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CASE-BASED LEARNING AND THE CONSTRUCTION OF PROFESSIONAL PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

Towards the end of the twentieth century, educational research was placing increased emphasis on the cognitive aspects of teaching. This has led to a recognition of the fact that, as thinkers and decision makers, teachers are constantly constructing their own unique knowledge about their practice. This unique and very personal form of teacher knowledge has been given various names by different researchers but will be referred to here as professional practical knowledge (PPK) (Coleman 1993).

There are a number of strategies which teacher educators may find useful in assisting teachers to examine and enhance their own PPK development. It was the purpose of the present research to focus on one of these strategies, namely, case-based approaches to learning. To explore the relationship between the use of case methods and the construction of PPK, a case study was conducted with a group of student teachers in the University of Sydney’s Master of Teaching (M.Teach) program which makes use of case methods. The study was concerned with a specific period, in the teacher education program, during which the participants analysed cases written by practising teachers and wrote their own case stories in conjunction with their first practicum experience.

The study raised a number of important questions about the use of cases in teacher education and, consequently, pointed to some aspects of case methodology worthy
of further investigation. These included: the types of cases to be used; the timing of their use during a teacher education program; the subject matter of cases; the assessment of students' work with cases; the enhancement of case-based learning as a collaborative activity; and the influence of an individual's personal background and thought processes on their ability to learn from cases.

From the data collected in this research project, it can be claimed that case-based learning can be a useful component of a teacher education program which is based on a constructivist view of knowledge. As such it is worthy of further development by attention to those areas of concern mentioned above.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The staff and students in the Master of Teaching (M.Teach) program at the University of Sydney formed the context within which this research took place. Their continuing interest and encouragement have been most appreciated. In particular, I wish to acknowledge the very special group of six student teachers, known only by pseudonyms in the following pages, who participated in the research. I thank them most sincerely for the generosity with which they shared their thoughts and feelings at a very sensitive time in their development as teachers.

An important and recurring theme in this dissertation is the way in which our professional work, as educators, is strongly influenced by the quality of our personal lives. In this respect I am indebted to my wife, Nancy, for her love and support over many years and to my family and friends, all of whom are a constant source of inspiration.

Colin Bishop.
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INRODUCTION

In recent years there has been increasing interest in research into various aspects of teacher behaviour and its effect on the school curriculum. This possibly reflects changing attitudes to curriculum and the role of the teacher. Whereas curriculum was once seen in a narrow way as content that was given and simply implemented within the classroom, there was, by the 1960's, a growing feeling that "...many decisions which shape the functioning curriculum are made by local schools and by teachers, either in groups or individually" (Taba 1962, p. 7). This trend towards teacher involvement in curriculum development became evident in NSW during the 1970's and continued into the 1980's. New approaches to curriculum design have tended to be less prescriptive in nature, allowing the individual teacher room to interpret and adapt curriculum content to the needs of a particular class and the individuals within it.

Even with the current moves towards a more central approach to curriculum design in the UK, the USA and Australia, there is still acceptance that the individual teacher has an important contribution to make in adapting the curriculum to local needs. Changing perceptions of the teacher's role have led to considerable progress in the development of teaching as a profession. It is no longer acceptable to think of teaching as some kind of trade which simply requires of its practitioners the learning of a repertoire of technical procedures for implementing the plans of others and responding to the various problems that may arise in the classroom. In
this context, there has been a heightened awareness of the teacher's role as a thinker and decision maker. As Lamm states:

The teacher's role is not specific to his profession. What is specific to the profession of teaching is the nature of the considerations that lead to the teacher's actions....and such considerations constitute the sole professional component of instruction (cited in Parker 1985, p. 3).

It has also been said that "...mental planning is probably the part of teaching that has the potential for being the most professional part of teaching, for it gives teachers the opportunity to relate theoretical knowledge to particular cases" (McCutcheon cited in Borko and Shavelson 1990, p. 318). One aspect of teachers' mental planning and thinking that has attracted attention is teacher decision making (see Shavelson and Stern 1981; Clark and Peterson 1986 for detailed accounts) and it can be said that this focus "...represents a shift from concern with observed teacher behaviour to an emphasis upon determinants of that behaviour" (Semmel 1977, p. 2).

Such attitudes to the role of the teacher will have important implications for teacher education and it is within this context that the present study has been conducted. Before discussing the nature of the study, it is appropriate to review the various assumptions, about teaching and learning, on which it was founded. These assumptions relate to the nature of teachers' work; the way in which teachers accumulate the large and varied store of knowledge which enables them to carry out their task; and the role of teacher education programs in preparing prospective
teachers.

With regard to the work of teachers, it is assumed that teachers are more than transmitters of knowledge. They also have a responsibility to equip students with the necessary skills for lifelong learning. Acceptance of this view of teachers' work in recent years has led to increasing attention to the role of teachers as decision makers who are daily faced with many complex situations involving students, colleagues, parents and the wider community. Adding to this complexity is the fact that students, as active participants in the learning process, will be making their own decisions. This leads to the assumption that, in such a dynamic environment, no situation will ever repeat itself exactly. Hence, teachers are constantly using their experiences to construct new knowledge in order to make sense of the events and tasks with which they are confronted in the classroom.

This developmental model implies a constructivist view of knowledge, which regards teachers as learners who are continually constructing knowledge from their own experiences (Boud, Cohen et al. 1993 p. 10). Such areas of knowledge as content knowledge, curriculum knowledge and pedagogical knowledge are important and, to a large extent, can be passed on to students by teacher educators. However, it is what is done with such knowledge by the practitioners, within the context of their own past, present and future experience, in their own teaching situations, that will determine the way in which they construct their professional practical knowledge (PPK). Thus, it is contended that teachers are doing more than
processing information from various knowledge sources. They are, in fact, constructing a legitimate body of specialised knowledge peculiar to their professional needs.

Linked with the above assumptions about teachers and their knowledge are certain assumptions about the role of teacher education in the preparation of teachers. It will be assumed, in the discussions that follow, that there is no complete body of knowledge which is sufficient, in itself, to send the novice teacher into the field, fully equipped for a lifetime of teaching. Because of a commitment to the concept of constructivism, it will be further assumed that the proper role of teacher educators is to prepare their students to be reflective practitioners who are constantly interacting with, and interpreting their work environment to construct practical knowledge which is compatible with their own past experiences, their present context and their perception of the future. This approach will, hopefully, help beginning teachers to develop the skills needed for dealing with the complexity and uncertainty of classroom life. Another assumption to be made here is that those working in the field of teacher education will demonstrate a willingness to value the practical aspects of teaching as a legitimate source of knowledge.

The present study seeks to examine one particular way in which teacher educators might prepare novice teachers within the context of the above assumptions. In 1996 a new teacher education program, the Master of Teaching (M.Teach), was
introduced in the Faculty of Education at the University of Sydney in an effort to take account of current research into teaching practice. One important feature of the program was the use of case-based learning and the research project which is to be described here sought to examine the connections that might exist between the use of case methods and the construction, by novices, of PPK.

Thus, the material which follows is divided into three sections. Section One examines the available literature in two specific areas of interest. The first of these (Chapter One) concerns The Professional Practical Knowledge (PPK) of Teachers. The second (Chapter Two) reviews the development of Case-based Approaches to Teacher Education.

Section Two contains three chapters describing the research project which sought to explore the relationship between the use of case methods in teacher education and the construction of PPK. The first of these (Chapter Three) is entitled: Research Project and Methodology. This is followed by two chapters detailing and analysing data as follows: Analysis of Interviews (Chapter Four) and Analysis of Documents (Chapter Five).

Section Three outlines the conclusions reached from the study of data and includes two chapters: Outcomes and Interpretation of the Research (Chapter Six) and Implications and Recommendations (Chapter Seven). Because of the complexity of the subject being studied and the nature of the research project, which involved
a small sample of student teachers, no definitive conclusions can be expected. The intention is to contribute to the ongoing research into the use of case methods in teacher education.
SECTION ONE

Literature Reviews
CHAPTER ONE
THE PROFESSIONAL PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE
OF TEACHERS

There is continuing debate, within the education community, about what teachers
should know. This has been of particular concern to teacher educators as they seek
to agree on an appropriate knowledge base for beginning teachers (Shulman 1987;
Calderhead 1988; Reynolds 1989; Donmoyer 1996). If the goal of such a
knowledge base is achievable, it has certainly proved to be an elusive one.

It could be argued that there are two reasons why the defining of a knowledge base
has been so difficult. The first reason is the complexity of the role of teachers,
whose work is not only affected by what happens in the classroom and by their
interaction with students but involves interaction with all aspects of the school and
its community (Turney, Eltis et al. 1986).

Secondly, there is the influence of current thinking about the nature of knowledge
itself. For much of the twentieth century, training institutions were affected by the
dominance of the scientific method in educational research. Such thinking
supported a social engineering approach and reflected the perception that teachers
were somewhat passive workers in "education factories" (Donmoyer 1996, p. 94).
With reference to school curriculum, Elbaz lamented that: "...the active role of the
teacher in the creation of new institutional arrangements is denied, but the teacher
is credited with a generous share of responsibility for failure" (Elbaz 1981, p. 44). It was assumed that the tertiary institution could best equip prospective teachers by providing them with the latest information on educational research and suggestions as to how this might best be put into practice in the classroom. Such an approach led to the commonly held belief that the training institutions were too remote from the 'real world' of teaching in the classroom and that professional training was of little value (Calderhead 1988, p. 53). Consequently, it is not uncommon for novices to be told to forget what they have learnt at university and learn, on the job, what teaching is all about.

In recent years there has been a shift in thinking about the whole concept of knowledge and, in particular, those forms of knowledge that are important for teachers and members of other professions which involve a continual process of decision-making, reflection and re-thinking of policies and procedures. Various epistemological models have been developed (Hofer and Pintrich 1997), which attempt to explain various ways of knowing. Current trends towards a constructivist view of knowledge (Phillips 1995) can be considered highly relevant to the teaching profession, confirming a view that knowledge of teaching, like teaching itself, is highly dependent on situational and contextual influences peculiar to the individual.

The changes in the teacher's perceived role and the advent of constructivism have led many teacher educators to accept that the practical aspects of teaching are not merely the application of knowledge but are, in fact, part of the teacher's learning
experience. Consequently there is growing acknowledgement of the importance of the practical knowledge that is constructed throughout the working life of the classroom teacher. This, in turn, implies that teacher preparation programs need to prepare prospective teachers in a different way.

It is the purpose of this chapter to examine the nature of teachers' professional practical knowledge with reference to relevant research literature and to consider its implications for teacher education. Before beginning this task, however, it is necessary to clarify the terminology to be used and to discuss certain assumptions underlying this review.

**TERMINOLOGY AND ASSUMPTIONS**

A decision has been made here to use the term professional practical knowledge (PPK) (Coleman 1993), although there are various terms used by different authors to refer to the type of knowledge which is grounded in practice. These include: practical knowledge (Calderhead 1988; Fenstermacher 1994; Francis 1995), teacher practical knowledge (Duffee and Aikenhead 1992; Mayer 1994), personal practical knowledge (Connelly and Clandinin 1985; Clandinin 1986; Clandinin and Connelly 1986), craft knowledge (Tom 1984; Grimmett and Mackinnon 1992) and knowing-in-action (Schon 1987).

Because of the ways in which the various writers approach the subject, it cannot be said that the above terms all have the same meaning. For example,
Fenstermacher makes a distinction between two different approaches to research in this field (Fenstermacher 1994), one which sees the practical knowledge of teachers revealed through narrative and story (Elbaz 1981; Connelly, Clandinin et al. 1997) and one which looks at this knowledge within the context of action (Schon 1987; Grimmett and Mackinnon 1992). Such differences of approach are to be expected when dealing with the somewhat nebulous concept of PPK. For the purposes of the present exercise, the contributions of the various authors mentioned above will be drawn upon and, in each case, the author's chosen term for this type of knowledge will be recognised.

The term, PPK, has been chosen for the following reasons. It is felt that it adequately encompasses the varying viewpoints about the peculiar type of practical knowledge that teachers construct during their working lives. The word "professional" is included to indicate a belief that teaching is a professional pursuit, in the sense that its practitioners are required to have cognitive skills and that their daily activity includes a great deal of thinking and decision making. In the words of Gardiner:

> Knowledgeable teachers are not technicians, but professionals, worthy and able to make reflective decisions or judgments and plans based upon principled knowledge that is applied to the particulars of their teaching situations, their students, their unique experiences, and their own special insights, self-knowledge, values and commitments (cited in Reynolds 1989, p. x).

In addition to this professional orientation, the knowledge is also embedded in practice. It has been suggested that: "Teachers are active agents with many instructional techniques at their disposal to help students reach some goal. In order
to choose from this repertoire, they must integrate a large amount of information
about students from a variety of sources" (Shavelson and Stern 1981, p. 472). The
use of the word "practical" between "professional" and "knowledge" hopefully
conveys some sense of the dynamic nature of what teachers know. In this way,
teaching is being recognised as an ongoing, evolving process which encompasses
such concepts as knowing, acting, reacting, anticipating, reflecting, being and
doing, all taking place in response to rapidly changing situations in specific
contexts.

Given such assumptions as these, why not simply talk about professional practical
ways of knowing, or use such expressions as "knowing-in-action" and "knowing-in-
practice" (Schon 1987), rather than knowledge? The word "knowledge", in the
concept used for the current study, has been included for the same reason as that
advanced by Elbaz, who stated:

"practical knowledge", rather than practical reasoning or practical
knowing was spoken of, despite an obvious emphasis on the
process of acquiring, holding and using knowledge, because it was
felt that the interests of teachers as autonomous, knowledgeable
decision makers within the educational context would be better
served by focusing on knowledge as product, since this allows us to
situate teachers' knowledge within the prevailing view of
knowledge (Elbaz 1981, p. 67).

Thus, it is contended that teachers are doing more than processing information
from various knowledge sources. They are, in fact, constructing a legitimate body
of specialised knowledge peculiar to their professional needs.

Finally, in talking about PPK, it is the intention of the writer to convey a feeling
that practical knowledge is not some discrete entity, owned by practitioners, which is separate from, and often seen in competition with, scientific or academic knowledge. Instead it is a composite of many forms of knowledge, tested in practice and directed to the achievement of professional ends. This is in keeping with Yeatman's comment that: "A good practitioner is someone who intelligently operates an epistemological kaleidoscope constituted by different types of knowledge input" (Yeatman 1996, p. 289).

From the above observations, it will be clear that PPK does not easily lend itself to description and analysis. To do justice to the complexity of the subject of our inquiry, and to better understand it, we must not only consider what it is and how it is recognised but also take account of the dynamic forces at work which have bearing upon, and are influenced by, PPK.

By reviewing the work of various writers, who have sought to understand the complexities of teachers' professional practical knowledge, an attempt will now be made to consider the nature of PPK, contributing factors in its construction and ways in which such knowledge might be enhanced. It will then be possible to discuss these various aspects of PPK in terms of their implications for teacher education, professional development and the evaluation of teachers.

**THE NATURE OF PPK**

Whilst it is possible to talk of PPK as an entity, that entity cannot be separated
from the dynamic forces which both create and transform it over time. It is, in the words of Coleman, "...the inseparable combination of thoughts and actions that comprise professional practice" and is "...composed of observable actions and invisible knowledge." (Coleman 1993, p. 2).

It is not surprising that most writers seem to avoid giving a definitive explanation of PPK, although most would seem to agree with the suggestion that this type of knowledge "...is not something objective and independent of the teacher to be learned and transmitted but, rather, is the sum total of the teacher's experiences" (Connelly, Clandinin et al. 1997, p. 666). As Elbaz has observed:

> It is not difficult to define practical knowledge negatively, in terms of qualities it would seem to lack. It should not, we expect, be ordered in terms of the rigorous logic and propositional structure of theoretical knowledge, for example. It is more difficult, but clearly more important, to define teachers' knowledge positively, in terms of those features which enable teachers to deal with practice (Elbaz 1981, pp. 60-61).

Calderhead, talking of practical knowledge, provides an acceptable but somewhat general definition by stating that: "It is knowledge that is readily accessible and applicable to coping with real life situations, and is largely derived from teachers' own classroom experience" (Calderhead 1988, p. 54). Most other writers tend to assume that their readers know what this type of knowledge is or confine themselves to discussing ways in which it manifests itself.

In the light of such comments as those cited above and as a basis for the present
research project, PPK might be defined in the following way. For the professional practitioner, PPK is represented by the way in which multiple inputs of knowledge and experience are brought together and made meaningful in a given context. It is working knowledge which is unique to each individual and which is continuously subject to revision and modification. Thus, although PPK is used to inform practice, its own construction is also influenced by that practice.

A survey of the literature would lead the present writer to conclude that PPK can be looked at from four viewpoints or orientations. PPK has a relationship to other forms of knowledge; it is related to personal experience; it is strongly influenced by the context within which it takes place; and it cannot be separated from the thought processes of the knower. These orientations will now be considered.

**PPK and Other Forms of Knowledge**

In the broadest sense, it might be tempting to suggest that a teacher's PPK is made up of everything the teacher knows. For example, Shulman, seeking to identify the whole range of inputs that constitute a teacher's knowledge base, refers to: "content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, as well as their philosophical and historical grounds" (Shulman 1987, p. 8). All of these knowledge inputs are undoubtedly important in the construction of PPK. However, it can be argued that PPK is more than the sum
As Grimmett and Mackinnon rightly point out, one of the above types of knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, stands out as different from the others. They suggest that this and another category, which they call pedagogical learner knowledge, form what they refer to as craft knowledge. (Grimmett and Mackinnon 1992, p. 387). They liken this to "...a 'glue' that brings all the knowledge bases to bear on the act of teaching" (Grimmett and Mackinnon 1992, p. 387).

Unfortunately, this analogy hardly goes far enough in describing the complexity of a teacher's PPK. A teacher is doing more than simply sticking together different types of knowledge and PPK appears to be more than an amalgam of pedagogical content knowledge and pedagogical learner knowledge. These two types of knowledge certainly provide evidence of a teacher's PPK in action, for they emphasise the notion that a teacher's knowledge about the teaching/learning process, coupled with pedagogical skill, is brought to bear on knowledge about course content, on the one hand, and learners, on the other, in order to inform practice.

In considering the relationship of PPK to other forms of knowledge, it can be claimed that inputs of knowledge from all sources are important but not sufficient in order to explain what it is that teachers know. The active ingredient in PPK is the effort made by practitioners to make sense of knowledge and context based on personal experience.
PPK and Personal Experience

It cannot be denied that the various types of knowledge, about all aspects of the teaching profession, are important. More important, however, is the way in which the many knowledge inputs interact with one another, in the light of personal experience, to form a special kind of knowledge that is peculiar to the individual.

In attempting to explain the structure of practical knowledge, Elbaz developed three terms: rule of practice, practical principle and image. The first refers to the development of set rules or routines for dealing with frequently encountered situations. The second implies the handling of unexpected problems in the light of past experience. The third term, image, is the most personal and value-laden of the three. It refers to the way in which "...the teacher's feelings, values, needs and beliefs combine as she formulates brief metaphoric statements of how teaching should be and marshals experience, theoretical knowledge, and school folklore to give substance to these images. Images serve to guide the teacher's thinking and to organize knowledge in the relevant area" (Elbaz 1981, p. 61).

This approach has been further developed by Connelly, Clandinin and He. They have adopted eight conceptual terms. In addition to those used by Elbaz - image, rules and practical principles - they refer to "...personal philosophy, metaphor, cycles, rhythms and narrative unities" (Connelly, Clandinin et al. 1997, p. 668). Thus, the construction of PPK is heavily influenced by personal factors which render this form of knowledge unique to the individual teacher.
Another important point to make about the experiential nature of PPK is its relationship to time for, in talking about the experience of the individual practitioner, it is necessary to be aware not only of past experience and the present situation but also the future expectations that these experiences engender. Thus, it has been said that personal practical knowledge is: "...a particular way of reconstructing the past and the intentions of the future to deal with the exigencies of a present situation" (Connelly, Clandinin et al. 1997, p. 66).

This element of time has been demonstrated in research by Duffee and Aikenhead who state that: "...teacher practical knowledge has three major components: (1) teachers' past experiences; (2) teachers' current teaching situation; and (3) teachers' visions of how the teaching situation should be" (Duffee and Aikenhead 1992, p. 495). In a study of the methods employed by six science teachers to evaluate students' knowledge, they found that the approach used by each teacher reflected "...the beliefs, values and personal visions" of that teacher. They also concluded that: "...teachers' understanding of student assessment develops over time from personal experiences such as teaching experience of personal evaluations, family influences and interaction with colleagues" (Duffee and Aikenhead 1992, pp. 503-504).

Having acknowledged that past and present experience together with future expectations all play a part in the construction of PPK, it must be emphasised that it is the present situation that ultimately determines the state of this knowledge at any particular time.
PPK and Context

A teacher's PPK cannot be fully understood unless we take into account the context within which its construction is taking place. In talking about the "interaction" aspect of teachers' knowledge, Elbaz points out that: "...teachers' knowledge is based on, and shaped by, a variety of interactions with others in their environment - teachers, students, administrators, the prevailing social ethos..." (Elbaz 1981, p. 47).

This view of PPK emphasises its pragmatic nature. It is knowledge which is constantly being constructed, re-examined and re-constructed in order to deal with the complexities of everyday life in the workplace. As a result, the teacher's PPK, at any given time will be shaped by the particular context within which it is being used. This also leads to a fourth view of PPK, one which takes account of the important role played by the thought processes of the practitioner.

PPK and Thought Processes

PPK is the knowledge that teachers possess, as a result of their own active modification of many inputs of knowledge and experience, through the use of their thinking, decision-making and reflecting skills. In this way it is more related to what Shulman calls: "...the wisdom of practice itself, the maxims that guide (or provide reflective rationalization for) the practice of able teachers" (Shulman 1987, p. 11).
Grimmett and Mackinnon, who prefer the term "craft knowledge" (Grimmett and Mackinnon 1992), liken it to the concept of "implicit theory" put forward by Clark and Peterson when discussing research into teacher thinking (Clark and Peterson 1986, pp. 289-292). This view is echoed by Duffee and Aikenhead who also refer to implicit theory and state that: "The interactive elements of knowing, feeling, judging, and action comprise teacher practical knowledge" (Duffee and Aikenhead 1992, p. 494). Such observations as these are significant as they highlight the extent to which studies of teacher thinking have tended to dominate research into teaching in recent years (Donmoyer 1996, p. 97).

Based on the various interpretations of the practical aspects of teachers' knowledge, outlined above, the principal characteristic of PPK would appear to be its intensely personal and idiosyncratic nature. All teachers possess PPK but that knowledge is specific to each individual. This might lead us to wonder if a concept such has PPK has any value at all in research. It would appear that there are as many forms of PPK as there are teachers and that, for each teacher, PPK will be constantly changing over time. How, then, can we hope to study it, evaluate it or generate teacher education programs that have relevance for the everyday life of the teacher?

