the last part of this passage:

Supervisor : "One suggestion is, I don't know whether you realize, is I think the science centre@ I'm not too sure about CDIS they offer slides on the different community. I don't know whether the school has bought sets of that because I've gone to Town Convent and Town Convent has a set of that, the slides of the animals, so they seem to show a greater variety. But of course if the school doesn't provide all the AZA, so we have to fit in also with what the school can offer us. Yes, there was something I noticed, that is some students finish off the work more quickly than the others. Have you planned other activities for the quicker students?"

Stu. teacher: It was like five minutes before...

Supervisor : No more than that. Some finished about 15 minutes before the end.... ( another long passage ).

The student does not have an opportunity to explain that she had approached the CT for slides only to find that the school did not have any and that the slide machine had broken. Despite not having had the opportunity to discuss the availability of slides, the student teacher wrote positively about the conference. She correctly identified the main suggestions made, was aware of the reasons for them, and found the suggestions helpful.

We found further evidence of a lack of opportunity for discussion in responses to the question, 'Were you asked to explain why you planned and taught the lesson in the way that you did ?' 80% indicated that they had not been asked to explain. Those

students who were asked to explain their planning and teaching procedures had varying responses. They included, "I planned according to the teachers' guide"; "I had to adopt a direct approach because I was not sure how much they knew about fractions" ; and "I wanted to convince children that water plants can produce oxygen". These comments suggest that the students teachers were able to provide justifications when asked for them. However, 80% report that no

justifications were invited by their supervisors and CTs.

### Supervisory Discourse: Some Observations

#### The Telling Style of Supervision Discourse

Supervision discourse on this teaching practice was characterised by what we term a telling style. In common with findings reported by Zeichner for the United States, discourse in post-lesson conferences was dominated by the university supervisor or school-based co-operating teacher, and was commonly of a factual or prudential nature. Analysis of the tape-recordings and student diaries revealed that co-operating teachers and university teachers were typically eager to tell; eager to pass on to students the wealth of experience that they had accumulated over the years. On average only one quarter of all talk in post-lesson conferences was student talk. Just as school-teachers have been found to speak for three quarters of the time in classrooms, both our supervisors and co-operating teachers similarly dominated talk in post-lesson conferences, though this was more evident with the latter than the former.

The use of the 'thought unit' enabled us to take measures of the substance and quality of discourse. Regarding substance, we found that the dominant focus was teaching methodology and very little time was devoted to discourse concerning pupils, discipline problems or contextual matters such as the children's home background. Student teachers, for the most part, did not appear to need telling how to deal with discipline on this teaching practice. We found this result surprising given the general view that discipline and survival are the major concerns of the student teacher.

#### Quality of Discourse

Our findings with regard to the quality of discourse, however, were much more in keeping with those reported in the literature. Discourse was found to be predominantly of a factual or prudential nature, and there were few instances of justificatory or critical discourse. In common with others, we have characterised such factual and prudential

discourse as being 'low level'  
discourse where the focus of discussion is on what is and should be

the case. In contrast, 'high level' discourse is characterised by justificatory and critical thought. Both supervisors and co<sup>TM</sup> operating teachers were more prone to tell, and especially to tell what should be done, than they were to involve themselves in discussions of why things should be done in a particular way or whether there might be other, better ways of doing them. Of course, by describing discourse as being low level, we are not decrying its quality and the undoubted value of the observations and professional judgements involved. What we are saying is that it might have been moved to a higher, more explicitly analytic level.

A comparison of university and co@operating teacher discourse revealed that, overall, both adopted the same telling style reported above. Both appeared to share what we have characterised as an apprenticeship model of supervision. By this we mean that the context of encounters was fundamentally hierarchical @ between mentor and apprentice, the latter expected to learn and replicate rather than criticise and innovate. Both appeared to draw on a shared set of ideas about what constitutes good teaching, and these ideas tended to be rooted in the reality of the classes under discussion. As a consequence, we could not detect any major differences in the content of discourse. For example, we did not find university supervisors making links with university courses and we did not find co@operating teachers drawing on their detailed knowledge of pupils. Both were preoccupied with the immediacy of the classroom and the discourse of both drew on a shared body of conventional wisdom about teaching.