Two important points can be made in answer to this question. Firstly, the question itself implies an assumption that teaching is a technical operation in which the same methods will work equally well for all students and all teachers. This is an assumption which appears to underlie many well-meaning attempts at education
reform, including research that seeks to define "best practice" in the sphere of school improvement. Shulman, for example, makes a plea for an effort by the research community "...to work with practitioners to develop codified representations of the practical pedagogical wisdom of able teachers" (Shulman 1987, p. 11) and refers to the way in which such diverse occupations and pastimes as architecture, law, medicine, chess, bridge and ballet have all developed their own ways of codifying and recording significant creative achievements (Shulman 1987, p. 12). However, we must not overlook the fact that uniqueness of practice is a distinguishing characteristic of the teaching profession (Kagan 1993, p. 706). This is not to say that examples of "best practice" do not have their place but such examples need to be acknowledged as illustrating what specific individuals found to be best for them in specific contexts.

The second point to be made is that, although we cannot get in the mind of the individual teacher or collectively talk about the PPK of teachers, we are in a position to understand something of the many contributing factors (including other types of knowledge and ways of responding to that knowledge) that influence individual teachers in their construction of PPK. It will be argued here that one of the limiting factors in many teacher education programs of the past is that they have been too selective in deciding which of these factors are important. In the next section of this chapter, the wide range of contributing factors will be canvassed in order to shed more light on the complexities of a teacher's PPK.
CONTRIBUTING FACTORS IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF PPK

Before considering what are being called "contributing factors", there is need for a word of caution. The terminology being employed here runs the risk of being far too simplistic. It is not the intention of the present writer to infer that there is a one-way cause and effect relationship between the various types of knowledge, mentioned below, and PPK. On the contrary, the relationship is much more complex. The teacher's own personal practical knowledge is, itself, part of what has been called the "professional knowledge landscape" (Clandinin and Connelly 1995, p. 10). Thus, a teacher's PPK is not an end-product resulting from the pressure of outside forces. It is also an active part of the process, helping to determine which of the many inputs of knowledge are accepted (or rejected) and the extent to which they are modified.

In studying the work of exemplary teachers, Collinson talks of a "triad of knowledge" (Collinson 1996; Collinson 1996a), which consists of professional knowledge, interpersonal knowledge and intrapersonal knowledge. This would appear to be a useful organising framework within which to discuss the diverse forms of knowledge that contribute to the construction of a teacher's PPK. Another important aspect of that construction, of course, is the process whereby the teacher justifies and reflects upon the developing PPK. It will be argued that this process may be facilitated by the use of practical reasoning, as advocated by a number of writers (Feldman 1992; Noel 1993; Fenstermacher 1994; Donmoyer 1996). The concept of practical reasoning will be considered after the three forms of
knowledge, mentioned above, have been discussed.

**Professional Knowledge**

Professional knowledge includes those types of knowledge that are considered basic to the role of the teacher (Collinson 1996). These would include subject knowledge, curricular knowledge (together with knowledge of underlying policies and rules of practice) and pedagogical knowledge. All teachers need to have a basic grounding in these areas and it is to be expected that their professional practical knowledge will be intricately woven around this knowledge. This type of knowledge has never been neglected by training institutions and there can be little argument with the need for teachers to have knowledge of this kind as a background to their teaching practice.

In discussing this type of knowledge, Shulman has emphasised the need for balance between subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge in teacher education (Shulman 1986). He was particularly critical of what, in the USA at least, was seen to be a tendency in the 1980's for education authorities to stress pedagogical skill, at the expense of content knowledge, when assessing teachers. Whether the problem was as bad as he implied is open to debate. It is probably fair to say that what was happening at the time was an attempt to redress a past over-emphasis on subject knowledge. However, there can be little argument with Shulman's call for a balanced approach.
The main problem associated with professional knowledge is that there has often been an assumption that it is sufficient, in itself, as a knowledge base for good teaching. As Collinson points out:

There is nothing magical about this form of knowledge; it has long been the mainstay of teachers colleges and is a necessary foundation for good teaching. What it has come to represent, however, particularly through workshops for inservice teachers, is a technical, "how to" version of knowledge that has lulled us into thinking that teaching is less complex than it really is and that professional knowledge is sufficient to produce excellent teachers (Collinson 1996, pp. 2-3).

When professional knowledge is treated in this way it is little wonder that teachers will find it difficult to relate this kind of knowledge to their everyday practice. The ideal would be, of course, that professional knowledge is seen as an important contributor to the construction of PPK. Why, then, is this not always apparent?

Much of what can be considered as professional knowledge will be theoretical knowledge. As Clandinin and Connelly point out, however, this is often no more than the codified outcomes of theoretical inquiry, stripped of any understanding of the inquiry which gave rise to such outcomes (Clandinin and Connelly 1995, p. 7). What remains is, to use a term borrowed from Schwab, a "rhetoric of conclusions" (cited in Clandinin and Connelly 1995, p. 8). They go on to claim that a similar situation arises in the passing on of policy, which can also be considered an important component of a teacher's professional knowledge. By the time policies reach the practising teacher, they are merely codifications of directives, stripped of their "deliberative origins" (Clandinin and Connelly 1995, p. 8).
Concerns such as those expressed above make it easier to see why it is so difficult to agree on a knowledge base for teachers. If it were possible to codify all the necessary information about what should be taught and how it should be taught by all teachers to all students, the process would be simple. Of course, it is quite ludicrous to even contemplate such a situation. Knowledge is not static. Teachers are not all alike. Students are not all alike. Teaching and learning are intensely personal acts. They do not simply rely on the transmission of absolute knowledge from one person to another. Therefore, whilst acknowledging the necessity for teachers to have access to a wealth of professional knowledge about subject matter, curriculum, pedagogy and the policies of the organisation within which they work, it is important, also, to take account of those types of knowledge that are personal to the individual and play an integral part in the framing of a teacher's PPK. It is to such areas of personal knowledge - interpersonal and intrapersonal - that we now turn.

**Interpersonal Knowledge**

Probably the aspect of teaching that most complicates any discussion about teacher knowledge is the complexity of interrelationships that exists within the school community. This community includes not only the teachers and administrators, students and their parents and guardians but, also, all those who have, or believe they have, a stake in the operations of the school system. In such an environment, teachers require highly developed interpersonal and communication skills. These skills are part of what Collinson refers to as interpersonal knowledge and, as she
points out, "...this form of knowledge is more complex than a simple set of people skills; it involves maturity and wisdom" (Collinson 1996, p. 3).

The interrelationships that exist between teachers and their students are obviously of great importance and the quality of teachers' learner knowledge will determine their success in managing this aspect of their work. There are, of course, at least two types of learner knowledge. One of these, general knowledge about students at various stages of their development and the ways in which they learn, fits more comfortably into the category of professional knowledge. However, the more specific knowledge about students in one's own class, or students with whom the teacher comes in contact during the course of the school day, is an important part of a teacher's interpersonal knowledge.

In studying the work of highly effective teachers (Mayer 1994; Mayer and Marland 1997), Mayer and Marland found that a feature of the teachers' work was their fund of knowledge about individual students. This knowledge covered such areas as: work habits/attitudes; abilities; previous schooling; personality; family background; playground behaviour; and peer relationships (Mayer and Marland 1997, pp. 26-27). Also of interest was the variety of techniques used by the teachers to learn more about their students. These included: intuition, informal contact with parents including both talking with parents and observing them with their children, consulting records, conducting parent interviews, conducting private conferences with students, group discussions, reading checks with individual students (students read aloud to the teacher before school), home visits,
conversations with colleagues and working with students - observing, talking and checking work (Mayer and Marland 1997, p. 28).

The study went on to show the way in which the learner knowledge obtained by these strategies was utilised in the classroom. Teachers reported that it had a bearing on such areas as: lesson planning, grouping of students, catering for individual needs and classroom management. One teacher also reported that this knowledge had an influence on her expectations of student achievement (Mayer and Marland 1997, pp. 28-31). Thus, it is clear that once the teachers concerned had built up a strong body of learner knowledge they were able to use this knowledge and their existing pedagogical knowledge to construct pedagogical learner knowledge, previously identified as an important aspect of PPK.

In the account of Mayer and Marland's study, above, it will be seen that, in their quest for information about students, the teachers also interacted with parents and colleagues. Such contact with adults is also significant in relation to a teacher's interpersonal knowledge. As Collinson points out: "Interpersonal knowledge and practice in working with parents and colleagues may have been overlooked in teacher education because teachers spend most of their time with children and traditionally plan and teach in considerable isolation from other teachers" (Collinson 1996, pp. 4-5).

The fostering of collegiality is now seen as an important part of professional development. In her study of exemplary teaching, Collinson has made the
observation that:

Some exemplary teachers, particularly those who engaged in team teaching or taught within hearing or sight of other adults (usually teachers or parent volunteers) early in their careers, realized quickly that learning from and with other adults expanded and challenged their own perspectives (Collinson 1996, p. 5).

Collinson also makes the point that teacher education has tended to neglect the development of interpersonal knowledge, apart from that which relates to communication with students (Collinson 1996, p. 4). Pointing to the need to improve communication with parents and to develop such characteristics as open-mindedness, empathy and honest communication, she suggests that the development of mature behaviour and relationships is more likely to take place if teachers are provided with plenty of opportunity to practise their interpersonal skills (Collinson 1996, p. 6).

One way of providing an opportunity for the development of interpersonal knowledge is through what have been called "knowledge communities" (Clandinin and Connelly 1995). These are small groups of teachers, who share mutual trust and respect. Such groups can become "...places where educators are vibrantly present, where their voices are unconditionally heard, where their relationships are authentic and secure" (Clandinin and Connelly 1995, p. 140). Whilst the emphasis appears to be on the ongoing professional development of practising teachers, there are obvious implications for teacher education where peer group activities and "critical friend" partnerships can have similar benefits to those mentioned above.
Also of great importance to the interpersonal knowledge of teachers is the social/political context within which they work. This might be seen within the school and local community setting in terms of social attitudes or the power structures existing within the school. In the wider community context it will include government policy as it reflects the prevailing political attitudes towards education in general. Whilst the individual teacher may have little or no personal contact with those in distant places whose political views are reflected in school policy, such people form part of what Clandinin and Connelly call the teacher's "professional knowledge landscape" (Clandinin and Connelly 1995), which must have an influence on the teacher's PPK.

In the early part of the twentieth century many educators feared the prospect of political control of education (Donmoyer 1996, p. 95). It was this fear that was partly responsible for efforts to establish the professionalism of education based on a scientific model, for professionalism and politics were seen as antithetical. The inadequacy of techno-scientific approaches to education and the growing appreciation of the complexity of the teaching profession have led to a different view. Instead, Donmoyer speaks of "knowledge as politics", in the sense that "...politics is deeply embedded in culture and the culturally sanctioned categories and conduct that members of a culture take to be natural and inevitable" (Donmoyer 1996, p. 99). Thus, politics is seen, not as the intrusive, manipulative interference feared by earlier educators but as a part of the fabric of the society within which we operate. It is, therefore, imperative that teachers be able, and willing, to take the political context into account in developing their interpersonal
knowledge and, ultimately, their PPK.

It is apparent, from the various aspects of interpersonal knowledge mentioned above, that this type of knowledge, when added to the professional knowledge of teachers, has the capacity to impact upon the construction of PPK in different ways from one teacher to another. The situation is complicated still further by the fact that each individual teacher has a unique background of personal knowledge peculiar to that teacher. This is the third type of knowledge in Collinson's triad and is referred to as "intrapersonal knowledge" (Collinson 1996, pp. 6-9).

**Intrapersonal Knowledge**

As described by Collinson, intrapersonal knowledge "...emphasises understanding of oneself and the capacity for introspection and reflection" (Collinson 1996, p. 6). Such knowledge is, arguably, of great significance in the construction of PPK. It is, for the most part, concerned with the teacher's tacit knowledge (Polanyi 1973) and is related to those predispositions, prejudices, assumptions and attitudes that shape us as individuals.

These aspects of knowledge are often difficult to identify and can be so much a part of the individual's nature as to be unrecognised even by the knower. According to Collinson "...this form of knowledge appears to be the least studied in the triad of knowledge"(Collinson 1996, p. 67). Although this may be the case, it must be acknowledged that there is a growing body of literature on teachers'
beliefs (O'Loughlin 1990) and teachers' thinking (Clark and Peterson 1986).

The development of a teacher's intrapersonal knowledge will involve dealing with such issues as morality, ethics and deep seated attitudes to life in general and teaching in particular. Teaching has been described as a moral activity (Tom 1984; Feldman 1992; Grimmett and Mackinnon 1992; Sockeyt 1993) and Collinson reports that:

"Exemplary teachers routinely mention certain dispositions and ethics that are important to them and that have contributed to their quality of life. In addition to having a disposition toward continuous learning, they are reflective, have a well developed ethic of care, and a strong work ethic" (Collinson 1996, p. 6).

This observation leads her to complain about the lack of provision in teacher training courses for the development of the dispositions and ethics of beginning teachers (Collinson 1996, p. 7; Collinson, 1996a, p. 67). Whilst Collinson does not specifically state how such development might be incorporated in a teacher education program, she does go on to discuss a number of dispositions and ethics espoused by exemplary teachers and reaches the conclusion that these are associated with "...their capacity for habitual and deliberate reflection" (Collinson 1996, p. 8) and points out that reflection is not "...an exclusively intellectual process devoid of emotion" (Collinson, 1996a, p. 68). If it can be inferred from this that the encouragement of reflective practice is being advocated as a way of developing intrapersonal knowledge, then it must be pointed out that there are instances of such an approach being used (Hatton and Smith 1995; Smith 1999). Whatever methods are used in teacher education to develop intrapersonal
knowledge, however, there is evidence that the beliefs of teachers are not easily influenced (O'Loughlin 1990; Anderson and Bird 1995).

As difficult as it may be, it does seem to be very important that teachers should be aware of their own origins, beliefs and dispositions to the extent that they are willing to question the ways in which these affect their approach to the moral craft of teaching. In her book "Teaching as Learning", McNiff gives an interesting and highly personal account of her search for an "epistemology of practice" (McNiff 1993, pp. 58-60). Critical of attempts to improve practice through a social science approach, she prefers to regard the improvement of practice as a personal exercise. This leads her to the conclusion that:

What is at the foundation of our intentional educational practice is love - that is, care, understanding, commitment. In my desire to realise my own potential I treat myself with care; in my desire to help others realise their potential, I treat them in the same way. My intentions are those of best interest; my aim is the best interest of those in my care. My educational practices blend and merge with my social practices. Mine is an educational epistemology of practice which is based on a personal epistemology of love (McNiff 1993, p. 60).

In keeping with this emphasis on the personal qualities of the teacher, Hansen (Grimmett 1997) calls for teaching to be regarded as a vocation or calling. It is claimed that vocation has five dimensions, namely: "public service and personal fulfilment, being an architect, attention to details, uncertainty and doubt, and the intellectual and the moral" (Grimmett 1997, p. 462). Thus, the teacher is more than a functionary or bureaucrat carrying out routine tasks. By investing their work with such personal qualities as commitment, reflection, courage and faith
teachers approach their work as a vocation and "The intellectual and moral dimensions of vocation imply that teaching is always and at once both an intellectual and a moral endeavour" (Grimmett 1997, p. 463). It is interesting that, although the concept of vocation is traditionally seen as a characteristic of a profession, Hansen (and Grimmett) would distinguish between the two, being quite critical of attempts to professionalise teaching. Their criticism seems to be based on a somewhat jaundiced view of professionalism. It is, for example, possible to argue that a profession can be based on moral constraints (Sockett 1993), to the extent that it might satisfy Hansen's definition of a vocation.

The importance of a teacher's personal qualities has long been acknowledged. However, in the past this has led to research efforts which sought to show some direct link between those personal qualities and teacher effectiveness (Dunkin 1987, pp. 585-624). Attempts to link the effectiveness of teachers with such personal attributes as personality, gender and cultural or social background have not been successful. The failure of such studies has been due, in part, to the difficulty of accurately defining the characteristics being studied and, also, to the fact that effective teaching is, itself, a far from simple concept.

Rather than concern themselves with attempting to determine what qualities "make" a good teacher, researchers would be better advised to look at those processes that teachers use to construct, for themselves, exemplary teaching practices by building upon a whole range of different personal characteristics. There are many fine teachers who would be judged, by any standard, as highly
effective, who bear little resemblance to each other in personality or background. Their effectiveness is determined, not by their personal qualities alone, but by the way in which they have constructed a PPK which makes sense of input from all directions within the context of those personal qualities.

This leads us to take account of the relationship that exists between "person" and "role" in the teaching profession. Attempts to implement improvements in education often concentrate on the role of the teacher, without recognising the many different combinations of personal qualities that different teachers bring to those roles (Grimmett 1997, p. 469). There obviously need to be certain basic roles which teachers must fill, in order to carry out their duties, and it is not suggested that an individual teacher's personal qualities should take precedence over these. On the other hand, teachers cannot be expected to subjugate those inner qualities that make them, individually, into special human beings. It is the conviction of the present writer that a teacher's effectiveness is related, in no small measure, to the way in which role and person are made compatible. This may require some modifications to the way in which the role is fulfilled or some fine tuning of personal attitudes and convictions. Thus, it can be argued that the quest of the teacher should be to achieve authenticity. A teacher's actions in the role of teacher should not be in conflict with that teacher's personal nature. To put it a different way, the teacher needs to "live a life that includes teaching" (Grimmett 1997, p. 469).

In summary, it can be said that all forms of knowledge, as encompassed by
professional knowledge, interpersonal knowledge and intrapersonal knowledge, are important to PPK. All are of equal importance as they interact with each other and create, for each practitioner, a unique way of dealing with the ever changing work environment.

Implicit in this argument is the notion that process is very important for PPK. From one practitioner to another the PPK which results from the integration of various knowledge inputs will differ. The challenge facing teachers is to get it "right" for them and their students. Mention has already been made of the potential for this process to be assisted by practical reasoning and that concept will now be discussed.

**Practical Reasoning**

Because of its nature, PPK is not open to the kind of scrutiny to which social scientists are accustomed. As has already been observed, much of a teacher's practical knowledge has the character of tacit knowledge (Polanyi 1973). Conventional scientific approaches to the study of teaching fail to capture this essentially personal facet of a teacher's knowledge. Therefore, it is necessary to find alternative approaches which seek to give credence to the more personal and human aspects of teaching practice. Although such approaches may lack the epistemological foundations of traditional scientific inquiry, it is possible, as Fenstermacher observes: "...to take a liberal stance on the matter of justification, such that there are a number of ways of warranting a knowledge claim"
In an effort to provide some degree of epistemic merit to the practical aspects of teacher knowledge, practical reasoning has been advocated as an appropriate vehicle for exploring what it is that teachers know (Feldman 1992; Noel 1993; Fenstermacher 1994; Donmoyer 1996). Practical reasoning, which derives from Aristotle's concept of *phronesis*, "...permits consideration of both epistemological and moral dimensions of teaching..." and is "...a means of transforming the tacit quality of a teacher's knowing to a level of awareness that opens the possibility for reflective consideration" (Fenstermacher 1994, p. 45).

Thus the practical reasoning approach has a two-fold advantage. Firstly, it provides a means by which practitioners can justify practical knowledge which, unlike scientific knowledge cannot be validated. Secondly, it promises to have a formative impact on the construction of practical knowledge by raising teachers' awareness of their own underlying assumptions and tacit knowledge and by encouraging reflection.

Whilst the use of practical reasoning seems to offer an appropriate way of dealing with practical knowledge, we need to consider certain aspects of the practical reasoning approach itself. What are the main characteristics of practical reasoning? Does the capacity for practical reasoning vary from teacher to teacher? Are there some situations in which practical reasoning does not appear to work? Can practical reasoning be taught? What types of teacher activity appear to be
useful in developing a teacher's capacity for practical reasoning and, as a result, enhancing the teacher's PPK?

Basic to practical reasoning is the practical syllogism (Feldman 1992, p. 8; Noel 1993, p. 4), which was introduced by Aristotle. Like the theoretical syllogism, it consists of a major premise, minor premise and conclusion. Whereas the theoretical syllogism deals with known facts in order to discover new truth, the practical syllogism deals with values in order to produce action (Feldman 1992, pp. 8ff.). Whilst the syllogism can be a useful means of analysis in attempting to understand teachers' thoughts and actions, Feldman argues that the concept of practical theory is more applicable as a guide to teacher behaviour (Feldman 1992, p. 11). Practical theories are: "...conceptual structures, visions, guidelines, or rules of thumb..." which guide behaviour (Feldman 1992, p. 12). Thus, practical reasoning is concerned with the construction and modification of practical theories.

Just as the practical knowledge of teachers seems to develop and grow with maturity and experience, it might be expected that the skill of practical reasoning, which helps to frame that knowledge, will also be qualitatively different in teachers of more or less expertise. Such a claim has been made by Anderson who suggests that practical reasoning develops along a continuum (Anderson 1990). On the basis of a research project which studied a group, with mixed levels of experience, working on a housing project, it was argued that three distinct stages in the development of practical reasoning could be discerned. The novice members of the group made decisions on the basis of "...surface feature-based rules..."; other,
slightly more experienced members of the group took more related factors into account when arriving at decisions: and the "expert" members of the group were able to take account of "...broad contextual, social, economic, physical, political, and cultural criteria" (Anderson 1990, p. 2).

It cannot be assumed of course that practical reasoning skill will develop at the same rate and in the same way for all practitioners. Like practical knowledge itself, the practical reasoning of a teacher has a personal quality that reflects that teacher's background and previous knowledge. Feldman asserts that some practical theories may become so entrenched in a teacher's thinking that these take on the nature of paradigms. As such, they are not readily amenable to change. It is Feldman's contention that: "...when using a practical paradigm, the practitioner selectively identifies those aspects of the context which allows (sic) him or her to use that practical paradigm even though it is inappropriate and should either be modified significantly or discarded completely" (Feldman 1992, p. 17).

This problem is approached in a different way by Pendlebury, who claims that practical reasoning can be "...logically and materially sound but inferentially and epistemically deficient" (Pendlebury 1993, p. 146). In other words, it is possible to argue in a logical way, with an apparently correct relationship between premises and conclusions but to use the argument to rationalise the beliefs of the individual concerned. Thus, for practical reasoning to play a useful part in the construction of our knowledge, it is important that we carefully examine our own strongly held beliefs and our justification for those beliefs. In a study of two teachers' practical
reasoning it was found that: "By examining their beliefs, teachers can enhance their practical reasoning" (Vasquez-Levy 1993, P. 137). However, the same researcher found that teachers' beliefs are often hidden, even from themselves.

This raises the problem that it is very difficult for us to distance ourselves from our own practice. Without being able to distance ourselves from our own actions we are not able to view those actions in a way that builds self-knowledge. Three ways of distancing have been suggested by Bengtsson. These are: self-reflection, dialogue and scientific research (Bengtsson 1995, p. 234). The first of these involves the practitioner, acting alone, to reflect upon his or her activities as object. Dialogue involves one or more others to assist in achieving the necessary distance to examine practice. In the third case, scientific research, the distance is provided by a third party who is viewing the practice as an outsider, rather than a participant. With respect to the third kind of distancing, it is not clear why Bengston feels that such distancing can only be achieved through "scientific research". For example, when a group of teachers are undertaking action research, they sometimes choose to have a critical friend or supporter, who observes and provides feedback without actually participating in the research itself. Surely this, too, is a useful way of achieving distance.

It would seem evident that distancing of one kind or another is a prerequisite for practical reasoning. This leads to the next question. Can practical reasoning be taught? In suggesting that it can, Rentel and Pinnell are of the opinion that: "...one of the major purposes of the professional component of teacher education
is (to) create settings for teaching practical reasoning..." (Rentel and Pinnell 1989 p. 7). They also make it clear that, when they talk about "teaching" they are not suggesting a simple didactic process but the use of a variety of approaches and, in particular, the creation of settings "...where complex problem solving experiences can take place" (Rentel and Pinnell 1989, p. 7). As will be discussed in Chapter 2, such an approach has been evident in recent years in the use of case-based methods in teacher education (McAntinch 1994).

Also advocating the promotion of practical reasoning in teacher education, Noel proposes a "framework of practical reasoning that can be used as a constructivist approach to encourage pre-service teachers to construct their own knowledge of teaching" (Noel 1993, p. 8). This framework includes consideration of the following issues: goals, desires, beliefs, past experiences, knowledge, emotions, intentions and present situation. However, it is emphasised that use of the framework is not intended to be prescriptive. As Noel points out:

Of crucial importance to a practical reasoning, constructivist approach to teacher education, is the avoidance of prescribing rules that must be followed by every teacher. While recommendations regarding best possible teacher practices are very common in teacher education, the view of learning and decision-making inherent in practical reasoning, constructivist teacher education will not allow the same outcomes for each teacher (Noel 1993, p. 9).

Having discussed the importance of practical reasoning and the various forms of knowledge that contribute to a teacher's PPK, it is now necessary to consider some strategies that might be used in a teacher education program to promote PPK development. In the next section of this chapter, some ways of enhancing the construction of PPK will be considered.
WAYS OF ENHANCING CONSTRUCTION OF PPK

In keeping with the complexity of PPK, there will be no single strategy that will work equally well for all teachers. Rather, teachers need to be provided with access to various ways in which their construction of PPK can be enhanced and moved forward.

Some methods which appear appropriate and which have gained popularity in recent years include: reflection, journal writing, use of narrative, participation in collegial and collaborative activities, case-based approaches to learning and action research. These methods will now be considered but it should be pointed out that, although they are being treated separately, they are often used interactively (Hatton and Smith 1995). For example, all of these methods are used in the Master of Teaching (M. Teach) program at the University of Sydney.

Reflection

Closely related to the concept of practical reasoning is the notion of reflective practice. As interest has grown in the complex nature of teachers' work, so has the interest in the use of reflection as a way of dealing with decision-making and the construction of knowledge (Schon 1983; Schon 1987; Schon 1991; Hatton and Smith 1995; Lovat and Smith 1995; Sumsion 1997; Smith 1999). Reflection can be seen as a process whereby teachers not only identify and seek solutions for problems but also add to their store of practical knowledge as a basis for future professional growth (Copeland, Birmingham et al. 1993, pp. 350ff.).

Whilst there seems to be consensus about the value of reflection as a process in
professional development, it is generally admitted that research into the operation and effectiveness of reflective practice is not conclusive (Smith 1999). It is, however, apparent that reflection can take different forms such as technical, descriptive, dialogic and critical reflection (Hatton and Smith 1995, p. 45) and that, of these, critical reflection, which is concerned with social, cultural and political issues, is the most difficult form to achieve (Day 1993, p. 85; Hatton and Smith 1995, p. 46). It certainly seems that, to be useful in the context of knowledge construction, reflection must go beyond the individual teacher thinking, in an unstructured and undisciplined way about classroom events, to a point where a teacher's reflections encounter confrontation "from self and others" (Day 1993, p. 88).

**Journal Writing**

One way of encouraging teachers and other professionals to bring more discipline and structure to their reflection is through the keeping of a journal (Street 1990; Francis 1995; Hogan 1998). This activity has been said to provide: 
"...a process for meta-theorising - for thinking about the process of thinking" (Street 1990, p. 49). In advocating the use of jounalling in teacher education Francis makes the claim that:

The journal allows pre-service teachers to determine their own focus and what they want to understand, and to have their ideas seriously valued as knowledge being personally constructed. It also permits us, as teachers, to tap the sense they are making and to engage with them as leaders, not as teachers (Francis 1995, p. 230).
The use of this method in teacher education is likely to raise some problems of implementation. For example, those taking part do not always see the relevance of the activity (Street 1990, pp. 1-2) and writing personal thoughts appears to conflict with traditional notions of academic writing, with which students are familiar (Francis 1995, p. 232). Moreover, it is not always easy to find the time, in a busy schedule, to sit and write reflectively. To overcome such problems, Francis encouraged students to link their writing with Smyth's stages of professional empowerment (Francis 1995, pp.231-232) - describing, informing, confronting and reconstructing - and set aside time in workshop sessions for written reflection. She also set the journal writing within the context of collaboration, partly through the teacher educator's non-judgemental feedback on journal entries and partly by establishing "critical friend" relationships between students to discuss their reflections (Francis 1995, pp. 231-234).

Because a journal provides a record over time, it provides an opportunity for the practitioner to look back at past journal entries and reflect upon them. Thus, in the words of Street: "Over time a narrative account emerges which transcends the 'now' of the present and reaches into the 'then' of the past to inform and interpret the personal/professional development" (Street 1990, p. 43).

Whilst journal writing can obviously be a useful tool in aiding reflection, it could be argued that not all people will find it of equal value. Because of personality or life experience, some are more likely to engage in this activity than others. In teacher education, the use to which journals are put needs to be carefully
considered and that use might need to be subject to negotiation. This is especially so with regard to the question of audience. For example, the case mentioned above, where student's journals were read and commented on by the teacher educator, appears to have worked well in that situation but such an arrangement is dependent on interpersonal relationships and demands a high level of trust.

**Narrative**

The processes of reflection and journalling are not unrelated to the notion that teachers have a strong tendency to deal with their experiences through the use of storytelling or narrative (Bruner 1985; Connelly and Clandinin 1990; Carter 1993; Clandinin and Connelly 1995). Bruner talks of two modes of thought - the paradigmatic mode and the narrative mode. Whereas the paradigmatic way of knowing is concerned with scientific inquiry and formal verification, the narrative way of knowing "...establishes not truth but truth-likeness or verisimilitude" (Bruner 1985, p. 97).

Almost by definition, the concept of narrative suggests community and accords with the view that schools should be communities of learning for teachers as well as students (Smyth 1998). The value of telling a story to oneself would appear to be somewhat limited but by telling stories to one another teachers can better explore their ways of knowing and seek feedback on and confirmation of their actions (Beattie 1997). At this point it might be appropriate to consider the value of such general concepts as collegiality and collaboration in relation to practical
reasoning and the construction of knowledge.

**Collegial and Collaborative Activities**

In the above discussion of various processes which may be expected to contribute to teachers' practical reasoning, it will be noted that there has been repeated reference to the value of making these processes a shared exercise. Even such apparently isolated pursuits as reflecting and journalling can take on a new dimension when they are used as a basis for collegial and collaborative activities (Day 1993; Francis 1995). This can lead to what Bengtsson calls "collegial knowledge" which is "...a kind of knowledge we could never get by self-reflection or by scientific research" (Bengtsson 1995, p. 235). In discussing the use of practical reasoning, Donmoyer makes the claim that:

> The practical reasoning response seems especially defensible if we conceptualize practical reasoning, in part, at least, as a public process; that is, if we assume that professionals have an obligation to make their reasoning public and to listen to and take seriously the public's response (Donmoyer 1996, p. 112).

In a footnote to the above statement, Donmoyer (1996, p. 114) acknowledges that some scholars might argue that such public practical reasoning might have gender and social-class biases, while others would question the usefulness of such communication at all. However, it is argued that the current trends towards site-based management and shared decision-making are highly compatible with this approach. It might be added that, by sharing their reflections and personal stories of teaching with colleagues and other members of the school community, teachers
are doing more than contributing to shared planning and decision-making that will contribute to the educational outcomes of students. They are also, in the process, clarifying their own thoughts and enhancing the development of their own PPK.

Case-Based Approaches to Learning

Another activity, which appears to have the power to influence the construction of PPK, is the use of cases as a vehicle through which to examine teaching practice (Shulman 1992; Kagan 1993; McAntinch 1994). This, too, is an activity that lends itself to group discussion ((Merseth 1990; Dezure 1993; Hutchings 1993; Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996).

The use of cases can be approached in two ways. The first is by analysing case stories written by others and applying the insights gained from this to our own situation (Louden and Wallace 1996). The second is by writing our own case story, based on our own experiences (an extension of the journalling and narrative approaches mentioned above), for sharing and discussion with colleagues (Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996). It seems apparent that both case analysis and case writing have the power to stimulate the practical reasoning of teachers and cause them to build on their existing knowledge. The likely connection between case methods and the construction of PPK will be addressed in greater depth in ensuing chapters.
Action Research

The concept of action research was introduced by Lewin in the 1950's. Its purpose is to enable practitioners to participate in the improvement of their own practice. As conceived by Lewin and practised by many since, action research is a cyclical process, moving through the stages of planning, acting, observing, reflecting/evaluating before further planning, acting, observing and so on (Grundy 1998, pp. 17-21).

This process has a number of characteristics which would appear to make it appropriate as a means of enhancing teachers' PPK. It is, for example, grounded in practice and carried out by teacher-researchers who are active participants in the changes that are taking place and whose personalities and backgrounds are an important and accepted part of the process. This contrasts with traditional research methods that would seek to neutralise the idiosyncratic aspects of teaching practice. Instead, action research, as Goodson has observed, makes it possible "...to assure that the 'teacher's voice' is heard, heard loudly, heard articulately" (Goodson 1985, p. 139). At the same time, action research has the power to bring about changes in the teacher-researchers themselves as they engage in the exploration of their own practice.

The term "action research" is by no means easy to define since it has progressed through a number of stages or "generations" (McTaggart 1991) and has enjoyed varying degrees of popularity with numerous interpretations (Noffke 1994). As a
result, there are differences of opinion about the way in which action research should be used. It has been suggested, by Grundy, that there are three modes of action research: technical, practical and emancipatory and these are described as follows:

In technical action research it is the 'idea' which is the source of power for action and since that 'idea' often resides with the facilitator, it is the facilitator who controls power in the project. In practical action research it is shared between a group of equal participants, but the emphasis is upon individual power for action. Power in emancipatory action research resides wholly with the group, not with the facilitator and not with the individuals within the group (Grundy 1988, p. 363).

The wording of the above quote seems to imply that emancipatory action research is the ideal. Those who promote this view (Grundy and Kemmis 1988; Kemmis and McTaggart 1988; Kemmis and McTaggart 1992; Grundy 1998), being motivated by Habermas' critical theory, consider it to be the role of action research to bring about social change. They also have strong views regarding the way in which action research is approached, claiming that the research should contain four main elements: a desire for change; collaboration by a group; observable results; and influence on a wider group of practitioners (Grundy and Kemmis 1988).

Whilst such views may be quite appropriate in meeting the needs of a particular agenda, the theoretical basis on which they are founded is not necessarily shared by all proponents of action research (Elliott 1987). In terms of the present discussion on PPK, the main motivating force for an action research project will
be the desire, on the part of a teacher or teachers, to improve practice in some way. Thus, the action research may or may not involve a group and might easily achieve its purpose without influencing a wider group of practitioners. Even the observable results may not be as expected. For example, the present writer, reporting on the results of an action research project in a school, came to the following conclusion:

If we take a narrow view and judge the success of the group in terms of its stated aim, which was to introduce integrated units of work linked to the development of writing skills, then we might conclude that the project had limited impact. However, there is much more to an action research project than its product. It could be argued that the process itself is also important. In this respect, there seems to be little doubt that the project was, in itself, a valuable learning experience for the participants (Bishop 1995, p. 17).

It might be concluded, then, that, within the context of PPK, action research provides a useful approach to practical reasoning. It may take different forms, have outcomes of greater or lesser magnitude and vary in the degree of its impact. Despite such considerations, however, there is obvious merit in teachers being well acquainted with action research as a method for exploring and improving their practice.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION**

Having explored, in some detail, the nature of teachers' professional practical knowledge, the factors contributing to its construction and possible ways in which it may be enhanced, it may be profitable to summarise what has been said before discussing its implications for teacher education.
PPK is the personally constructed knowledge of teachers. As a type of knowledge it is common to all. However, its exact content and the means by which it is constructed and employed will be different for each individual teacher, according to their personality, beliefs and experiences. It is, therefore, highly idiosyncratic and defies the application of any general rules. A teacher is continually constructing PPK out of all the various types of professional, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge available from present and past experience.

As difficult as it may be to define, PPK does appear to have a qualitative nature which is linked with maturity and experience. There would also appear to be ways in which teachers can get in touch with their PPK to understand it, critically examine it and modify it in an effort to improve their practice. Several possible ways of doing this have been considered. These are not necessarily the only ways in which PPK may be enhanced and it is not suggested that they will all work in the same way for all teachers.

The apparently vague nature of PPK provides teacher educators with a great challenge. If anything, it reminds them that they, too, are captives of their own PPK. In planning pre-service and inservice programs for teachers, they must be willing to critically examine their own deeply held assumptions about knowledge, teaching and learning (Glover and Hower 1955). With this in mind, the implications of personal practical knowledge for teacher education will now be discussed.
The old adage that "teachers are born, not made" has prompted many an interesting discussion over the years. The difficulty with such a statement is that it provides an impossible choice. The first alternative, that teachers are "born", seems to imply that there is a particular type of person who will make the ideal teacher. Experience would show otherwise. There are many different types of teachers, varying greatly in personalities and preferred methods of practice, all of whom could be judged to be effective teachers. On the other hand, the word "made", in our adage, would seem to imply that the teacher educator can take and make any person into a good teacher by passing on to them the "tricks of the trade". Once again, the natures of teaching and learning and the very diversity, in terms of teaching practice, to be seen in our schools seem to give a lie to this suggestion also.

What, then, is the proper role for teacher education? To stay with the above adage a moment longer, it might be argued that there is a very good reason why people might be tempted to believe that there are certain inherent personal characteristics that make some better teachers than others. If we accept that teacher knowledge is constructed, in the manner already discussed, but impose a traditional system of teacher education which is based on different assumptions about the nature of knowledge, what might we expect to be the result? It is the contention of the present writer that, in such circumstances, some teachers will have inherent qualities of personality and past experience that allow them to quickly build a personal knowledge base which seems natural and appropriate. This, in turn might be reflected in the quality of various aspects of their practice, such as classroom
management, lesson planning and teaching strategies. In other words, by leaving the construction of practical knowledge to chance, traditional teacher education has created a bias in favour of those who have a natural aptitude for integrating inputs of professional, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge to construct their PPK.

Any acknowledgment that the construction of PPK is central to the development of expertise in teaching will have serious implications for teacher education. It is now proposed to consider what these implications might be for pre-service teacher education and, in doing so, to suggest the criteria for an appropriate teacher education program.

It follows from the above arguments that if a teacher education program seeks to recognise the importance of PPK it will, necessarily, be one which is founded firmly on the principles of constructivism. This will have implications for both the course content and the methods used in presenting that content. However, because of the intricate relationship between the two it is difficult to separate them for the purposes of this discussion.

It has already been suggested that professional practical knowledge is constructed out of all types of knowledge input and these types of knowledge were considered as a "triad of knowledge" (Collinson 1996; Collinson 1996a), which consisted of professional knowledge, interpersonal knowledge and intrapersonal knowledge. It is apparent that all three will need to be addressed equally well in an effective teacher education program. It is important, however, to recognise the fact that the
type of program which is envisaged must do more than treat these types of knowledge as discrete units of information. To be true to the constructivist approach, emphasis must be placed on the interrelationships between the three and, also, the methods whereby individual teachers draw upon them in the construction of PPK. Thus, it is crucial that the program will not only give instruction about the construction of knowledge but will actively model processes that allow that construction to take place.

In other words, it is impossible to think that the concept of constructed PPK could be studied as a unit of an otherwise traditional program which puts emphasis on transmitted knowledge. It is essential that the teacher educators involved in the program be committed to the constructivist approach and that the assumptions underlying the program be clearly explained to students at the outset. Furthermore, all aspects of the program, including assessment of student progress, should be compatible with those assumptions.

Those who favour such a constructivist approach frequently support teacher education programs based on the concept of practical reasoning (Noel 1993; Donmoyer 1996). The idea of developing teacher education programs around practical reasoning has been advanced by Donmoyer as an alternative to three other responses to teacher education - traditional (behaviourist), eclecticism and coherence/consistency (Donmoyer 1996, pp. 103ff.).

Using a language arts methods course as an example, Donmoyer describes how a
program based on practical reasoning might look. Students would become aware of a wide range of knowledge bases, which would deal, sometimes in conflicting ways, with the teaching of language. However,

"...acquiring such knowledge would not be an end in itself; rather, the various knowledge bases students would learn about would serve as heuristics as students think, talk and write about (1) what actions should be taken in specific learning contexts, (2) what the likely consequences of each of the different courses of action would be, (3) what the relative worth of each of the likely consequences is, and (4) ultimately what should be done (Donmoyer 1996, p. 111).

This approach would also do something to satisfy the concern of Clandinin et al, mentioned earlier, that research findings and policies may be reduced to a "rhetoric of conclusions" (Clandinin and Connelly 1995, pp. 7-8) if teachers are not given the opportunity to adequately explore the inquiries and deliberations that gave them birth.

It seems to follow that a course which encourages practical reasoning will introduce and foster such activities as reflection, journal writing, use of narrative, collegial and collaborative activities, case analysis, case writing and action research. It cannot be assumed that all of these will be of equal value to all students in promoting the construction of PPK. For this reason, exposure to a wide range of such activities may be seen as desirable to permit individuals to develop their own methods of operation and to cater for different learning styles.

Emphasis on practical reasoning and the construction of PPK, however, will extend
beyond the university itself. A course which purports to place value on the practical aspects of teaching will need to be based on a strong relationship with the schools where students are placed for practicum. As Clandinin and Connelly point out: "...it is not enough for a creative and ambitious university faculty group to negotiate a new plot line for teacher education with their dean and faculty colleagues; they must also negotiate.....and continue to negotiate with those with whom they work in schools" (Clandinin and Connelly 1995, p. 74). It needs to be remembered that the teachers, who supervise the work of student teachers in schools, are unlikely to be familiar with the constructivist approach and it will be the responsibility of those in the university to ensure that they are well briefed on the aims of the program.

From what has been said about the implications of professional practical knowledge for a teacher education program, it can be seen that the aim is for the concept of constructed knowledge to be totally integrated into the entire program. Attempts to introduce such an approach into one strand of an otherwise traditional course may succeed for a while but cannot survive without the commitment of all concerned (Clandinin and Connelly 1995, p. 74). An example of an attempt to introduce an integrated program, of the type proposed, is the Master of Teaching degree (M.Teach), offered at the University of Sydney (University of Sydney, 1996).

Reference was made, at the beginning of this chapter, to the search for a knowledge base for teachers. In the light of what has been said about teachers'
PPK, it might well be argued that it is misleading even to talk about a "knowledge base". Such a concept seems to carry with it the assumption that there is likely to be an agreed body of propositional knowledge that is both essential and sufficient for all teachers. Thus, Sockett is led to make the following comment: "To conduct a search for a knowledge base assumes an epistemology that is clear and defined; that does not seem to me to be the case in the study of education, any more than it is in the field of morality" (Sockett 1993, p. 89) If, however, we take seriously the concept of PPK we might go so far as to suggest that, if there is such a thing as a knowledge base for teaching, that knowledge base will be different for each teacher.

This is not to deny that there are types of academic and pedagogical knowledge which can be seen as important, even essential, to the practising teacher but their importance is derived, not so much from their own intrinsic worth as from the use to which they can be put in the construction of a teacher's PPK. Thus, when discussing the composition of a teacher education program, it is important to look beyond knowledge as product to the ways in which knowledge from all sources is processed by teachers to form the personalised knowledge which we have called PPK.

In concluding this consideration of PPK, it may be useful to look at some of the difficulties that might be encountered in developing programs based on the concept. This in turn, will lead us to look at some of the areas of research that suggest themselves in relation to this type of knowledge.
The first difficulty to be encountered, when teachers' professional practical knowledge is recognised and valued, is the fact that the twentieth century mind has been conditioned to think in scientific, behaviourist terms. In the realm of knowledge, greater value is given to that which can be verified scientifically. This has given rise to such dualisms as theory/practice and quantitative/qualitative types of research. Our education systems have long tended to place greater store on knowledge that can be measured and evaluated as opposed to more emotive, intuitive and artistic ways of knowing.

With such attitudes so entrenched, the introduction of a constructivist approach to knowledge will be met with scepticism from many people in the community, including those with political power. Such attitudes cannot be dismissed lightly and must be treated with respect. Over time this opposition might be expected to change but only if the changes that are made in the education of teachers are seen to be successful. It must be admitted, however, that even those who subscribe to these changes may themselves, unwittingly, perpetuate educational practices based on assumptions which are not compatible with a constructivist approach. This could happen, for example, in the assessment of course work, in the type of feedback given to students, in the manner in which seminar discussions are led, and even in the physical layout of a seminar room.

The next difficulty is in implementation. The worst thing that could happen would be for teacher educators to put in place the skeleton of a program which purports to encourage the construction of professional practical knowledge, without
adequate thought to all aspects of the program. For the program to be successful, the educators need to be constantly reflecting on their own actions to ensure that all aspects of the program are consistent with their stated aims. It would also seem to be appropriate, and true to the idea of constructivism, for the participants in the program to be involved in giving constant feedback and assisting with the planning and evaluation of course content.

This leads us to another concern. Do the various strategies, which have been suggested as a way of improving professional practical knowledge, actually have the desired effect? There is a need for more research into the ways in which PPK is influenced by such practices as reflection, journalling, case-based approaches to learning and action research. There is, moreover, a danger that educators may assume that the mere introduction of such activities into a course will be sufficient in itself. Instead, it seems reasonable to suggest that it is the manner in which those activities are introduced and used that will be crucial.