### Opportunity to Talk

Supervision involves a number of tasks, but essentially it involves talk. For student teachers, opportunities to talk with experienced and knowledgeable supervisors provide an opportunity to learn and develop. It is difficult to say from the data exactly how much of the time spent by

university staff and CTs was devoted to talk. From the student questionnaire, we know that on average CTs spent around 5.5 hrs per week helping the student teacher, and university supervisors a further 1.5 hrs. Presumably some of this time would have involved discussion over and above that in post@lesson conferences. With regard to formal post@lesson supervision conferences, however, the data is clearer. One quarter of the students report an average length of 10 minutes or less, and a further 25 % an average of 20 minutes or less. Only 14% of students report an average post@lesson conference of 30 minutes or over. The length of the tape recordings that we analysed were of similar duration. Very few pre@lesson conferences, and a negligible number

of joint meetings between supervisors, CTs and student teachers, were held.

With regard to opportunities for students to talk in post lesson conferences, we found that, taking all post lesson conferences together, student teachers contributed exactly 25% of the total thought units. Supervisors and CTs together accounted for 75 %. However, there were two important differences between university supervisor and co@operating teacher conferences. Firstly, the conferences of the former were typically longer; and secondly, there was much more opportunity for students to talk in supervisor than in co@operating teacher conferences. In supervisor conferences students recorded 944 out of a total of 3,236 TUs ( 29 % ), whereas in CT conferences they recorded 208 out of a total of 1,373 TUs. ( 15 % )

#### Closure of Talk

Despite differences in skill and role expectations, the adherence to this telling style led to a tendency of both university staff and co@operating teachers to close down opportunities for students to talk. For whatever reasons, there was an urgency to tell : to tell what had taken place and to tell what should be done to improve matters. In extreme cases, students did not say a single word, except for a 'thank you' at the end of the conference.

In some cases, the supervisor clearly began with an intention of opening up discussion, as when

conferences began with an opening question, such as, "Well, how do you think it went ?" However, this opening gambit rarely translated itself into a sustained discussion. More often than not, the supervisor took over, working through what appeared to be a prearranged agenda of observations and advice. At many points in the tapes we came across instances of where discourse might have been moved to a higher level, but was closed down prematurely. In some cases, students pointed to instances in their diaries where they had wanted to justify and explain a particular course of action but were cut short and were unable to do so. By closing down opportunities to talk, ipso facto opportunities for reflection were closed down too. Feedback, then, was in danger of being restricted to a rehearsal of the status quo, instead of being an exploration of alternative possibilities. Of course, there were supervisors who were able to engage their students and move discourse to a high level. When student teachers were given such an opportunity to talk, they typically used it, giving the lie to the stereotype of the reticent Singapore student, as well as to the assumption that student talk is inhibited by fears of assessment. Such supervisors used a range of skills such as openended questions, 'wait time', and prompts such as, "Did you consider other ways of doing that ?" , "Why did you choose to do that in this way ?". Above all, they seemed to value the relevance of what the student teacher had to say.

As might be expected, university supervisors were more skilled in conducting conferences, though we did find some cooperating teachers who were equally skillful. This is to be expected, of course, as CTs for the most part were not trained in supervision skills, and, in any case, did not see lesson conferencing as their main role. Nevertheless, differences in training cannot explain the overall pattern of telling and closure that we have identified. It is likely that a combination of reasons accounts for this, particularly variations in conferencing skill, a commitment to dialogue, as well as the management of large supervision loads and teaching commitments.

## FOOTNOTE

1. To date, however, we have not been able to study how the number and quality of points remembered might be related to variations in the style and length of conferences.

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