It is also of great significance to question the underlying purpose of placing PPK at the centre of a teacher education program. Do teacher educators hope that, by so doing, they will speed up the knowledge construction process to the extent that graduates from the program will exhibit much greater maturity and wisdom than those from traditional programs? Or, is the aim a more modest one, whereby it is intended that novice teachers are sent into schools better equipped with a wide range of skills and strategies that will help them to make the most of all forms of knowledge input to construct their PPK?
Whatever answers may be given to these questions, there is little doubt that we have much to learn, both about the nature and construction of PPK and the ways in which that construction can be promoted and enhanced. The very nature of our subject defies the use of empirical studies and attempts to generalise about best practice. However, this does not mean that we cannot increase our knowledge by studying the work of novices, expert teachers and teacher educators as they attempt to develop this important aspect of their knowledge base.

More specifically, it is important to try to understand the relationship that exists between such activities as reflection, case methods and action research, on the one hand, and the construction of PPK on the other. Case studies of these activities in operation with selected groups of practitioners should provide some valuable insights into the way that the construction process works for those taking part. Such a case study, exploring the relationship between the use of case methods and the construction of PPK, will be discussed in later chapters. To set the context for that discussion, the relevant literature relating to the use of case methods will now be considered.
CHAPTER TWO
CASE-BASED APPROACHES TO TEACHER EDUCATION

There appears to be growing interest, among teacher educators, in the value of case methodology in teacher education. Case-based approaches to learning have been used for some time in the pre-service education of various professions. The first successful attempt, on a large scale, to base learning upon case analysis was at the Harvard Law School. Case methods were introduced there by Christopher Columbus Langdell in the 1870's (Doyle 1990; Merseth 1991; Sykes and Bird 1992; Lacey and Merseth 1993; McAntinch 1994). Since that time, case methods have been used in such fields as medicine, business studies, architecture and education.

This chapter will review current literature on the use of case-based approaches and consider the ways in which cases might be used in teacher education programs. This will involve dealing with such issues as: the nature of cases (i.e., the definition and characteristics of cases); the classification of types of cases; the ways in which cases have been used; and arguments for and against the use of cases in professional education.

There is evidence of cases being used as early as 1864, by Sheldon, to demonstrate use of the project method (Doyle 1990, pp. 7-8). However, the early use of cases in teacher preparation did not have great impact. In the 1920's, Henry Holmes,
Dean of the Harvard School of Education, attempted to introduce case-based methodology into teacher education programs but, in the face of considerable opposition, failed to do so (Merseth 1991, pp. 244-5). The failure of the method to attract much interest in education faculties until quite recently might be explained by the prevailing attitudes to the nature of teaching and preference for an approach which emphasised the transmission of theoretical knowledge (Turney, Cairns et al. 1982 p. xii; Fish 1989 p. 24). In such a climate, cases could be seen, at best, as a means of providing examples of practice, to illustrate the implementation of theoretical concepts.

The renewed interest in the use of case methodology in teacher education may be attributed to changing concepts of teaching as a profession and acknowledgment of the complexity of the teaching process (Doyle 1990). There has been a move in emphasis from behaviour to cognition as the focus of teaching activity (Carter and Richardson 1989). Since the early 1970's, educational researchers have taken considerable interest in the thinking and decision making processes of teachers (Clark and Yinger 1979; Shavelson and Stern 1981; Clark and Peterson 1986) and the role of such practices as critical reflection (Schon 1983; Schon 1987; Lovat and Smith 1995) and action research (Kemmis and McTaggart 1988; Kemmis and McTaggart 1992). All of these have, no doubt, helped to create a climate in which case methodology may play a more important part in the preparation of teachers.

Studies of teacher thinking and decision making have confirmed that experienced teachers, when compared with novices, are better able to cope with the
complexities and unexpected situations that arise in the classroom (Houssner and Griffey 1985; Borko, Livingston et al. 1990; Byra and Sherman 1991; Ennis and Safrit 1991). Thus, it may be argued that the complexity of the teacher's work in the classroom cannot be adequately prepared for unless the novice can experience that complexity and develop an appreciation of the thought processes and decision making skills that are so important to the development of teaching competence.

It might be concluded, therefore, that there is no substitute for experience and actual time spent in front of a class might be assumed to be of prime importance. The practicum has long been seen as an important part of teacher education (Turney, Cairns et al. 1982; Turney, Eltis et al. 1985; Fish 1989; Ramsey 2000). Unfortunately, a pre-service course of teacher preparation cannot hope to provide all the opportunities for experience that will fully prepare novices for the wide range of experiences and problems that will confront them throughout their professional careers. It is reasonable, however, to hope that opportunities can be given to develop skills, attitudes and strategies that will give the beginning teacher the capacity to deal with the unexpected and to make the best use of experience in the ongoing learning process. Cases may have the potential to provide such opportunities.

Anyone who visits a school staff room during recess or lunch breaks will not fail to hear any number of "cases" discussed. It is quite natural amongst teachers to share with their colleagues the problems that have been encountered and to talk about the solutions that have been chosen. Thus, teachers in schools frequently
adopt a case-based approach to problem solving in their work. It seems reasonable, therefore, to expect that a process which happens spontaneously in informal settings could prove beneficial when used in a more controlled way in the training and development of teachers.

It is important to recognise, from the outset, that the way cases are used, the expectations that we have for case-based learning and the value we place on the contribution of cases to the process of teacher education will be directly related to the epistemology that is implicit in any teacher education program. It might even be claimed that the relevance of cases in teacher education, and the degree to which they can be seen to succeed, will depend upon our views about teaching and learning and the construction of knowledge as well as current approaches to educational practice. Thus, as Doyle argues:

...the use of case methods in teacher education depends on one's understanding of teaching and the learning to teach process. In particular, a full use of cases and the case method rest on a view of the practitioner that makes understanding and analysis central to performance. (Doyle 1990, p. 14).

It follows, then, that the framework within which any discussion takes place, the conclusions reached and the recommendations for future research must all be seen within the context of underlying assumptions about knowledge, teaching and teacher education. Consequently, the review of literature which follows will be approached within the context of those assumptions about teacher's work, knowledge and teacher education that were discussed in the Introduction. Against
this background, the current literature on case-based learning will be reviewed and this literature review will then be discussed in terms of the following questions:

1. In general terms, what does case-based-learning have to offer a teacher education program, based on the above assumptions?

2. More specifically, to what extent do different ways of constructing and using cases:
   a. foster the growth of professional practical knowledge?
   b. promote the development of reflective practice?
   c. provide a basis for future practical workplace learning?

In the final part of the chapter, an attempt will be made to draw some conclusions about the future of case-based methods in teacher education and to make some recommendations for further study in this area.

There is a considerable, and growing, body of literature on the use of cases in teacher education. As might be expected, there are often subtle differences in the ways that various writers use the terminology associated with case-based learning.

In reviewing this literature, an attempt will be made to clarify some of the main issues, namely:

- the nature of cases (i.e., the definition and characteristics of cases)
- the classification of types of cases
- the ways in which cases have been used
- arguments for and against the use of cases
- the future of case methods in teacher education
Each of these issues will now be discussed.

**THE NATURE OF CASES**

It is customary to make a distinction between cases, sometimes called "classroom cases" (Kagan 1993 p. 705) or "teaching cases" (Shulman 1992 p. 19), and "case studies" (Shulman 1992; Kagan 1993; McAntinch 1994). The term "case study" is usually reserved for a method of research whilst "teaching cases" refers to "...original accounts, case reports or case studies that have been written and edited for teaching purposes" (Shulman 1992 p. 19). This convention will be observed in the discussion which follows and, since our concern is with the pedagogical use of cases, the discussion will deal with teaching cases, not case studies, at the same time acknowledging that teaching cases can be developed from case studies (Grossman 1992, p. 229).

There are five characteristics of teaching cases that are frequently referred to in the literature. These may be summarised as follows:

**Cases have a basis in fact and represent the real world**

An element of realism seems to be the quest of most advocates of case-based learning (McRobbie and Shulman 1991; Grossman 1992; Lacey and Merseth 1993; Patterson, Fleet et al. 1994; Wassermann 1994). However, the degree to which cases are exact reports of real situations seems to vary. Some would accept either
real or imagined events as suitable for case analysis (Patterson, Fleet et al. 1994, p. 1); others would want cases "...based on real life but fictionalised so that all players and circumstances remain anonymous" (Wassermann 1994, p. 602); others would insist on "real life experiences" (Merseth and Lacey 1993, p. 288); and others might settle for cases that are "realistic" or, perhaps have some degree of "authenticity" (Grossman 1992, p. 227).

The insistence, by some writers, on the use of cases taken directly from real life may be related to the fact that case methodology in Education has been influenced by the use of cases in other professions, such as Law (Carter and Unklesbay 1989; Grossman 1992; Shulman 1992). In Law, where cases can be used as precedents in courtroom argument, the need for students to study real life cases is evident. The situation in Education, however, is quite different. The cases used in teacher education are not likely to have such a direct application to future situations as no incident can be expected to repeat itself exactly. In this context, cases have been said to assist student teachers in dealing with different but similar events in the future by teaching them to "think like a teacher" (Kleinfeld 1992).

The whole debate about realism, or authenticity, in case-based methodology does seem somewhat problematic for, as Grossman points out: "Until we know more about how the criteria of verisimilitude affects what people learn about cases, we will be hard put to argue either way" (Grossman 1992 p. 229).

Nevertheless, it could be argued that, whether or not a case story can claim to have
originated in a real life situation, it needs to have the power to engage students in seriously examining educational issues that have personal meaning for them. Such student response to a case cannot be predicted in advance. Since each is approaching the case from a different background of prior knowledge, each will construe the apparent realism of the case differently. The result is that, as Glover and Howell suggest:

Each person deals with the case as it appears to him. One student identifies himself with a character in the case; another projects his own feelings and attitudes into the situation; a third deals with stereotypes rather than with the people described; still another is responding more to his feelings toward the instructor than to the case situation; another seemingly says what the instructor wants to hear, or else what the majority of the class will approve, rather than advancing his own inner thoughts. (Glover and Hower 1955 p. 17).

In the absence of any clear understanding of what is or is not "real" we might still conclude that a case needs to invoke in those responding to it a feeling that there is an element of truth. We might also ask whether the reality of a case story is embedded in the story itself or in the issues that it raises. For example, it might be possible to construct a case which is overtly fictional, employing humour or satire to deal with educational issues, but which may still convey a sense of reality in that, for those reading or responding to the case, those issues have an element of truth.

It is, perhaps, more important that we look at the ways in which case authors can evoke an element of realism in the case. For this reason, it is important to look at
some of the other criteria, frequently cited as crucial to a teaching case, discussed below.

**Cases consist of experiences or events**

Teaching cases often tend to revolve around the everyday experiences of practitioners as portrayed in significant events or incidents. (Merseth 1992 p. 51; Lacey and Merseth 1993 p. 544; Merseth and Lacey 1993 p. 288; Patterson, Fleet et al. 1994 p. 1) It might be expected that this would be especially true of cases dealing with classroom practice or school administration where events can provide the triggers for action and place demands on thinking and decision-making skills. This relates to the notion that events can play an important part in the development of teachers. As Carter and Richardson have pointed out:

> Recent research on teacher thinking suggests that knowledge and skills of expert teachers are ordered around *classroom events* rather than discrete teaching behaviours (questions, feedback, praise) or aspects of the content (e.g., comprehension, monitoring, concepts, principles) (Carter and Richardson 1989 p. 412).

By acknowledging the "event-structured knowledge" of teachers (Carter 1988 p. 216), we highlight the cognitive nature of teaching. Because much of the cognitive activity of teachers revolves around significant events, case stories which relate such events can provide an opportunity for novices to think like teachers. Moreover, cases based on well described events are more likely to have that touch of realism and authenticity that many feel is important to a good teaching case.
Cases can, of course consist of one event or many. The important thing is that the events in a case should not be so simple as to allow for only one decision. A good teaching case should reflect the complexity of the teaching/learning process. This is more likely to be achieved if the events which are described are susceptible to more than one interpretation. As Harrington points out: "...cases are not prescriptive, the one way to approach a situation, but a way to reveal pedagogical puzzles" (Harrington 1994, p. 119).

**Cases are usually expressed in the form of a narrative**

Narrative is another element frequently referred to in the definition of cases (Grossman 1992; Shulman 1992; Hutchings 1993). This recognises that teachers' practical knowledge, whilst being developed through the experience of classroom events, is frequently expressed in the form of narrative. Connelly and Clandinin have made a plea for greater use of teachers' narrative as a basis for classroom research on the grounds that "humans are storytelling organisms who, individually and socially, lead storied lives" (Connelly and Clandinin 1990, p. 2). Likewise, in the development of cases for pedagogical purposes, the use of the narrative form will enrich the data available for discussion.

Thus, teaching cases become what Hutchings describes as: "...detailed, story-like accounts of classroom incidents designed to raise issues about effective teaching and learning" (Hutchings 1993 p. 14). The construction of a case in narrative form will add a sense of realism and further demonstrate the complexity of the
teacher's role by providing what Hansen calls: "an irreducible core of ambiguity" (Hutchings 1993 p. 14).

An important aspect of the narrative is that it relates to a particular incident or series of incidents, at a particular time and in a given social context (Shulman 1992). This brings us to another characteristic of the teaching case - its contextual nature.

**Cases are contextualised - grounded in time and place**

In seeking to define a teaching case, some writers stress that the events portrayed in a case can only be understood within a given context (Grossman 1992; Shulman 1992). It is important for the author of a case to provide sufficient contextual data to enable those who respond to the case to understand how significant events might have been influenced by the environment in which they occurred. Indeed, it is possible that one way of using cases in teaching might be to examine a particular event within different contexts to compare the ways in which those involved might respond and interact. As Shulman points out: "Cases therefore have at least two features that can render them useful in learning: their status as narratives and their contextualisation in time and place." (Shulman 1992 p. 21).

For Connelly and Clandinin, "Time and place, plot and scene work together to create the experiential quality of narrative." (Connelly and Clandinin 1990, p. 8). They stress that, while time and plot are important in working together to describe
events, it is through place and scene that the case author can convey the true meaning of those events. They also point out that the scene for a classroom story may include the broader context of what is happening outside the classroom. "For instance, department heads, principals, school, and community all bear on a classroom scene and need, depending on the inquiry, to be described." (Connelly and Clandinin 1990, p. 8).

The provision within the case narrative of a rich description of the context in which the events occurred will further enhance the feel of realism. Teaching cases need a degree of "situational complexity" (Merseth and Lacey 1993 p. 288) to be useful in teacher education as this complexity will provide greater scope for the investigation of the issues that appear relevant to the case. This, in turn will enhance the power of the case to be used for teaching purposes.

Cases are designed to serve a pedagogical purpose

Attention to detail, in describing the context in which events occur, is crucial if we are to satisfy another requirement for a good teaching case: namely, it's pedagogical purpose (Grossman 1992; Harrington 1994). In the discussion of teaching cases, it is obvious that no definition would be complete without referring to their pedagogical role.

The pedagogical use of cases takes many forms, as will be discussed at a later point in this review, with teaching methods varying widely according to the purpose of
different teacher educators. While it may seem something of a tautology to state that teaching cases are cases used for teaching, it is important to stress that cases, on their own, are not sufficient for learning to take place. The case is no more than a tool and it is only as good as the use to which it is put.

To summarise what has been said about the nature of cases, we may conclude that a case needs to convey, to those responding to it, some degree of realism. To do so it needs to present, in narrative form, a sequence of events within a given context and to be designed for teaching purposes. One useful definition, which appears to embrace these criteria, is that put forward by Lawrence: "A good case is the vehicle by which a chunk of reality is brought into the classroom to be worked over by the class and the instructor." (Lawrence 1955, p.215).

**TYPES OF CASES**

Having accepted a basic definition of what a case is, it must also be acknowledged that our definition leaves room for a considerable degree of variety in the types of cases that are in use. There does not appear to be one clear way of categorising cases in the literature. In talking about the variations that exist between cases, different authors seem to approach the topic from different viewpoints.

In order to clarify the situation, an attempt will be made here to classify the thoughts of numerous authors within a simple framework. In the following
discussion, the differences between types of cases will be considered in terms of their form of presentation, structure and content. Such a classification does not represent the view of any particular author but is chosen as a simple way of handling the disparate ways in which different people have approached case typology.

**Form of Presentation**

There is no evidence of disagreement about the fact that teaching cases can be presented in many forms. Grossman suggests that, in addition to written texts, "teaching cases, at least theoretically, could also consist of videotapes of teaching episodes, primary documents such as teachers' journals, lesson plans, or examples of student work, and fictional or philosophical texts." (Grossman 1992 p. 228). All such forms of presentation would be possible within the terms of our accepted definition.

There seems to be little research evidence to show that one form of case presentation is intrinsically "better" than any other. Yet, it seems reasonable to suggest that the value of case-based methodology might be enhanced by the opportunity to vary the ways in which students are made acquainted with the details of a case. There is every possibility that "...the medium for the case will affect both what and how teachers learn from cases." (Grossman 1992 p. 228).

It might further be argued that the suitability of various forms of presentation might
be determined by our purpose in studying a particular case. For instance, cases which are being used to explore such aspects as teacher/student interaction, teaching strategies or class management, might benefit from the use of videotapes which show what is actually happening in the classroom. If, on the other hand, the main issues to be examined are concerned with student progress, implementation of policy or achievement of specific outcomes, the availability of primary documents, such as student records, might be more relevant.

In considering types of cases, however, it is also important to look at the structure and content of cases. These aspects of a case are just as important as the form of presentation in determining the pedagogical value of the case.

**Structure**

The case author can vary the way in which the case is structured depending upon the way in which it is proposed to use the case. Case structure can involve such elements as: the amount of information provided; the extent to which the case author deliberately sets out to link the case with particular issues; the way in which the incidents in the case story are sequenced; the perspective from which the story is told; or the provision of alternate versions of the story.

A teaching case can include as much or as little information as the case author decides. By varying the amount of detail which is provided, in terms of facts and background information, the educator can manipulate the degree of freedom that
is given to students in developing a variety of responses to the case. For example, cases can be either open ended, giving no indication of the way in which the situation was resolved, or closed, providing a resolution to the case (Grossman 1992, p.228). When the aim is to encourage students to think creatively and to build on personal experience, this may be encouraged by the use of an open-ended structure.

The inclusion in the case of a preferred solution might tend to suggest that there is one "right" way of dealing with the situation. An example of this would be when the case is included in a book or lecture as an exemplar to illustrate a point. Such use of cases certainly has its place but is not consistent with a constructivist approach which seeks to have the students actively participate in building on their previous experience.

On the other hand, a closed case structure does not necessarily preclude an opportunity for divergent thinking and it is possible that treatment of the case can include the critical appraisal of the decisions made by the main actor in the case. Indeed, this could be the focus of the case analysis, part of the exercise being to predict what repercussions might follow next, given our knowledge of the various protagonists in the case story.

An open-ended case, of course, will give even more scope for discussion. Such a case will present the problem or problems that are in need of resolution, without giving an indication of the real life outcome. This provides the opportunity to
speculate about the courses of action that the people in the story might take.

The way in which a case is structured can be quite important in reflecting the purposes of the educator. An interesting example of this is a recently published Australian case book (Louden and Wallace 1996). The purpose of the authors was to focus attention on the National Competency Framework (National Working Party on Teacher Competency Standards 1996). All cases in the book have a uniform structure. The cases are linked to the National Competency Framework, as well as being related to a number of contexts and issues in Education. Each case is structured to include: the case story, commentaries by experienced teachers and activities. At the end of each case, the reader is invited to rate the competencies exhibited by the teacher in the story, as well as their own competencies in relation to the same issues, and then to develop a plan of action for personal professional development. This consistent approach throughout the casebook helps to emphasise the primary objective of the authors, namely, to relate the National Competencies to everyday teaching practice.

Case structure can also vary in the way in which events are organised or sequenced. Whilst it may be true that "...a case must essentially represent a good job of reporting" (Lawrence 1955 p. 215), it is also important that the data being reported is presented in a way that captures the reader's interest. (Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996) This would imply that the case writer enjoys some degree of license in the way in which the facts of a case are put together. Thus, case-based methodology has been described as '...an approach that blends aspects
of the conventional case study method with the tradition, artistry and imagination of story telling." (Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996 p. 21).

Related to this is the practice of presenting a case in stages. Instead of permitting students to read the whole case story before discussion takes place, the story is broken into a series of episodes (allowing for discussion in between), with new data being provided at each stage. The value of this approach is that it replicates those real life situations in schools where teachers need to begin dealing with a problem before they are fully acquainted with all the relevant facts. By dealing with cases that are presented in this way, novices might appreciate the complex nature of situations that they will encounter and learn the importance of keeping an open mind on issues.

Bearing in mind that incidents which occur in a school will involve a number of participants (e.g., teacher, students, administrators, parents) the case story can be written from the perspective of any one of these people. This is an aspect of the case that should be acknowledged in any discussion. There could also be value in structuring a teaching case in a way that includes these various perspectives as part of the case story.

The complexity of life in the classroom might also be demonstrated by the use of case structures that provide alternate versions of the case story (Grossman 1992, p. 228). Grossman cites the novel *Hopscotch* by Julio Cortazar (1966). Another literary example of this structure is the Alan Ayckbourn play, *Sisterly Feelings*
(Ayckbourn, 1982), in which, at the end of Act I, two of the play's characters decide, by the toss of a coin, on the progress of the story from that point, the playwright having provided two different scripts for the rest of the play.

Such variation in the structuring of cases may be further developed by the use of computer technology. (Lacey and Merseth 1993; Merseth and Lacey 1993; Chiou 1995; Harvey, Chan et al. 1996). For example, Lacey and Merseth argue that: "Cases, hypermedia and computer networks each present ways to bring the dilemma-laden, complex situations of teaching into the university classroom or into the places where new teachers live and work." (Lacey and Merseth 1993 p. 547). In the University of Sydney's Master of Teaching program, which makes extensive use of case-based learning, computer-based presentation of some cases is being developed and there is an intention to develop "...aspects of a 'virtual' school." (Harvey, Chan et al. 1996 p. 279).

From the above examples, it can be seen that there are numerous possibilities for varying the types of cases used, according to structure as well as by the form in which they are presented. These possibilities are further extended when we consider a third element of case design, namely, the content or subject matter of the case itself. This aspect can play an important part in determining the use to be made of a case for pedagogical purposes and has been categorised in a number of different ways that will be considered below.
Cases can vary according to their content. This can be seen not only in the subject matter chosen for the case but also in the nature and scope of the information that is provided. Such variations usually appear to be determined by the use to be made of the case.

Kleinfeld (Grossman 1992 p. 230), identified four genres of cases: dilemma cases, appraisal cases, mixed dilemma and appraisal cases and research case studies. Of these, the first three represent types of teaching cases. Dilemma cases present students with practical problems and invite them to search for appropriate solutions to those problems. The appraisal cases, on the other hand, provide examples of teachers at work, demonstrating ways of dealing with specific issues. Usually, of course, a teaching case would be a mixture of the two.

Another way of classifying cases according to their content is that put forward by Shulman, who referred to prototypes (cases which demonstrated theoretical principles), precedents (concerned with issues of practice) and parables (dealing with norms and values) (Shulman 1986 p. 11). Once again, the possibility of mixing these characteristics in the one case was accepted. In a study which looked at the importance of these perspectives in teaching cases (Harrington 1994), teams of three were asked to write cases which dealt with the subject of motivation. The completed cases were examined to find the extent to which they included methodological content, theoretical content and normative content. Results
showed that all cases contained high levels of methodological content, dealing with the practical aspects of classroom motivation, but paid little attention to theory or norms and values.

It could be argued, however, that such a situation is hardly surprising. It is to be expected that a case which aims to describe a dilemma in relation to motivation of students will provide considerable detail about the teacher's methodology. Attention to the theoretical and normative aspects of the case is more likely to be relevant when the case is being discussed than when it is being written. Thus it is possible to conceive of subject-specific and context specific cases (Sykes and Bird 1992 pp. 461-3) which can be discussed in terms of available research and theory.

It has also been suggested that, to be useful in teacher education, a case needs to be seen as a "case of something" which "...implies an underlying taxonomy, however, intuitive or informal, to which a given case belongs." (Shulman 1992 p. 17). Thus, it might be envisaged that cases could be classified, according to their content and focus, into groups of cases dealing with a common theme.

To take this a step further, some would argue that it is necessary for teacher educators to develop paradigm cases (Broidy 1990) by seeking out "...a set of problems that legitimately can claim to be generic and so important that all who teach will be familiar with them" (Broidy 1990 p. 453). The selection of the content for such cases would depend upon the "consensus of the learned" which, Broidy admits will be difficult to achieve (Broidy 1990, p. 454). Even if it were
possible to agree on such generic subject matter for cases, the value of such an approach is open to debate. For example, paradigm cases appear to be based on the assumption that it is possible to generalise from a set of events in one classroom to similar situations in all other classrooms. Such an assumption is highly problematic in view of what has been said, above, about the contextual nature of cases.

In the above description of types of cases, whether typology be based on form, structure or content, it will be noted that there has been one common thread running through the discussion. This has been the obvious link between the type of case and its proposed use. Indeed, it seems that the pedagogical value of any case must rest in the use to which it is put by educator and students. The various uses proposed for teaching cases will now be considered.

WAYS OF USING CASES

Perhaps the most significant aspect of case-based methodology is its pragmatism. No matter how much attention we pay to the construction and nature of a teaching case, that case does not take on its true identity until we begin to use it. The wide interest in the use of cases is probably due, in part, to the plethora of ideas, within the education community, about the uses to which cases might be put. It is no wonder that Shulman warns us: "Beware of references to the case method." (Shulman 1992, p. 10).
When we explore the literature to discover the ways in which cases are used, it becomes apparent that there are two ways of looking at this issue. The first of these is concerned with anticipated outcomes and the second with pedagogical methods. Most teacher educators, in discussing their use of cases, confine themselves to explaining what outcomes they expect to achieve, in relation to their own particular epistemology (which may be either explicit or implicit in their arguments). Surprisingly, little is to be found about the pedagogical methods used to achieve these anticipated outcomes. For the purposes of the present review, these two aspects of case use will be discussed separately even though, in practice, they may be highly related.

Anticipated Outcomes

The ways in which teacher educators make use of cases might be attributed to their basic assumptions about knowledge, teaching and teacher education. Five orientations to teacher education that have been identified (McAntinch 1994 pp. 5945-77) are: academic, practical, technological, personal and critical/social. Teacher-educators working within different orientations, can be expected to use cases differently (Merseth 1991; Merseth and Lacey 1993) although it must be kept in mind that any specific teacher education program will reflect more than one such orientation (Merseth and Lacey 1993, p. 287).

Doyle classifies these different approaches into three categories or, as he calls
them, frameworks: precept and practice; problem solving and decision making; and knowledge and understanding (Doyle 1990 pp. 8-13). Shulman reduces this further to talk about content knowledge on the one hand and the more practical aspects of pedagogical knowledge on the other (Shulman 1986). Both these authors tend in their thinking towards the academic orientation mentioned above. It is Shulman's contention that the tendency in recent times to place emphasis on classroom processes has led teacher educators, at least in the USA, to neglect the importance of teachers' content knowledge (Shulman 1986 p. 8). Thus, case-based learning is seen by Shulman as a means of addressing the imbalance between content and method.

Shulman talks of three forms in which teachers' knowledge is represented: propositional knowledge, case knowledge and strategic knowledge, with case knowledge being "...knowledge of specific, well-documented and richly described events." (Shulman 1986 p. 11). Such cases embody the theoretical as well as the practical aspects of teaching and Shulman argues for the development of a body of case literature (p. 13), a sentiment echoed by Broudy whose search for a "consensus of the learned" leads him to advocate, as has already been indicated, the development of paradigm cases with which every beginning teacher should become familiar (Broudy 1990).

The assumptions underlying such a claim are apparent. Although Broudy and others advocating paradigmatic cases would argue that there is still room for flexibility and that such cases do not infer that there is one right answer, this
approach does not seem to do justice to the complexity of the teaching/learning process. Nor does it appear to allow for the uniqueness of teaching practice which is a feature of the teaching profession (Kagan 1993). Furthermore, the expectation that there could ever be consensus in the education community about matters of such complexity is somewhat optimistic.

Other writers advocate the use of cases to develop an awareness of the practical and cognitive aspects of the teaching process. Carter, for example, suggests that the study of cases can: "...help beginning teachers explore alternate courses of action for common classroom problems" and "serve as a catalyst for thinking about cognitive structures that underlie teaching practice". (Carter and Richardson 1989 p. 414). In similar fashion, Harrington states that: "Cases provide students of teaching with opportunities to begin to see the context specificity of the teaching and learning process while addressing their own taken-for-granted assumptions as well." (Harrington 1994 p. 118). Others refer to the use of cases to develop decision making skills (Manley-Casimir and Wassermann 1989; Lacey and Merseth 1993).

In summary, it can be said that cases, when classified according to outcomes, are of three basic types; those which illustrate particular concepts or principles; those which explore the complexity of teaching and encourage the development of decision making skills; and those which aim to stimulate personal reflection (Merseth 1991, p. 246; Grossman 1992, p. 232). It needs to be accepted, of course, that some case methods will attempt to achieve more than one of these
outcomes.

Unfortunately, any attempt to explain the use of cases in terms of expected outcomes begs the important question: What pedagogical methods will be employed to achieve these outcomes? Sykes and Bird have moved a step in the right direction when they refer to four ways of using cases in teacher education: case discussion; exploring cases in hypermedia; case simulations and field experiences; and students writing their own cases (Sykes and Bird 1992 pp. 494ff) However, many proponents of case-based learning appear to have difficulty in articulating the precise methods to be employed in the treatment of cases with students. This aspect of case usage will now be discussed.

**Pedagogical Methods**

The debate about what use should be made of cases in teacher education tends to cloud more important issues. There seems to be a lack of clarity about the pedagogy that is used. Talk about the uses to which cases may be put is not always backed up by a clear description of the teaching methods that will be employed to achieve the perceived goals. Indeed, there is some degree of irony in the fact that, while Shulman claims that there has been a tendency to neglect content in favour of pedagogy in teacher education (Shulman 1986 p. 6), the opposite seems to be true in the haste of some educators to adopt case-based methods. It almost appears, at times, that the development of a good teaching case is seen as sufficient in itself,
implying that once students are confronted with a stimulating case story, all sorts of benefits will ensue.

Another problem is that there is sometimes a discrepancy between the stated and unstated aims of the educator. As Glover and Hower point out:

"...if the students are to take responsibility for analysing and discussing cases, they need a favourable climate for doing so. This means a permissive atmosphere in which they feel free to put forth their ideas and their questions without the instructor's reacting in the form of rejection, derision, blame or authoritarian injunctions to think along certain other lines preferred by the instructor at that moment." (Glover and Hower 1955 p. 14).

There is, however, a danger that the instructor may have preconceived expectations about what the students will learn. Sometimes these expectations may be unrealistic. This point might be illustrated by looking at a study which attempted to determine the extent to which case-based learning could modify the entering beliefs of three students in a teacher education program (Anderson and Bird 1995). Data on the students' entering beliefs were obtained from initial interviews and an essay written early in the course. They then participated in a course which used case analysis. The assignment at the conclusion of this course was to write responses to three cases of different teaching styles. This assignment and a final interview were used by the researchers to determine whether the initial beliefs of the students had changed. On the basis of the initial interviews, the instructors determined the ways in which they "...might want the particular student to gain from work with these three cases." (p. 484). However, these expectations were not
articulated until after the course was over. The result of the study was that the entering beliefs of the students appeared to change very little as a result of working with cases.

There are some points of concern about this study. Firstly, there is no clear indication of the methods used by the instructors in class discussions. Secondly, the expectations of the instructor constituted something of a hidden agenda. It does not appear, from the information available, that students were acquainted with any expected outcomes of the course or any criteria on which their response to the cases might be judged. Thirdly, it seems that the expectation that exposure to the study of cases, over a relatively short period, might be sufficient in itself to create a noticeable shift in existing beliefs was unrealistic. As Grossman has observed: "Work in cognitive psychology suggests that when presented with contradictory evidence on an issue about which they hold strong prior beliefs, people use the evidence that supports their prior beliefs." (Grossman 1992 p. 233).

It seems reasonable to suggest that one prerequisite, if existing beliefs are to be challenged, is the development of the skills of critical reflection. The development of critical reflection is the subject of an interesting study (Harrington, Quinn-Leering et al. 1996), in which the written case analyses of students are used to gauge their development of reflective skills. This study does not make unrealistic claims about the power of cases to change student beliefs. Instead, students' case analyses are studied to provide an insight into the outcomes of a teacher education
program, based upon the premise that: "Finding ways to gauge different aspects of critical reflection is a key to fostering its development". (Harrington, Quinn-Leering et al. 1996 p. 36). Moreover, there is a clear description of those aspects of critical reflection - open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness - that are the subject of the investigation. Results of the study provide useful information about the stages of development of students in these three aspects and the authors suggest that the type of information obtained could be useful in providing feedback to students.

As stated previously, there is a scarcity of information about the specific pedagogical methods employed by most of the researchers. However, there are some glimpses of the more practical aspects of the ways educators make use of cases with students. For example, Glover and Hower provide "a few pointers on how to conduct case discussions (Glover and Hower 1955 pp. 18ff) and Welty (cited in McRobbie and Shulman 1991 pp. 5-6) offers practical advice regarding such matters as preparation, seating arrangements and ways of involving students in the discussion. He also suggests that discussion of a case should progress through three stages: analysis, evaluation and implications.

Other advocates of case-based learning also seek to provide a structure for case discussion by using some kind of generic model such as that used in the M. Teach program at the University of Sydney. During the first year of that program, case studies are used as a means of confronting practical issues encountered by teachers.
in the workplace. The cases are considered in terms of the following:

"Generic Model for the Use of Cases"
1. Define case issues / problems.
2. Examine perspectives and engage in critical appraisal.
3. Define and engage with the professional knowledge, theory and research required by the case.
4. Apply personal and professional knowledge, theory and research.
5. Recommend and justify a course of action or actions.
6. Analyse the likely consequences of such actions
   (University of Sydney, 1996).

Whilst there does not seem to be any available evidence to support the use of such a model, it obviously represents an attempt to give some direction and focus to case analysis. Whether or not this achieves any better results than a less rigid discussion model is open to question. However, the present writer would argue that some type of procedural structure is necessary to help students to seek out the main issues and implications of a case.

Another case-based method, which has proved popular with some teacher educators, is the encouragement of case authorship by the course participants themselves (Richert 1992; Dezure 1993; Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996; Cherednichenko, Gay et al. 1998; Hunter and Hatton 1998). This approach has been used successfully both in university courses and in the professional development of experienced teachers. Members of a group prepare individual case stories based on their own experiences and use these as a basis of group discussion. Using the writing and discussion of cases as a means of improving instruction at
a university, Dezure reported: "The impact of cases appears to be greatest for case writers." (Dezure 1993 p. 41).

Other comparatively new approaches to the use of cases involve hypermedia, (Merseth and Lacey 1993) simulation (Sykes and Bird 1992) and virtual reality (Chiou 1995). Whilst not a great deal appears to have been done in these areas as yet, such techniques promise to provide greater flexibility in the presentation of cases to students and in demonstrating the complex nature of teaching.

As stated earlier, there are many ways of using cases in teacher education. These uses, in turn, reflect numerous pedagogical orientations and many different kinds of expectations, both explicit and implicit, on the part of the instructors. It is important, therefore, in the discussion of any particular model of case-based instruction, to be aware of the underlying assumptions and anticipated outcomes of the people concerned.

ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST CASES

When we begin to consider arguments for and against case-based methodology, we are immediately confronted with a problem. While much has been said one way or the other about the subject, little of it is based on any solid evidence. As McAntinch observes "...the enthusiasm for case methods in teacher education is more a matter of conjecture and faith than of evidence." (McAntinch 1994, p. 5947).
This being so, what kind of evidence, either for or against the use of cases, are we prepared to accept? When we consider the many different expectations of teacher educators and the variety of ways in which cases are used, is it possible, or even fair, to talk in general terms of the success or failure of the case method? As Kleinfeld states: "Unlike social science research, the teaching case makes no general claims - no claims that these particular events are general patterns." (Kleinfeld 1990, p. 44). When the various case-based approaches rarely, if ever, seek to make generalisations about teaching, why should we presume to generalise about cases? As will be argued, later in this chapter, it may be far more important for educators to evaluate specific instances of case-based learning than to seek to justify case methods in general.

In spite of these concerns, however, it is still worthwhile to have an overview of the numerous arguments that have been put forward, for and against cases, in the literature. The aim here is to canvass the wide range of comments that have been made about case-based learning. These comments, in total, do not represent the views of any one author. By their very nature, they can be seen to represent a range of differing epistemological and methodological viewpoints.

Representing such a wide range of viewpoints, the arguments, which are discussed below, cannot be taken as the final word on cases. This is a continuing debate, the nature of which is not so much to do with the rights or wrongs of a particular methodology as with the struggle of the education profession to reach consensus about more profound issues, such as the nature of educational knowledge and the
place of workplace practices in the construction of that knowledge.

Advantages of Cases

In an effort to create some order out of the multiplicity of claims that have been made on behalf of case-based learning, these will be considered here within a framework consisting of four categories: the complex nature of teaching; the cognitive aspects of teaching; collegiality and communication within the education community; and professional development. Whilst these categories will be treated separately here, their interrelated nature should be clearly recognised.

1. The Complex Nature of Teaching

One of the most promising characteristics of case-based pedagogy in teacher education is its apparent compatibility with the object of instruction - namely the profession of teaching (Shulman 1986; Kleinfeld 1990; Merseth 1990; Kleinfeld 1992; Dezure 1993; Hutchings 1993; Harrington 1994). The teaching classroom has been described as "...an uncertain domain in which events rarely unfold in the same way twice." (Grossman 1992 p. 231). As Shulman so aptly puts it:

We are not taking a field of study that is basically a propositional system and writing cases solely for pedagogical purpose. The field is itself a body of cases linked loosely by working principles, and case methods are the most valid way of representing that structure in teaching. (Shulman 1992)

In this respect, claims have been made for the versatility of cases which can apply
to many different teaching situations in a range of disciplines (Merseth 1990; Dezure 1993). Thus, it can be said, with Kleinfeld, that cases provide students with "...vicarious experiences with kinds of problematic situations characteristic of teaching." (Kleinfeld 1992 p. 34). A further advantage, within this context, is that cases provide an opportunity to make the connection between process and content (Dezure 1993; Hutchings 1993) by offering opportunities to study teaching practice in a way that does not separate disciplinary knowledge from pedagogical expertise.

2. The Cognitive Aspects of Teaching

Many commentators emphasise the value of case-based approaches as a means of both recognising and supporting the cognitive nature of the teacher's role (Carter 1988; Kleinfeld 1992; Merseth 1992; Shulman 1992; Sykes and Bird 1992; Harrington 1994; Harrington 1995; Harrington, Quinn-Leering et al. 1996). The complexity and uncertainty of teaching, as discussed above, demand more of teachers than repetitive skills of practice. As was argued in the previous chapter, the current view of teachers as being decision makers (Manley-Casimir and Wassermann 1989 p. p. 28ff; Merseth 1992 pp. 55-6) and reflective practitioners (Kleinfeld 1992 p. 35) is well served by the use of case-based methods. It has even been suggested that case methods can provide students with a "...stock of educational strategies for use in analogous problem situations." (Kleinfeld 1992 p. 35).
Cases, for example, can be used to acquaint novices with the ways in which experienced teachers frame and construct educational problems and deal with those problems through the processes of inquiry and critical reflection (Kleinfeld 1992 p. 34; Harrington 1994 p. 118). By the use of cases it is possible to demonstrate that what we are dealing with is situated cognition (Shulman 1992 pp. 23-4; Sykes and Bird 1992 p. 499), for the thoughts and actions of teachers are highly site specific. Moreover, it has been claimed that, by using an adequate variety of cases, it is possible to foster cognitive flexibility for working in the ill-structured domain of teaching (Shulman 1992 pp. 24-25; Sykes and Bird 1992 pp. 497-8).

3. Collegiality and Communication within the Educational Community

It is rare to see case-based learning described as an individual pursuit. On the contrary, it seems to be a virtue of the case method that it encourages collegiality and communication, two characteristics previously identified as important to the notion of school as community, when cases are analysed and discussed in groups (Merseth 1990; Dezure 1993; Hutchings 1993; Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996). Cases, according to Hutchings "...put permission in the air to talk about teaching." (Hutchings 1993 p. 14). Whilst disagreeing with the implication that teachers are normally reluctant to talk about their work, experience would lead the present writer to concede that Hutchings' point is well made, in the sense that much of the typical staffroom talk of teachers lacks the analysis, reflection and exchange of views that are possible in the more structured situation of case-based learning.
The value of teachers writing their own cases and discussing them with their peers is promoted by Ackerman who observes that: "What they write about, how they tell it and how they talk about it are complementary." (Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996 p. 23). In this way, cases honour teaching experience (Hutchings 1993 p. 15) and can provide a means of combining educational theory with educational practice (Merseth 1990 p. 55), supporting the view that educational theory is informed and generated by practice (Hutchings 1993 p. 15) and knowledge and skills are located in the acts of teaching (Sykes and Bird 1992 p. 505).

4. Professional Development

Cases have the advantage that they can be used to further the professional development of teachers at all levels of expertise (Carter 1988; Dezure 1993; Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996). Not only can they be used to inform practice for the novice. Because case methods can be used in a variety of ways to suit different needs, they also have the capacity to be used with experienced teachers such as school executives (Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996) and university lecturing staff (Dezure 1993) working in collegial groups.

Because of its flexibility, therefore, case-based methodology promises to be a powerful tool in the ongoing, career-long, development of teachers, with emphasis on reflective practice, collegiality and cooperative learning. Indeed, the prospect of using case-based approaches in the professional development of teachers is all
the more important if, as mentioned earlier, our aim is to break down the
theory/practice dichotomy and to "...give teaching its due as an intellectual activity"
(Hutchings 1993 p. 18) in which genuine improvement of practice is generated
from within the teaching profession itself.

In summary, it can be seen that the perceived advantages of case-based approaches
to learning are numerous and cover a range of areas related to the nature of the
teaching profession and the needs of practising teachers. However, the literature
also acknowledges a number of difficulties, which may hinder the effective use of
cases in teacher education, and these will now be considered.

Disadvantages of Cases

A number of problems, associated with case-based learning, have been identified.
As with the advantages mentioned above, an attempt has been made to clarify the
issues by looking for the emergence of some kind of pattern. It would seem, from
the available evidence, that the disadvantages that have been identified fall into
two groups - those that deal with practical and administrative issues and those
that are concerned with the educational value of cases. As with the advantages,
there may be some degree of interrelationship between these issues but they will
now be discussed separately.
1. Practical and Administrative Issues

Case-based methods are seen as expensive and time consuming (Carter 1988; Carter and Unklesbay 1989; Merseth 1990; Shulman 1992). Case materials are costly to prepare. Moreover, the additional time and increased teaching space needed, when compared with traditional lecture methods, further add to the cost. Therefore, it has been suggested that the approach is inefficient, with results not justifying the increased investment of time and money (Shulman 1992, p. 267; McAntinch 1994, p. 5947).

The availability of good teaching cases is another concern expressed by some writers (Carter and Unklesbay 1989; Merseth 1990) and cases are not evenly distributed among the various teaching fields (Merseth 1990 p. 56). Attention has also been drawn to the variations that exist in the quality of teaching cases, with calls for the training of case writers (Carter 1988 p. 221) and the development of case writing protocols at an institutional level to provide guidelines for the development of useful cases (Merseth 1990 p. 56). Before the implementation of such procedures, however, the present writer would argue that there is a need for more research into determining the attributes of useful teaching cases. It would also be necessary to use caution in the development of case writing protocols to ensure that they do not inhibit the variety and flexibility of cases.
2. The Educational Value of Cases

Suggested disadvantages of cased-based methodology, from an educational point of view, seem to be concerned either with the fear of what *might* go wrong or caution about aspects not fully understood.

Shulman, for example, has two contrasting concerns. On the one hand, the "episodic, discontinuous" nature of cases may prevent the learner from seeing important "critical generalisations", while on the other, there may be a tendency towards "over-generalisation" with the individual case being "...so powerful that its apparent message is transformed into a rigid maxim by the learner." (Shulman 1992 p. 27).

Much of the success or failure of case methods will depend upon the way in which they are used and the effective conduct of case discussions is no easy task (Merseth 1990; Shulman 1992; McAntinch 1994). In the words of Merseth: "Cases are not 'teacher-proof'; they do not self-instruct." (Merseth 1990 p. 55).

There has been considerable criticism of the use of case methods in the teaching of Law, where such an approach has been entrenched for over a century (Carter and Unklesbay 1989). Critics claim that this way of teaching is not cost-effective and that it does not prepare students adequately for the harsh realities of law practice. This leads Carter and Unklesby to suggest that there is a need, in teacher education, to develop a clearer understanding of the interpretative context of cases.
and to question the effectiveness of cases in preparing novices for the complexity of teaching (Carter and Unklesbay 1989 p. 532).

Associated with this is the following reservation, expressed by Grossman: "In their concern for process and encouragement of divergent thought, discussion leaders can communicate the belief that 'anything goes' in case discussions and that all proposed solutions to teaching dilemmas are equally worthy." (Grossman 1992 p. 236). The same writer also warns that the conflicting interpretations of cases may be used by students "...to confirm their preexisting misconceptions about teaching" and cautions against too restricted a discussion of a case lest it lead to "...overly simplistic conceptions of teaching and its analysis." (Grossman 1992 p. 236).

In all of this, the overriding problem with case-based methodology seems to be lack of agreement amongst teacher educators about what cases are, how they should be used and for what purpose.

THE FUTURE OF CASE METHODS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

The wide variety of claims made, in the literature, for case-based methodology might lead us to conclude that the use of cases in teacher education can mean all things to all people. Certainly, the term case-based methodology can be interpreted in different ways and can imply different pedagogical strategies depending upon our epistemological perspective. For this reason, any general discussion about the advantages and disadvantages of using cases in teacher education would seem to
be a pointless exercise. Instead, there is more to be gained by limiting the scope of our inquiry to consider the ways in which cases might be used to achieve specific outcomes within a teacher education program with a particular epistemological orientation.

Therefore, an attempt will now be made to consider what case-based learning has to offer a teacher education program based on the assumptions previously mentioned and reiterated below. This will be followed by a closer examination of the ways in which case-based learning may be used to support three specific aspects of a teacher's knowledge, behaviour and learning.

It was foreshadowed, at the beginning of this chapter, that the discussion of case-based methods in teacher education would be conducted within the context of certain underlying assumptions, discussed earlier in the Introduction. These assumptions were related to the nature of a teacher's work when viewed within the context of a constructivist epistemology. Without repeating the assumptions in detail, their main features might be summarised in the following way:

*Teaching is an extremely complex process, in which no situation is ever likely to repeat itself exactly, with the result that teachers need to rapidly adapt to changing circumstances. To do this they rely heavily on their own past experience, framing their practical knowledge on the basis of reflection, and also on their ability to make informed decisions.*
The advocates of case-based methods seem to agree that the case story is an ideal medium through which to portray the complexity of teaching and to introduce novices to the role of the teacher in dealing with that complexity. The nature of teaching cases and the types of cases that can be developed offer the teacher educator a great deal of scope. Cases introduce a sense of realism through the portrayal of classroom events in the form of narrative, rich in detail, which is constructed in a way that encourages inquiry and analysis. The fact that cases can be constructed and presented in a variety of ways provides the educator with flexibility in the types of issues that can be raised and in the methods of treatment that can be developed.

There is frequent reference, in the literature, to the use of cases in faculties of Law, Medicine and other fields, such as Business Studies and Architecture. In the case of Law, in particular, the century-long tradition of case-based approaches to learning seems to be almost synonymous with its high professional status. Yet, as has been mentioned, the use of cases in Law education is not without its critics. (Carter and Unklesbay 1989) Nevertheless, there does seem to have been a tendency for teacher educators to embrace case-based methods on the strength of their apparent success in the more prestigious professions of Law and Medicine (Sykes and Bird 1992, p. 458; McAntinch 1994 p. 5943).

It is important to recognise that, if case methods are to have value in the training of teachers, it must be because they are appropriate to the needs of teachers, not lawyers or medical practitioners. Only by recognising the unique nature of
teaching is it possible to determine an appropriate case-based pedagogy specific to the teaching profession. An interesting observation has been made by Kagan who suggests that: "teaching may be the only clinical profession that acknowledges and promotes uniqueness of practice." (Kagan 1993 p. 706).

Kagan identifies three ways of using cases: as Instructional Tools, as Sources of Raw Data on Teacher Cognition and as Catalysts for Professional Growth and Change (Kagan 1993 pp. 706-715). The first of these is concerned with the normative aspects of the profession and is the type of approach used in the study of Law and Medicine where there is considerable pressure towards developing a "consensus of the learned" about the one, most desirable solution to a problem. The other two approaches are more specific to the teaching profession and have gained prominence in recent years. They relate to those aspects of teaching that make individual practitioners unique.

It cannot be denied that there are some important normative aspects of teachers' knowledge and these will, no doubt, be relevant to the analysis of any teaching case. However, too great an emphasis on this in teacher education has, in the past, led to a devaluation of those expressive characteristics that set teaching apart. The most promising feature of case-based learning is that it provides teacher education with a tool to demonstrate the tension which exists between Education as a social science and Education as an artistic endeavour where the unique contribution of individuals is valued and affirmed.
Such an approach to teacher education as that outlined above, leads us to consider those areas of teacher development where the use of case methods might be particularly relevant. Three which come to mind, and which were identified in Chapter One, are: **professional practical knowledge, reflective practice and ongoing workplace learning.** Possible ways of using cases to foster growth of professional practical knowledge, encourage the development of reflective practice and provide a basis for future practical workplace learning will now be considered.

**Professional Practical Knowledge (PPK)**

Teaching cases provide a useful medium through which to demonstrate that the knowledge which teachers bring to bear on classroom events is situational, constructed from present and past experiences and expressed as narratives which attempt to make sense of those experiences. A teacher's knowledge will, in part, consist of some received knowledge in the form of educational research findings, maxims and proven methodology handed down in the traditional manner. However, it is the impact upon this of the individual teacher's background, within a given context, which gives teaching its complexity and makes each classroom event a unique experience.

Cases have the power to impact upon this aspect of teaching in two ways. Firstly, the case stories written by teachers can be used as a means of exploring the ways in which practical knowledge shapes and is shaped by classroom action and teacher decision making. Secondly, the act of writing case stories can assist both novices
and experienced teachers to be aware of the ways in which their own past experiences and value systems affect their framing of classroom events and their development of strategies for dealing with everyday problems.

**Reflective Practice**

In recent years, as has already been indicated, there has been considerable interest in the use of reflection, by teachers and other professionals, as a means of dealing with complex practical tasks (Schon 1983; Schon 1987; Schon 1991; Lovat and Smith 1995) and developing PPK. This has led to attempts to examine the role of reflective practice in teaching and to consider the ways in which the skill of reflection can be developed through teacher education programs (Copeland, Birmingham et al. 1993; Day 1993; Hatton and Smith 1995; Smith 1999).

Obviously, reflection that is to be instrumental in promoting professional growth needs to be more than simply thinking about what has happened in the classroom. As Day points out: "Confrontation by self or others must occur." (Day 1993 p. 88). Hatton and Smith suggest a developmental sequence of reflective practices: technical reflection and three forms of action-on-reflection - descriptive, dialogic and critical (Hatton and Smith 1995 p. 46). Of these, critical reflection was seen as the most difficult to achieve because "The use of critical perspectives depends on development of metacognitive skills alongside a grasp and acceptance of particular ideological frameworks..." (Hatton and Smith 1995 p. 46) and these skills take time to develop.
Teaching cases have characteristics that may be expected to support the development of reflective practice in both novices and experienced teachers. For some time, the usefulness of stories in providing a basis for reflection has been recognised (Connelly and Clandinin 1990; Schon 1991) with Schon stating that: "Storytelling and story analysis can facilitate a kind of reflecting that is often difficult to do, a consideration of those ordinarily tacit constructs that guide practice." (Schon 1991 p. 236). Moreover, the study by Harrington, referred to earlier, suggests that it is possible to gauge students' development of reflective skills by examining written responses to dilemma-based cases (Harrington, Quinn-Leering et al. 1996).

**Workplace Learning**

The power of case methods to promote and reflect the growth of reflective practice seems to carry over into the area of workplace learning, when teachers are encouraged to write case stories and share them with peers as part of professional development programs (Richert 1992; Dezure 1993; Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996).

An Australian Government report on Workplace Learning included amongst its conclusions the comment that: "Workplace learning is more likely to be sustained in a culture of collegial support and collaboration which fosters critical reflection amongst teachers." (National Board of Employment 1994, p. 91). There is
sufficient evidence, in the research literature, to suggest that cases can provide a catalyst for promoting this kind of collegial support and collaboration.

One significant feature of case-based approaches to teacher education is that they have universal application throughout the education community. As well as being used in pre-service education programs, cases can be used just as successfully with beginning teachers, experienced practitioners and school executives. As with any other teaching resource, the important thing is to be able to choose the right pedagogical strategies to use with cases, depending upon the needs of the participants and the desired outcomes perceived by the educator.

The review of literature, presented in this paper, has identified a strong movement towards case-based approaches in teacher education. That movement is not a simple one to understand or describe. The many advocates of case methodology, whilst sharing a common commitment to the use of cases in teacher education, are by no means united in their perception of what this approach may achieve. This, in itself, is not really a problem. Teaching cases provide us with windows into a complex and unpredictable world - the world of classrooms, teachers and students. Furthermore, those who would use cases, for the education of teachers, are also caught up in this same world. It would, then, be surprising, even worrying, if there were total agreement on one case method. This would serve only to limit the scope of case-based learning within a narrow set of guidelines imposed by a single view of what teachers do and what they need to know.
This situation, in which cases serve different epistemologies and are used to achieve different outcomes, is tenable so long as we realise that it carries with it certain implications for the education community. The most obvious ones are as follows:

1. It is important that anyone using cases in a teacher education program should be clear about the assumptions that underpin that program. The epistemology on which the program is based needs to be acknowledged and participants in the program need to be made aware of the expected outcomes.

2. In any specific teacher education program, it is the responsibility of the educator to constantly review the methods of instruction to ensure that these are consistent with the avowed assumptions on which that program is based.

3. Like classroom teaching itself, case-based teacher education is highly idiosyncratic. Therefore, any research attempting to compare methods and results between various teacher education programs would be extremely problematic. However, it may be possible to conceive of research which seeks to determine whether case-based approaches are more viable within some epistemological orientations than others.

4. The need to target specific programs and evaluate the success of case
methods in achieving the desired outcomes of those programs is important.

Throughout the discussion thus far, the author's assumptions about the nature of teaching and the construction of teacher knowledge have been made clear. It is argued that a teacher education program based on such assumptions will be well served by a case-based approach. Within this context, some final remarks can be made about the future of case-based learning and about possible areas of research.

Teacher educators who are committed to using a case-based approach must base their teaching methods on the same principles of practice that they hope will be developed in their students. Hence, a program which purports to promote the construction of professional practical knowledge, through reflective practice, as a foundation for career-long workplace learning, needs to exemplify those same attributes. Teacher educators must be constantly examining their own knowledge base and assumptions, critically reflecting upon the pedagogical methods that they employ and seeking to refine those methods in collaboration with their colleagues.

The use of case methods in teacher education will provide many opportunities for research. Because of the idiosyncratic nature of case-based learning programs, it is not realistic to envisage research findings which have general application. Rather, they will be specific to a particular learning community or even particular groups of students. For this reason, it is reasonable to envisage a large and continually growing body of research literature in this field.
Of the many possibilities for research into the use of cases, there are three aspects of case-based learning that would appear to be in urgent need of further research. These are:

- the writing of suitable teaching cases;
- the pedagogical methods to be employed; and
- the relevance of cases to an understanding of classroom practice.

For two reasons, the writing of case stories is important to the development of effective case-based learning. Firstly, it is important to have a comprehensive supply of good teaching cases for use in teacher education programs. Secondly, the therapeutic aspect of case writing, as a basis for professional development, also deserves attention. It is essential, then, that considerable thought be given to the characteristics of a good teaching case. Attention must also be paid to the skills that teachers need and the types of processes that they will use in order to translate their various classroom anecdotes and incidents into powerful and engaging case stories worthy of lengthy analysis and discussion.

There is a distinct lack of research material on the pedagogical methods used with cases. There is a need for greater clarity, within the teacher education community, about the methods that might be used with cases. How are discussions organised? Is the use of a set discussion format a help or a hindrance? How active a role should be taken by the discussion leader? There is, of course, a dilemma here because educators, who want to foster a climate where all participants feel that their opinions are valued, are reluctant to appear too prescriptive.
However, it should be possible to devise working procedures and routines that do not compromise the freedom of discussion that is sought. Although it has been argued here that each teaching situation has its own unique characteristics, making it difficult to generalise, it still seems feasible to advocate some form of training program for teacher educators. The type of training that will be appropriate and the skills required for effective teaching with cases need to be the subject of further research.

The relevance of cases to an understanding of classroom practice is another aspect of case-based learning that needs to be the subject of scrutiny. So far, most advocates of this approach seem to assume that, by using cases, students will gain insights into the teacher’s role and will begin to think as teachers do, developing that all important practical knowledge which is so important for survival in the classroom. Little work seems to have been done to determine whether this transfer of learning actually takes place.

In conclusion, it can be said that case-based approaches to teacher education have the potential to break down the traditional dichotomy of theory and practice and give appropriate credit to the professional practical knowledge that teachers develop as they interact with students and reflect upon their work. It is, however, the responsibility of the teacher education community to see that this potential is realised. Cases are only as good as the uses to which they are put. The challenge is to develop creative pedagogical methods for the use of cases and to critically evaluate those methods within the context of the outcomes that we seek to achieve.
In order to learn more about the effectiveness of case methods in teacher education, a research study was carried out at the University of Sydney where the Master of Teaching (M.Teach) program employs such methods. The chapters which follow provide details of that study and its findings.
SECTION TWO

A Case Study on the use of Cases in Teacher Education
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH PROJECT AND METHODOLOGY

One important aspect of the use of case-based methods in teacher education is the potential link between such methods and the construction, by the student teachers, of professional practical knowledge (PPK). With this in mind, a research project was carried out in order to explore the connections between the case methods used in the Master of Teaching (M.Teach) program at the University of Sydney and the student teachers’ construction of PPK.

Thus, the project took the form of a case study about the use of cases and the explicit strategies used in the study are set out below. In keeping with definitions discussed in Chapter Two, “case study” refers to a method of research whilst the term “case” (or, in some instances “case story”) will be used as an abbreviated form of “teaching cases” which are “original accounts, case reports or case studies that have been written and edited for teaching purposes” (Shulman 1992, p. 19). Whilst it is intended to adhere to this terminology wherever possible, it must be pointed out that some of the direct quotations from the research participants will contain the term “case studies” in reference to what were actually teaching cases.

The study was phenomenological in nature (Merriam 1998) and the phenomenon under scrutiny was the shared experience of a group of student teachers using case
methods in a teacher education program. It has been claimed that "...the single most defining characteristic of case study research lies in delimiting the object of study, the case" (Merriam 1998, p. 27). The delimiting factors for the present research relate to: the context (including specific activities that formed the basis of the study and the time frame within which the study took place); the participants; and the data sources used. The case study covered a period of twenty-four weeks during the first year of the M.Teach program at the University of Sydney. The study involved a group of six student teachers who were taking part in the program. Interviews and written sources were used for analysis. More information about these aspects of the study is provided below.

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

As stated above, this study was carried out at the University of Sydney with students who were enrolled in the M.Teach program. The M.Teach is a degree offered to post-graduate students, from a variety of disciplines, to prepare them for teaching in primary and secondary schools. To set the present study in its proper context, a brief outline of the course, based on details contained in the M.Teach Handbook (University of Sydney, 1996) follows.

The program consisted of two major strands of study, referred to as Study One and Study Two and these were supported by a course in the use of Information Technology and several optional courses. There was a supervised practicum in
each year of the two-year program and a ten week internship at the end of the second year.

The purpose of Study One was to engage the student teachers in consideration of general issues of educational theory and practice and, in particular, to model a constructivist approach to knowledge. For this purpose, the student body was divided into a number of seminar groups. Each seminar group consisted of about fifteen student teachers (on average) from a range of subject specialties (primary and secondary) and two staff who acted as leaders. Study Two was concerned with knowledge of subject matter, curriculum and pedagogical strategies. For that part of the program, students were grouped according to their specialist areas (i.e., primary or secondary subjects).

The present research study focused on a twenty-four week period during the first year of Study One. This included two sections of the Study One program known as Phase Two (twelve weeks) and Phase Three (six weeks) together with an intervening practicum (six weeks).

During Phase Two, the student teachers studied case stories written by practising teachers. They were provided with about fifteen cases and were expected to read them and respond to the issues raised by as many of them as possible in the time provided. This exercise could be carried out in pairs, small groups or individually. Selected cases were also discussed in plenary sessions of the seminar group. To assist in the process the student teachers were provided with the
"Generic Model for the Use of Cases"

1. Define case issues / problems.
2. Examine perspectives and engage in critical appraisal.
3. Define and engage with the professional knowledge, theory and research required by the case.
4. Apply personal and professional knowledge, theory and research.
5. Recommend and justify a course of action or actions.
6. Analyse the likely consequences of such actions.
   (University of Sydney, 1996).

At the conclusion of Phase Two, each student teacher was required to submit a 4000 word written analysis of one of the cases studied. Assessment of the assignment was based on the achievement of the following four outcomes:

- a brief contextualisation of the case and the issues raised by it.
- an analysis of the case in terms of the policy documents relevant to the case.
- an analysis of the case in terms of theory and research relevant to the case.
- a consideration of the way in which theory, research and policy documents assist in the development of a plan of action to be applied to the case.
   (University of Sydney, 1996).

Phase Two was followed by a six week practicum during which student teachers were expected to find a suitable topic or issue, relevant to their practicum experience, that could form the basis for their own original case story. This case story was then written during Phase Three, which followed the practicum. Whilst engaged in this case authorship exercise students were given opportunities to discuss their stories with fellow students, thus providing them with feed-back that
might assist in the case construction. At the end of Phase Three, students submitted their completed cases for assessment.

Thus, during the period under review, there were three main focal points or events for each participant - the analysis of cases written by experienced teachers; the first practicum; and the writing of an original case story, based upon practicum experiences. These events are not to be seen in isolation from each other or from the context in which they occurred. On the contrary, they were all designed to contribute to the sequential development of knowledge and were inter-related. Therefore, whilst the main focus of this study remains the relationship between case-based approaches to learning and the development of PPK, the two events which involved cases cannot be separated from the other significant event, the practicum. Having established the context in which the study took place, more information about the participating student teachers will now be considered.

**THE PARTICIPANTS**

The participants in the research project were selected from the Study One seminar group of which the researcher was co-leader. The fourteen group members were acquainted with the research proposal and volunteers were sought to participate in the project. This resulted in a sample group of six student teachers, three male and three female. Of these, one was preparing to be a primary school teacher. The others were specialising in secondary subject areas which included English, History, Science, Japanese, Art and Teaching English to Speakers of Other
Languages (TESOL). This range of subject disciplines, reflected the overall character of the M. Teach cohort. Thus, it was found that the make-up of the voluntary group, employed in the research, was reasonably representative of the total population of M. Teach students. If this had not been so, there was an option to include members of other seminar groups. It also transpired that the six participants seemed to provide a cross-section in terms of their personalities and background. However, no attempt was made to generalise from the results obtained with this small sample.

The pseudonyms given to the six participants (and their areas of specialty) were as follows: Bronwyn (Secondary Art); Kevin (Primary); Malcolm (Secondary Japanese/TESOL); Rebekah (Secondary English/History); Sandra (Secondary Science); and Trevor (Secondary History/TESOL). The use of such a small sample group of volunteers was considered appropriate in view of certain constraints posed by the nature of the study. It as been observed that: “Case study research typically contains ‘thick descriptions’ of teachers and teaching that portray the complexity of teaching...” (Grossman 1992, p. 229). It would have been extremely difficult to achieve such in depth treatment if an attempt had been made to include all of the student teachers in the M. Teach program. Also, the time commitment and personal involvement expected of those taking part in the study meant that the number of student teachers willing to be involved was limited.

The sample group having been established, it was necessary to recognise the complexities of interviewer-respondent interactions (Merriam 1998, pp. 85-87).
The choice of the researcher's own seminar group as the source of participants had the advantage of facilitating researcher-participant contact. However, it was important to be sensitive to the possibility that the respective social roles of the interviewer, as seminar co-leader, and respondents, as seminar group members, could have some effect on the outcome of the inquiry (Keats 1993, pp. 8-9). For example, the fact that much of the participants' work, included in the study, was subject to supervision and assessment could lead to some conflict of interest. To overcome this, the case exercises submitted by all participants were marked by the other co-leader and none of the participants were supervised by the researcher during the practicum. The sources of data and their analysis will now be discussed.

**COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA**

Four sources of data were used in the project. These were: a series of three interviews (one at the end of Phase Two, one during practicum and one at the end of Phase Three); a written case analysis prepared by students at the end of Phase Two; an original case story written by students during phase Three; and a survey, completed at the time of the final interview, whereby students were asked to identify those "desirable attributes of beginning teachers" most likely to be promoted by the use of cases in the M. Teach program.

The use of several data sources was considered necessary because of certain complexities inherent in the research topic itself. As has already been stated, the research was seeking to explore the connections between case methods and the
construction of PPK. Those connections will, by the very nature of PPK, be
different for each individual and, as has been suggested, the impact of the case
exercises cannot be separated from the practicum experience which, again, was
unique to each participant.

Because of this, the use of more than one source of data served two purposes.
Firstly, it provided triangulation which has been described as “...a process of using
multiple perceptions to clarify meaning, verifying the repeatability of an
observation or interpretation” (Stake 2000, p. 443). Secondly, the use of different
ways of extracting information could be said to satisfy the need to go beyond
triangulation as a technical means of validating information towards a “holistic
understanding” resulting in “plausible explanations about the phenomena being
studied” (Mathison cited in Merriam 1998, p. 204).

Information from all four sources was collected from four out of the six
participants. One student, Trevor, failed to submit the case analysis exercise at the
end of Phase Two although he did complete the case authorship exercise and all
three interviews. Another student, Rebekah, completed the case analysis and the
first interview but suspended her candidature early in the practicum and, therefore,
did not write a case story. Some months later she participated in a second
interview (see Interview IIa in Appendix A).

It was an important underlying assumption of this study that the uniqueness of the
individual participants was of central importance. Thus, apart from being
interested in the ways in which the participants, as a group, responded to case methods, there was an acceptance of the fact that the cases would impact upon individuals in different ways. With this in mind, it did not seem appropriate to use classical content analysis which "...historically has been very quantitative in nature" (Merriam 1998, p. 160) and "...comprises techniques for reducing texts to a unit-by-variable matrix and analysing that matrix quantitatively to test hypotheses" (Ryan and Bernard 2000, p. 785). Such an approach would seem to diminish the richness of the values and attitudes expressed by the participants.

Instead, the decision was made to use methods more in keeping with phenomenological analysis which "...attends to ferreting out the essence or basic structure of a phenomenon" (Merriam 1998, p. 158), in this case, the use of case methods by a group of student teachers during a teacher education program. In order to do this, in the management of data from the written assignments, themes were used as the units of analysis. Themes were also important in analysing the responses to the survey. The different data sources and the ways in which they were analysed will now be discussed in more detail.

The Interviews

The initial source of data collection for the study was by means of a series of three interviews. Each interview consisted of a mixture of semi-structured and open-ended questions which were pre-determined by the interviewer. The questions for each interview are included in Appendix A. In addition, the interviews included
supplementary questions which evolved as the interviews went on. The aim was to introduce as much flexibility as possible, whilst still addressing the perceived areas of importance, in recognition of Merriam’s contention that: “Less structured formats assume that individual respondents define the world in unique ways” (Merriam 1998, p. 74).

Each of the three interviews was conducted separately with each participant. In every instance the entire interview, with the exception of normal greetings on arrival, was recorded on audio tape. This was later transcribed by the researcher. On occasions, the sound quality on the tape was poor with the result that some words or small groups of words had to be omitted and these are indicated in the transcript by a series of dots (...) in the text. However, where such omissions occurred they did not seriously interfere with the flow or meaning of the text. A sample of interview transcripts may be found in Appendix B. This sample covers all interviews conducted with three of the participants, selected to represent differing personalities, background and experience.

The three interviews were spread across the period under study. This was based on the assumption that, in this way, it might be possible to capture the subtle changes that were taking place in PPK during that period. Hence the interviews were timed to coincide with the three significant events referred to above. The first interview was conducted at the end of Phase Two, after the submission of the case analysis exercise. The second took place during practicum and the third at the end
of Phase Three, after completion of the case authorship exercise. In the discussion that follows, when reference is made to a particular interview question, roman numerals will indicate the interview and arabic numerals the question within that interview. Thus, II-5 would refer to the fifth question in the second interview.

Although the three interviews were deliberately timed to coincide with these three events, the questions asked in each interview were not confined to a specific event but ranged over a number of issues. This was done in order to explore the ways in which the student teachers' experiences, individually and collectively, were influencing growth in various aspects of knowledge. The framing of questions for the interviews was informed by five themes which seemed to be relevant to the purpose of the study. These were: the student teachers; the case analysis exercise; the practicum experience; the case authorship exercise; and evidence of PPK development among the participants.

Since the study was attempting to examine the ways in which the use of case methods affected the construction of PPK by the participating student teachers, it was first necessary to know something of the participants themselves. Any form of change needs to be measured from a starting point. Thus, some questions in the first interview were aimed at gaining some knowledge about the individual student teachers so that this could be kept in mind and followed up in future interviews.

It soon became apparent that this first theme - the student teachers - needed to be broken down into sub-themes. Three were decided upon and these were: prior
experience of teaching; preconceptions about teaching; and future expectations. In the first interview, participants were asked if they had any previous teaching experience of any kind (I-1) and how they felt that this might prepare them for the practicum (I-2). Two questions in the second interview (II-1 and II-2, IIA-1 and IIA-2) invited them to comment on how well they thought they had been prepared (both by their own experiences and the course itself) for the practicum and, also, how that preparation might have been improved.

The student teachers’ preconceptions about teaching were judged on the basis of one question in the first interview (I-6) which asked participants to describe the qualities that they thought were required by an effective teacher. A similar question (II-9, IIA-8) in the second interview was used to ascertain any changes of attitude that might have been brought about by the practicum experience.

In the discussion about the nature of PPK, in Chapter One, mention was made of the importance of the individual’s future expectations, working in conjunction with past experiences, in the construction of knowledge (Connelly, Clandinin et al. 1997, p. 66). For this reason, the student teachers were asked, before practicum, what aspects of their teaching they expected to find rewarding (I-3) and challenging (I-4). They were also asked what their goals were for their practicum experience (I-7). Goals for the future were also addressed in the other two interviews.
The second major theme was the case analysis exercise with some questions aimed at finding out the extent to which participants found the pre-practicum work with cases relevant to their practical work or to their own writing of cases. A number of questions, mostly during the second interview, were aimed at gaining information on the impact of the practicum experience, which was the third theme. The fourth theme, case authorship, accounted for most of the questions in the third interview. Finally, there were numerous questions, most of them used in addressing the themes already mentioned, that proved useful in gathering information about the fifth theme, PPK development.

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Table 1
Breakdown of Interview Questions by Theme
In the analysis of the interviews, data resulting from all questions were used. The spread of questions across the various themes is illustrated in Table 1. The numbers in the table cells refer to the questions as they are numbered in the list of Interview Questions (Appendix A). It will be apparent that some questions were referred to in relation to more than one of the themes. For example, question 6 in the first interview (I-6) was directly concerned with the student teachers' preconceptions about teaching. However, the responses to that question were also seen as relevant when discussing both the practicum experience and PPK development.

The interviews provided a valuable source of information about the student teachers and their opinions about a wide range of areas, including the case methods used in the M.Teach program. From this information, it was possible to make some observations about the ways in which their PPK was growing over the period of the study. As has been mentioned earlier, however, it was not considered desirable to rely solely on the interviews but to examine other sources of data to substantiate the information that was emerging.

The Case Exercises

Mention has already been made of the interrelationship between the three significant events that took place during the period under consideration. Case analysis, the practicum and case authorship were all subject to scrutiny during the interviews with a view to finding evidence of developing PPK. In the analysis of
the case exercises, however, more attention was paid to finding direct relationships between case methods and PPK. Nevertheless, the influences of the practicum will, no doubt be apparent, especially when considering the case authorship exercise.

The two case exercises represent two ways of using cases for pedagogical purposes. The first involved the novice teachers in examining and analysing a case story written by a practising teacher in order to raise awareness of educational issues. The second called upon the novices to write original case stories based upon their own first practicum experiences. The difference between the two is immediately apparent. Whilst the first involves taking the role of an outsider looking at another's practice, the other is based upon the student teacher's own personal experience.

Both exercises were submitted as assignments and each was used as the sole means of assessment for a phase of the M.Teach program. Because of their difference in nature, the criteria on which they were assessed also differed. In the case analysis assignment the M.Teach students were expected to: contextualise the case and the issues it raised; to consider relevant policy documents and relevant theory and research; and to show how theory, research and policy may combine to suggest an appropriate course of action (Course Outline in University of Sydney, 1996). In the case authorship exercise they were expected to: write a readable and interesting story, rich in description and detail, with a suitable title; demonstrate the
connections between teaching and student actions/outcomes; and show evidence of explanations, interpretations and judgements relevant to the case story (Course Outline Phase 3, pp. 1-2 in University of Sydney, 1996).

Despite the above differences, the data provided by the two case exercises were analysed, for the purposes of the present research, according to a common framework. The reason for this was that the aim of the research was to consider what evidence, if any, each exercise revealed of the participants' developing PPK. Hence, the framework used in analysing the data was informed by available information about the nature of PPK, as discussed at some length in Chapter One.

In the earlier discussion, it was suggested that there are four viewpoints or orientations from which PPK can be approached. PPK is related to other forms of knowledge. At the same time, it is related to personal experience. Also of great importance is the context within which the PPK is being constructed. Finally, an individual's PPK cannot be separated from the thought processes of the individual.

It was further proposed that the many factors that contribute to a teacher's PPK can be classified in terms of what Collinson has called:

- a triad of knowledge:
  - professional knowledge (subject matter, curricular and pedagogical knowledge)
  - interpersonal knowledge (relationships with students, the educational community and the local community)
  - intrapersonal knowledge (reflection, ethics and dispositions).

Based on studies of exemplary teachers, Collinson claimed that: "... their understanding of what it means to be a teacher involves developing and integrating professional, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge in ways that allow them to structure the physical, social and intellectual environment of their classrooms" (Collinson 1996, P. 10).

In analysing the case exercises, the triad of knowledge was used as a basis on which to examine the data. It could be argued, of course, that this would only address one of the orientations (other forms of knowledge) mentioned above. However, it is argued that the other three - personal experience, context and the individual's thought processes - are implicitly involved in the development and integration of the three forms of the triad of knowledge.

In other words, the manner in which individuals interpret specific items of information and use them to construct their own knowledge will be influenced by past experience, the context in which they find themselves and the way in which their thought processes operate at the time. However, specific reference will be made to personal experience, context and thought processes in a summarising section of the analysis, to ensure that their importance is not overlooked. Thus, the format for discussing the case exercises completed by the participants will be as
follows:

A. Case Analysis Exercise

1. The Cases Chosen for analysis
2. The Written Responses to the Cases -  
   Data classified and discussed in terms of:  
   • Professional Knowledge  
   • Interpersonal Knowledge  
   • Intrapersonal Knowledge  
3. Summary of the Case Analysis Exercise  
   Significant characteristics of the way  
   the exercise was approached  
   The extent to which this reflects:  
   • personal experience  
   • context  
   • thought processes of the individual  
   Evidence, if any, of developing PPK

B. Case Writing Exercise

1. The Case Stories  
2. The Content of the Case Stories in terms of:  
   • Professional Knowledge  
   • Interpersonal Knowledge  
   • Intrapersonal Knowledge  
3. Summary of the Case Writing Exercise  
   Significant characteristics of the way the exercise  
   was approached  
   The extent to which this reflects:  
   • personal experience  
   • context  
   • thought processes of the individual  
   Evidence, if any, of developing PPK.

As was stated earlier, the analysis of the case exercises was partly to verify the  
information derived from the interviews and partly to supplement that information  
with greater detail. Whereas the interview data were based on what the  
participants said about their work with case methods, the case exercises made it  
possible to observe that work from a different perspective.
One further data source was used to provide additional information about the way in which the student teachers reacted to the use of case methods. This was the survey.

The DABT Survey

At the time of the third interview, the participants were given a copy of a list entitled "Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers" (DABT), which had been prepared by the Ministerial Advisory Council on Teacher Education and Quality in Teaching (MACTEQT, 1995), and were asked to consider the extent to which their development of any of these attributes may have been assisted by the case-based methods used in the M.Teach program. A copy of the list, showing the results of the survey, appears in Appendix C. As the completion of the survey took place during an interview, the interviewer took the opportunity to question the participants about some of the attributes chosen (as well as some that were not chosen) in order to help in the interpretation of the results.

This list of attributes was chosen for the survey for two reasons. Firstly, while it is not suggested that this list represents the only way of viewing teacher competence, it does appear to represent a broad cross-section of practical aspects of teaching which reflect the teacher's growing PPK. Secondly, it had already been used as the model for a checklist, entitled "Expected Teaching Outcomes of Master of Teaching Student Teachers" (University of Sydney, 1996a), which was to be used by university supervisors and cooperating teachers to monitor the progress of
the student teachers. Therefore, it would seem reasonable to expect that the case methods used in the M.Teach program should be making some contribution to that program's own professed objectives.

The list comprises thirty-five attributes divided into five categories: the ethics of teaching; the content of teaching; the practice of teaching; interaction with families and the community; and professionalism and professional development. The student teachers were asked to mark every attribute that they believed had been assisted by the use of case methods and, also, to indicate any of these where they thought that the impact of cases was especially important.

A simple count of the number of responses for each attribute was made. This made it possible to rank the attributes in perceived order of importance. In considering the results, particular attention was paid to those attributes which were chosen by five or six of the six participants. In discussing the results of the survey, some of the verbal comments made by the participants, in conversation with the researcher immediately after completing the survey, will be used to supplement the numerical data.

This survey served a dual function. It gave the student teachers an opportunity to think more deeply about the ways in which case methods had been influencing their development as teachers. It also provided the researcher with a means of verifying the evidence provided by the other sources.
EXPECTED RESEARCH OUTCOMES

A research project involving such a small population sample could not be expected to provide generalised outcomes applicable to the M. Teach program as a whole. Its aim was to consider the ways in which part of that program affected six unique individuals in their construction of PPK. Furthermore, the idiosyncratic nature of PPK itself makes it difficult to generalise about the ways in which that type of knowledge can best be developed in beginning teachers.

Apart from these limitations, the study did provide some valuable insights into the ways in which case methods were used with six individuals who differed considerably in personality and background. By using four different data sources, it was possible to explore the complexities of the relationships between case analysis, case authorship and the practicum experience. The following two chapters present the data from the investigation.
CHAPTER FOUR
ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEWS

During the period covered by the study, three interviews were conducted. The rationale on which these were based has already been discussed. The interviews were timed to coincide with the three significant events that took place during the period - the case analysis exercise, the practicum and the case authorship exercise. As indicated in the Chapter Three, these were not seen as isolated events and the questions in any one interview were not confined to the one event. Instead, the questions, throughout the three interviews, were designed to address five key themes - the student teachers (their prior experience, their preconceptions about teaching and their future expectations), the case analysis exercise, the practicum experience, the case authorship exercise and PPK development.

In the discussion which follows, there will be heavy reliance on the words of participants, in reporting their responses to relevant questions. These responses will be used as exemplars of the themes that are being developed and, to avoid bias, will be representative of all participants. It is also the intention that the use of the respondents' own words will help to convey something of their personalities and the degree of intensity that they showed for the issues under discussion. Quotations from the transcript of interviews will be shown in italics. In order to preserve the narrative style, a decision has been made not to observe the usual convention of separating long quotations from the text, except on occasions when a dialogue
between interviewer and participant is being reported.

The interview questions are to be found in Appendix A, whilst Appendix B contains a sample interview transcript. When reference is made to a particular interview question, roman numerals will indicate the interview and arabic numerals the question within that interview. Thus, II-5 would refer to the fifth question in the second interview. One participant, Rebekah, was interviewed only twice, for reasons already discussed. Her second interview, IIa, was a composite of questions from II and III as well as specific discussion about her own unique situation.

References for direct quotations from participants will show the interview number (i.e., I, II, IIa or III). This will be followed by the initial of the participant and a number, in arabic numerals, which indicates the line(s) in the transcript of interview where the quotation can be found. For example, I/S, 18-21 refers to a statement by Sandra which is to be found on lines 18-21 of the transcript for interview I.

THE STUDENT TEACHERS

Whilst the six M.Teach students interviewed were all taking part in a teacher education program for the first time, they entered that program with different backgrounds and experience. Therefore, in order to consider the ways in which they were affected by the three significant learning experiences mentioned earlier,
it is important to have some indication of the starting point for each student in terms of their experiences and knowledge about teaching.

Thus, the knowledge to be gained from the first practicum experience would be developed from a foundation made up of prior experiences of teaching; preconceptions about teaching; and expectations. Data relevant to these three sub-categories have been drawn from participants' answers to several questions in Interviews I and II.

**Prior Experience of Teaching**

The first question of the first interview (I-1) related to the extent to which participants had had any prior experience of being teachers. This was followed by a question (I-2) asking whether they felt that this prior experience had helped to prepare them for the practicum that was about to commence. The purpose of asking these questions was to establish a starting point from which to consider the impact of the practicum experience. In varying degrees, all participants had had some experiences of what it was like to be in the role of teacher although, in most cases, those experiences were not equivalent to the type of teaching that they would be doing during practicum.

**Bronwyn** was training to be an Art teacher. She had previously accompanied a group of art students on an excursion to Luna Park and then on a two-day camp.
"I was there to help with technical things in sculpture. Mainly I was just there to sort of answer questions and provide films and things. I wasn't actually teaching lessons. I was just solving problems." (I/B, 10-12). At the time of the interview, she was also working in a similar capacity at the College of Fine Arts (I/B, 15-19).

As a result of this experience, Bronwyn felt that she was "...very aware of wanting to respond to the kids' individual needs" (I/B, 22-23). At the same time, she recognised that a great deal of planning that would be necessary "...to even get the ball rolling" (I/B, 26).

Kevin, who was training for primary teaching, was able to recall experiences at school where he tutored fellow students (I/K, 7-12). More recently, he had worked at one of the Vacation Play Centres organised for primary school children. Kevin felt that his experiences, especially his work at the Vacation Play Centre, had given him "... some idea of what to expect" (I/K, 16) and, also, "...some sort of familiarity with the environment that children create" (I/K, 18-19).

Malcolm specialised in Japanese and TESOL and, at the time of the interview was already teaching Japanese to adults, two nights per week. He was also working in the Education faculty at the University, one hour per week "...topping up Japanese skills for primary school teachers" (I/M, 13-14) as well as tutoring two High School students privately. He also reported that he had had experience, in Japan, teaching English to Japanese students. As a result he was able to say: "I feel as though hopefully I'll be able to start, feeling a little bit more comfortable with
the whole idea of just getting up there and teaching” (I/M, 21-23).

Rebekah was training to teach English and History in secondary schools. Her experiences were in the area of religious education and she reported that she had been involved in: "...something called Beach Mission and that involves teaching teenagers and running programs for them in the holiday break. I taught them as regards to Christianity ....I've also been involved with an ISCF group at Glebe High last year. That involved small group discussions so I guess you could classify that as micro-teaching in a sense" (I/R, 5-10). She felt that such experiences had provided her with the ability to relate to the age group with which she would be working. She also felt that the strategies she had used in such activities as bible study and group discussion were a good preparation and had given her confidence.

Sandra was a science graduate who was returning to study after several years, during which time she had begun raising a family. She reported that: "When I worked at the University of Sydney, I was a Technical Officer in the third year teaching laboratory there and I did quite a lot of practical demonstrating with the third year students" (I/S, 5-8). This had been later supplemented by teaching experience of a different kind and she observed: "I also have two small children and when we lived in the States I was involved in a cooperative pre-school where it was mandatory for parents to spend one day a week in the classroom with their children" (I/S, 8-11).

According to Sandra, this background had alerted her to some of the practicalities
of teaching. As she pointed out: "I think it's made me realise there are a lot of practical concerns that you have to deal with when you are involved with teaching people.....but also there is a great difference between the children that you come across, in the...things they want to learn...the ways they approach learning" (I/S, 14-18).

Trevor was enrolled in the course specialising in History and TESOL and he was another who was already involved in teaching adults. As he observed: "...recently I have been teaching at the Adult Migrant Education Service at Surry Hills...I've done some group conversation classes there and I've just started, in the last two weeks, teaching small groups of two to four students and I'll be continuing with that over a couple of months at least" (I/T, 5-9). This work in adult education, together with activities such as leading seminar discussions had, according to Trevor, made him feel more confident about going into a school (I/T, 33-41).

Thus, all of the participants had had some experience of being in a teaching role of one kind or another. In addition to their experiences outside the university, they had been exposed to a variety of experiences - school visits, seminar discussions, the study of cases written by practising teachers - which, hopefully, would prepare them for the practical act of teaching when it came about. This was discussed in the second interview, after the commencement of the practicum. Question one (II-1, IIa - 1) dealt with the extent to which the participants felt prepared for the practicum and question two (II-2, IIa - 2) asked for suggestions as to how they might have been better prepared.
Bronwyn felt that she was "...well prepared in terms of hypothetical things that could go wrong for the different sorts of schools I might encounter, but I feel that I was a bit under prepared in terms of lesson planning We had some lessons set aside in Study Two for lesson planning but I came out of those lessons without fully understanding just what it is you are supposed to put into lesson planning (II/B, 6-11). In terms of better preparation she felt that she needed to know more about: "...the fine differences between aims and objectives because I wasn’t really certain as to what the difference between those two things is so that’s kind of made it awkward for me in terms of my lesson plans..." (II/B, 17-20).

Lesson preparation also featured in the comments made by Kevin, who commented: "Well, I seemed prepared enough. I mean, I had to spend more time writing lesson notes during prac.....apart from that I had knowledge...what I wanted to teach..." (II/K, 5-7) although he felt that he could have been provided with "...a little more on classroom management because those things on classroom management which I did utilise were usually, sort of, intuitive, or I was given tips throughout the practicum which I then tried out and used. That would have been good and also, also maybe a little bit more in the way of forms of lesson notes, even though I know there isn’t a recipe..but having a variety of lesson notes and ways of implementing them...and also ways in which to implement a unit of work..." (II/K, 10-17).

Malcolm seemed a little less sure of what was required in terms of preparation and made the following comment: "...I suppose there's nothing like doing the job to
know what you're up against.....whatever you did at university, before we came, doesn't really prepare you" (II/M, 6-8). The part of the university course which he seemed to find most appropriate was school visitation which happened early in the course and he suggested; "... we could have had more school visits....the thing I'm thinking of, when you say prepared, is the actual being in a real classroom with real students......don't know how you go about giving that experience at the university" (II/M, 11-14).

Like Malcolm, Rebekah felt that her university activities had not fully prepared her for the reality of the classroom. Compared with the other students, Rebekah represented something of a special case, in that she did not complete the practicum. After one week in the school, she decided to suspend her candidature in the M.Teach program for twelve months. This decision appears to have been prompted by a number of circumstances which will be discussed elsewhere.

A most conscientious and hard working student, whose completed course assignments and lesson preparation were exemplary, she found, nevertheless, that her first encounter with classroom teaching took her by surprise. As she explained: "One thing I found was, once I got into the classroom I looked down and I saw, for example in a year seven class, I saw thirty kids all sitting there sort of looking at you and waiting for your next move...I don't know. It was quite an experience thinking here are thirty kids I, somehow, had to be able to instruct in some way and have them respond in some way...and I found...I did a lot of reading, I did all the course work I was given, I went and did extra reading and did a lot of thinking on

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all the aspects of the program, probably more than in my previous degree.......but I got there and I found there are a whole lot of other issues that came up that I hadn't really thought much about and the things that I did know, that I had learnt in the program, I felt like I was only really scratching the surface......I had lessons on lesson planning and teaching and learning styles and different levels of proficiency that kids are at but I really felt that the complexity of the situation was something that didn't really hit me until I got to the school" (IIa/R, 7-22).

When asked how she might have been better prepared, Rebekah compared herself with students, on practicum at the same school, who were from another university and enrolled in a differently structured training program. "The thing that struck me when I was at the prac school was I was working with other prac students who came from... a four-year Bachelor of Education program and at that time I'd been in the course for less than a year.....that I'd been exposed to teaching and learning and epistemology, theory and methodology and while some parts of the course overlapped with what I had done previously in my Arts degree, I found that it was such a short term exposure ....in some ways I felt they had had more time to sit at ease with the concept......I felt that I was on a bit of an information overload" (IIa/R, 34-43). When asked what was missing from her preparation she replied: "I think just a long term exposure and more opportunities to think through the ideas at a deeper level although I did work hard to work on the material that I was given. It was all still very new and all a little bit bewildering" (IIa/R, 49-52).

Sandra had similar problems in relating her university experience to the practical
aspects of teaching. "I think it's very difficult to prepare for some of the classrooms where we teach....I think I was prepared in terms of how to organise material, in terms of what kind of strategies to use in the classroom as far as giving the content goes...but I don't know that I was that well prepared for management" (II/S, 6-10). She did, however, offer a possible solution to this. "Yes, we should have a class of kids at the university! that we can practice on!...That's perhaps the only way...or maybe school visits where you actually get a chance to be, I don't know, more interactive....with the ...children...for ten minutes..." (II/S, 13-16).

Trevor felt that he was reasonably well prepared for practicum, especially in the area of lesson preparation although he did remark that: "There are other things like classroom management techniques...things that you are going to have to pick up more or less directly, I guess, as a result of the prac experience" (II/T, 13-16). In terms of being better prepared he, too, tended to think that earlier exposure to what he called "actual teaching"(II/T, 21) would have been beneficial in preparing him for the more intensive practicum activity. As he said: "...we've been in our schools and observing right from the beginning but it's possible that if we, rather than just doing observations throughout the first year of the M.Teach, consider some involvement where you do have more actual participation in classrooms as a teacher's aid, a teacher's assistant and gradually moving up to taking classes and spend one day a week during the course, whatever it might be. That's...one of the ways.." (II/T, 23-29).

All of the participants, then, had had some prior experience of some form of
teaching and, in all instances, they had a positive view of that experience. As a result, they all felt reasonably comfortable about the impending practicum, believing that they had an idea of what to expect. When interviewed during the practicum, however, they were becoming aware of ways in which their prior experience and the course work at the university had not fully prepared them for the reality of classroom teaching.

It seems worth noting that none of the prior experiences mentioned by the participants, even those of the two who were involved in formal teaching, had taken place within the context of compulsory schooling. This, perhaps, explains the fact that most of the negative comments about preparation for the classroom were related to the complexities of classroom management. This concern led to some suggestions that more frequent visits to schools, with some interaction with students prior to the practicum, would have been beneficial.

One important effect of prior experience is the tendency for preservice teachers to develop preconceptions, about teaching, which they then carry with them into their first practicum. Moreover, it could be suggested that the way in which they cope with that practicum experience will be related to the extent to which their preconceptions match reality. The interview data relating to the participants' preconceptions will now be discussed.
Preconceptions about Teaching

Underlying many of the above comments about their own prior experiences with teaching, are assumptions about what teaching is and how teachers are expected to behave. One question in the first interview (I-6) attempted to better understand the participants' perceptions about the role of the teacher by asking them to summarise the qualities of an effective teacher. A similar question was asked during the second interview to determine whether or not the practicum experience had brought about any noticeable changes of attitude. The differences between the responses in the two interviews will be discussed in a later section of this chapter. In this section, the set of responses to the question asked in the first interview will be considered as an indication of the thinking of the participants prior to embarking on the practicum experience.

To Bronwyn, the qualities of an effective teacher were "...flexibility, being organised as well, knowing your subject, being able to ask good questions that lead the kids in the right direction, you know, if you get them to think by themselves, sort of, in a Socratic way..." (I/B, 52-55).

Rebekah also placed considerable emphasis on the teacher's ability to organise whilst at the same time recognising the complexities of a teacher's work. "I think they need to be thoroughly acquainted with the syllabus document. They have to be acquainted with the school policies and how to tailor their syllabus or, you know, the emerging curriculum within those frameworks....but, most importantly,
I think, the teacher has to see what the needs of the students are and has to be able to be flexible and insightful and has to have an understanding of the backgrounds and the influences that can either facilitate or hinder the learning experience so I think a teacher would have to have a handle on all those things and I also think, for that reason, that I couldn't hope to be a really efficient teacher until I had been out in the classroom for a few years" (I/R, 55-66).

Kevin went further than this by linking effective teaching with the learning process. Thus, he remarked: "...an effective teacher is someone who is able to teach and make sure that their students have actually learnt something, if they're going to be effective, whether that makes them a good teacher I don't know. I think a good teacher, from the constructivist viewpoint, is someone who facilitates learning and helps students learn on their own terms, not just the teacher's. I think that can be incredibly effective, not just in the short term..." (I/K, 36-43).

Similarly, Malcolm felt that an effective teacher was one with a capacity for: "...producing students who have learnt,.....and perhaps someone who has a good rapport, someone who is liked - not necessarily liked but respected and liked..." (I/M, 42-44).

Sandra was another who emphasised the importance of the learners and summed up her feelings by saying: "I think an effective teacher has lots of different strategies for reaching the children in her class and I think that she....also.....has the ability to relinquish control...you know, I don't think teachers can be effective
if they're always telling the children the way they want them to see things or the way they want them to do things" (I/S, 41-45).

Unlike the others, Trevor seemed to vacillate between the centrality of the teacher and the autonomy of the learners. Beginning with the premise that an effective teacher produces effective students, he talked about a need to: "... find out what...qualities...that are going to be ... developed, instilled, engineered....in the student...but what kind of qualities and capabilities do you want to develop in an individual student?...in groups of students? and that's how you figure out what an effective teacher is ... so students, I guess, you have to make them self-reliant but you have to make them cooperative, you have to make them, you know, the idea is that they should like learning that they should know how to.... I think that....basically.......we're not there to teach learning we're there to teach how to learn so that any student that comes out of the class is able to implement skills..." (I/T, 145-155). He also commented that an effective teacher needed to be "involved", to "care" and to know when to "keep a distance" (I/T, 157-159).

Although the above data are derived from one question about the qualities seen to be important for a teacher, they give some insight into the preconceptions of the participants. Responses to the question tended to deal with such issues as teachers' knowledge and their ability to impart that knowledge to others. All made some reference to the development of relationships with students but they varied in what they saw as the teacher's role in such relationships. Three of the students, Kevin, Malcolm and Sandra, referred to such issues as the facilitation of learning (I/K, 41,
I/M, 42) and relinquishing control (I/S, 43), which suggested a student-centred approach and seemed to reflect the constructivist philosophy of the M.Teach program. However, for the others, the main emphasis seems to have been on the teacher as the central figure in the classroom.

It follows that, in addition to their various teaching-related experiences and the preconceptions that they had built up over a long period of time, novice teachers would have certain expectations about what the immediate and long-term future might hold for them as they began their teaching careers. These will now be considered.

**Expectations**

Some evidence of the participants' expectations about teaching was implicit in the answers to Question I-2, previously discussed, when students were asked to anticipate how their previous experiences would help them to adjust to the classroom. In this section, data derived from three other questions (I-3, I-4, I-7) will be used to explore those expectations in greater detail.

In Questions I-3 and I-4 the participants were asked what they thought would be most rewarding and most challenging about the practicum and in Question I-7 they were asked what goals they hoped to achieve during the practicum experience. These questions, regarding rewards, challenges and goals were followed up in the second interview and the responses to these will be discussed later.
One of the student teachers, Kevin, would not attempt to make any predictions about either the rewards or challenges of his first practicum, stating: "I'll just take it as it comes... because I've never taught in a school environment before so I try not to go into any situation with expectations" (I/K, 21-24).

Of the other participants, three felt that the main reward would come from surviving and proving to themselves that they could teach. Bronwyn, for example, felt that: "...getting some experience teaching (sic) would be the most rewarding aspect and also getting to know whether the job is for me or not because you can never learn that from theory, um, and also...relate well to the kids...that might be rewarding as well" (I/B,28-31). Malcolm echoed these sentiments when he said that the most rewarding thing for him would be "...probably proving that I can do it - this is a two year course - this is our first practicum - there is a psychological barrier there - I think overcoming this, getting through the six week practicum will be a joy in itself" (I/M, 26-29). According to Sandra: "Perhaps, if I can just get through the first couple of weeks......I'll think that's pretty rewarding..." (I/S, 20-21).

Rebekah and Trevor both expected their rewards to come from their interaction with students. Rebekah felt that she would be rewarded by: "...having students spark me off with ideas in ways of approaching things because I feel a little that I am fairly academic in my outlook because I am used to such higher order thinking skills and discussion and evaluation which is far removed from the way it is manifest in a school and so I really need to reduce it down in a sense and
reach where they're at..." (I/R, 21-26). Similarly, Trevor remarked: "...adolescents have fierce minds, wonderfully fierce minds...I like to engage with the minds of other people and I think that adolescents, in a lot of respects, do as well. What do I expect to be rewarding about it? Nothing at the time. Hopefully, I'm going to meet some people. I'm going to find out how I can develop myself as a professional and all that sort of stuff..." (VT, 57-67).

Expectations about interaction with students featured even more strongly when the participants were asked to predict their greatest challenge. As Sandra explained: "...it's going to be challenging to stand up in front of a class of thirty little faces sort of looking at me and expecting me to do something...especially when they're looking at me and wondering how old I am, where I live, why did I wear that skirt today...not really interested at all in what I've got to say to them" (US, 23-27).

Trevor, too, was unsure about how his students would react, when he said that his main challenges would be: "Belligerence, idiocy and conservatism, I guess. My own, um, belligerence, idiocy and conservatism and those of other people as well, challenging, coming to grips with things I don't understand because I don't have any experience or knowledge of them and that means things in people...that means cultural characteristics ...(VT, 85-89).

The challenges expressed by the other student teachers were similar but more specifically related to discipline and class management. Thus, for Malcolm, his main challenge would be "...keeping the class going, discipline I suppose. or just class management, class control..." (IM, 31-32) and Rebekah, when asked about
challenges, remarked that: "...one that does loom on my horizon is the idea of classroom management but that's not the only thing. I think I'm quite concerned about how do you help students to get from point A to B so, if you have a particular learning outcome, knowing what things will bring them along that path." (I/R, 33-37).

Bronwyn was another who looked upon discipline as a challenge "...because I find it hard to discipline or organise myself so, let alone do it for others" (I/B, 33-34). However, her fears in this regard were allayed to some extent by her preconceived ideas about the school in which she had been placed and she went on to say: "That was my biggest worry but, this being a private school where discipline is generated right through from primary school, that was less of a problem than just basic lesson planning" (I/B, 34-37). She later commented: "I feel that, in terms of discipline...I am being let in the shallow end of the pool rather than being chucked in the deep end this time but it's got different challenges in terms of presenting stuff that's really interesting and challenging for them in Year 7..." (I/B, 46-49). In this last remark, Bronwyn seems to be echoing Rebekah's concern about learning outcomes. It can be seen, then, that the expected challenges perceived by the student teachers were concentrated on concerns about classroom management, their interaction with students and their achievement of educational outcomes. These areas continued to feature in the goals that they set themselves.

Kevin's goal was: "To be a good, or to be on the road towards being a good teacher" (I/K, 46) and Malcolm's aim was: "trying to test myself out in the school
environment” (I/M, 47-48). When asked what main goals she wished to achieve, Bronwyn replied: "My main goal is just surviving without cracking up, um, not being too nervous, try not to get too stressed out, but also finding the relevant and interesting subject matter to present to the kids" (I/B, 58-60). Rebekah also mentioned survival but then added that a more important goal was: “...being able to relate in a way that makes the classroom safe and secure and a comfortable environment in which to interact freely. I think if I can help to foster a classroom situation where risks can be taken, a situation that can help facilitate various methods of working whether that be group work, research, individual study, peer group....” (I/R, 69-75).

Rebekah’s concern for learning and student outcomes was repeated in the comments made by Sandra and Trevor. As Sandra remarked, "I'd like to get an opportunity to use some of the stuff we've been doing in our science method, some of the innovative ways of using cooperative learning for science, because science is generally directed at people as a factual....this is what you learned, this is what happened...I think.. the opportunity to do some cooperative learning, brainstorming, with kids in science I think would be really fascinating because it's amazing what kids know about science before they come to the classroom and even my own children have these wild theories about how the world operates and... it's ...fascinating. That'll be my goal" (I/S, 48-57). Trevor’s goal also involved learning outcomes but was expressed differently when he said: "Well, I want to have a good time. I want them to have a good time and a good time is something where we enjoy each other's company and get a whole lot of stuff out of it and that
means...it's productive and actually producing stuff by the end of it..." (VT, 168-172).

In expressing their expectations about their first practicum, the participants displayed varying degrees of confidence but, nevertheless, some common themes emerged. In most cases they seemed to see the first practicum as a test both of their ability to survive and of their capacity to become teachers. Their concerns were mostly about classroom management and interaction with students. For half of the respondents these issues were linked with the need to promote learning and achieve appropriate student learning outcomes.

The extent to which participants' expectations were realised will become apparent later in this chapter. First, however, there is another issue to consider. As has been previously explained, the first practicum was preceded, in the M Teach program, by a twelve week period during which the students examined and analysed case stories written by practising teachers. Data related to their case analyses will now be discussed.

THE CASE ANALYSIS EXERCISE

In the M Teach Handbook, the use of cases, in the twelve week period leading to the first practicum, was explained and justified in the following manner:

The preparation for the First Practicum phase of Study One provides the opportunity for engagement with authentic school
teaching and learning situations as presented through cases written by teachers and students specially for this course. The cases provide a context within which aspects of teaching and learning can be critically examined and discussed, relevant theory, research and policy documents can be examined and applied, and plans of action to deal with the various situations described can be developed and evaluated. The cases also provide a context for the application of professional knowledge developed in the Study Two component of the M.Teach (University of Sydney, 1996).

The above statement appears to imply that the study of cases in the manner described would be useful as part of the preparation for the first practicum. For this reason, the students participating in the interviews were questioned as to the relationships that they perceived to exist between the use of cases and their practicum experiences (I-5, II-5, IIa-5). It also seems reasonable to suggest that the pre-practicum study of cases may have assisted the participants in the writing of their own case stories. This was explored in the third interview (III-3).

As has been previously explained, the first of the three interviews, upon which the present study is based, took place at the end of the twelve week period described above and before the commencement of the practicum. During this interview, after the participants had talked about the expected rewards and challenges of the practicum (I-2, I-4), they were asked in another question (I-5) if they thought that these expectations were influenced by the study of cases.

Bronwyn's reply demonstrated certain limitations in her approach to the case-based learning exercise and also reflected her strong preconceptions about her practicum school. "Just looking at case studies was valuable. I don't know if the particular case that I picked would be that suitable for this school because I
chose...aboriginality and...the case study 'Norma' and...it's not that relevant here because it's quite a privileged school..." (I/B, 40-44). These remarks seem to indicate that her recollection of the cases was limited to the one case which she studied in depth for her course assignment. Furthermore, in dismissing the case as irrelevant, she overlooked the fact that the case in question dealt with several important issues apart from that of aboriginality. It was also concerned with such issues as organisation and communication, at both school and classroom levels, and classroom management, all of which could be relevant in any school.

Kevin, who had been reluctant to predict what practicum might be like, commented: "My expectations aren't too high or low but they haven't been really changed to any extent. I've found out some more detail about the way, say, the bureaucratic aspect of school life operates. I found out detail about educational theory but beyond that, they haven't really changed my thinking to too great an extent, or challenged" (I/K, 30-34).

Malcolm also appeared to have difficulty seeing a link between the cases studied and his impending practical classroom experience when he said: "Case studies, I suppose, were perhaps looking at extremes in a sense or ...not the average little John and Mary..." (I/M, 35-36). When asked, in a supplementary question, if he saw the cases as relevant to his preparation for practicum or just as something else out there, he replied: "...as something else, at the moment" (I/M, 40).

Rebekah was more positive about the influence of cases on her developing
knowledge. After stating that she wished she could have gone into more of the cases "in depth" (I/R, 42-43), she went on to comment: "...from the ones I looked at, I think it's really hit home to me the reality of peer-peer, peer-teacher and teacher-teacher relationships...the dynamics of them...I think I'm less naive about the complexities of the interactions and the various agents that work upon those interactions..." (I/R, 43-47).

Similarly, Sandra felt that the cases had led her to be more realistic about the ways in which children's ability to learn is subject to many influences outside the classroom. As she put it: "...I think probably the case studies have alerted me to the realisation that, because children have so many other things going on in their lives they're probably not going to be interested in what I have to tell them about biology or the stars, or anything like that..." (I/S, 30-33).

Trevor, sceptical about the power of cases to give a true sense of the reality of the classroom, made the following comments: "...I think that the range of events and experiences and actions and interactions presented in the fifteen or so case studies - I've read through most of them - fascinating and wonderful stories...I think they've been good but I don't think they've...as they have been implemented in the course that they are shattering" (I/T, 130-137).

It can be seen, from the above comments, that all of the participants appeared to find the cases interesting and useful in developing their knowledge about the types of issues that can arise in schools. Nevertheless, none of them appeared to see any
strong link between their work with cases and the impending practicum. In the second interview, after the participants had begun their practicum, they were asked if they thought that the cases they had studied at the University had prepared them for the complexities of classroom teaching and interaction with students (II-5).

Bronwyn's response to this question seemed to exhibit a subtle shift in her thinking. Although she once again cited the case which she had studied in depth and claimed that it didn't relate to her situation "...because it was to do with somebody with literacy problems in an underprivileged school..." (II/B, 61-63), she then went on to make the following admission "...but... the experience of the casual teacher there was quite similar to mine...I came in here fairly under-briefed. It was probably through my own fault for not reading the Handbook but just, um, in terms of a lot of the administration and stuff in the school itself just totally mystified me and, um, I just felt that I was a little bit under-briefed there" (II/B. 63-68).

Rebekah was another who admitted to concentrating on one particular case, saying: "...all of us being trained in our assessment mode of studying tended to focus on the one that we had to do really well, although we did read the others....but I think what we .. need to do... perhaps we could have a series of smaller case studies which ..touch on the same areas, sort of like a tutorial paper so that we could get a broader exposure and a bit more depth" (IIa/R, 120-126).

The other student teachers all suggested that the cases they had studied were not entirely relevant to their own experiences. They pointed to the fact that many of
the cases had been about individual students with behaviour problems. For example, whilst he acknowledged that he had found the cases helpful in his own learning process, Kevin did not believe they had had any influence on his adaptation to classroom teaching "...partially because I wasn't really faced with any problems...kids were extremely well behaved...everything went smoothly, so I didn't think about the case studies too much, because all of the case studies dealt with problems but just thinking about case studies, they were good because they dealt with problems which had much broader applications and they dealt in a very practical way, in a particular way, which helped you think about these issues" (II/K, 52-59).

Malcolm also felt that the cases lacked direct relevance to his situation, stating: "Case studies were more, perhaps, individual students, individual cases and often exceptional cases or extreme cases. Here I'm finding I'm looking first and foremost, really, well..if you're asking for personal observations, personal experience, it's the class as a whole that I seem to be looking at at the moment (II/M, 36-40). Trevor seemed to share this opinion when he said: "...you have to be able to relate to students as individuals but you also very much, in the classroom, have to relate as teacher to class so there are, in fact, only two entities - the class and the teacher..." (II/T, 90-93). Sandra put this argument a little more strongly by commenting "...you really don't have the time to think about whether....you've got a special child in the classroom needs some kind of extra attention like an ADD child or a multi-cultural child...you're focusing really on presenting your lesson and getting through to the end and surviving at the end
and...also...prac teaching's a kind of artificial environment (II/S, 38-43).

On a more positive note, Sandra remarked that the cases: 
"...seemed to deal... with specifics. I think... I can say... from a positive point of view, it certainly got you thinking about situations that might happen in the classroom in a very practical way..." (II/S, 48-51). Trevor, also, felt that the case-based approach was: 
"...excellent when you are thinking about specific examples of circumstances and situations..." (II/T 81-83). In addition, he suggested that the use of cases in the course had value in that they clearly demonstrated the paradox that exists between equality of educational opportunity on the one hand and recognition of individual needs on the other (II/T, 97-101).

From the comments of the various student teachers, it can be seen that they found it difficult to relate the cases they had studied to their own immediate situation. This was mostly because their first problem was to learn how to manage a whole class rather than to deal with the needs of individual students as most of the cases had done. At the same time, the student teachers seemed to appreciate the value of the case-based approach in expanding their own professional knowledge.

As was mentioned earlier, there was some anticipation that the study of cases before practicum may assist the student teachers in the writing of their own case stories. A question in the third interview (II-3) explored this possibility. The responses to this question will be considered in more depth in the section dealing with case authorship. However, at this point it is worth observing that the
participants generally agreed that they had found the pre-practicum cases useful in a general sense by providing examples of how to go about case writing. Apart from this, however, they again pointed out that they felt that their experiences, and therefore their case stories, were different in substance to those they had studied.

To summarise the data reported in this section, it may be said that, for the small sample of students interviewed, there was some degree of ambivalence towards the role of case analysis in their preparation for the first practicum. On the one hand, they appeared to find the case stories interesting and claimed to have found them useful as a tool for learning about situations that can arise in schools. The cases gave them insights into the complexities of teaching to a certain extent and encouraged them to think about the relevance of educational theory and the ways in which the work of the teacher is affected by other influences, such as policy, school administration, inter-personal relationships and factors outside the school. On the other hand, the participants failed to see them as relevant to their own practical experience. There were a number of factors, either openly stated by the participants or implied in what they said, that may have contributed to this situation.

Most of the case stories studied in the course were built upon incidents involving individual students. This fact was referred to more than once by interview participants who pointed out that, partly because the class teaching situation was a new one for them and partly because it takes time to get to know the students who make up the class, their main concern was with management of the class as
a whole.

Closely related to this was the fact that the stories with which participants were most familiar not only dealt with individuals but with individuals who presented with problems, often of a behavioural nature. There seemed to be a perception that these problems were special cases not to be found in the practicum schools where, as far as the participants were concerned, such problems were not evident. There is, of course, the possibility that, as newcomers and novices who would be in the schools for only a short time, they may have been sheltered from some of the problems with which other teachers had to contend in those schools.

Another factor, which appears to have been an important influence on the way in which the participants viewed the cases they had studied, was the method of assessment. Their satisfactory completion of this phase of the program was determined on the basis of a 4000 word response to one case of their own choosing, due to be submitted shortly before practicum. Because of what one participant referred to as "...our assessment mode of studying..." (IIa/R, 120-121) there was a tendency to devote most time to this one case.

From the evidence available, then, it might be argued that the use of case analysis exercises in the M.Teach course was not regarded by the participants as a strong preparation for their own practical experiences. Instead, its role seems to have been as an interesting resource that supported the university teaching, about educational theory and policy, taking place at the time.
If the link between the use of cases and the practicum experience was somewhat tenuous, however, there does seem to have been a slightly stronger link between the study of cases and the participants' own case story writing at the end of the practicum. The cases written by practising teachers seem to have provided a general overview of how to go about writing a case story. However, it is interesting to note that the participants tended to see their own cases as different in nature to those they had studied.

The interview data relating to the case writing exercise will be discussed in a later section of this chapter. First, it is necessary to consider the reactions of the participants to the practicum experience itself, since it was that experience that provided the material for the original case stories that they wrote.

THE PRACTICUM EXPERIENCE

Soon after the first interview, the M.Teach students went into schools for a six-week practicum. During that time the second interview took place. A number of questions during that interview attempted to look at the impact of this first experience of schools and classrooms on the participants. In one question (II - 4, IIa - 4) the participants were asked to describe, on the basis of what they had seen and their experiences so far, what they considered to be the main problems encountered by teachers during the course of their working day.

As with Bronwyn's responses to other questions, planning continued to be an
important issue or, as she put it: "Maintaining energy to, sort of, treat each lesson as a new experience because, after a while, teachers can tend to get a bit slack in lesson planning. I've just discovered that to be really important, um, in terms of sort of collecting your thoughts and focusing when you actually go into the classroom..." (II/B, 49-53)

Kevin's concern was: "Disruptions from all sources. Say, in the school day they would have a band playing so they would take students out of class so students could have music lessons or other disruptions...during the school day ....hard because there was so much you are expected to teach your students in a short time. That'd be one of the things for sure. Parents, sometimes interfering but most...just wanting students to be given more work - gifted and talented students..." (II/K, 41-47).

The same issue seemed important to Malcolm who said: "Time seems to be one thing. Preparation time is minimal...interruptions - someone coming to the staffroom about something - interruptions, lack of time and in the classroom itself keeping students...on track, focused....class management..." (II/M, 28-32).

The pressure of work and inter-staff relationships were the problems which seemed most important to Rebekah who talked about: "...diversity of roles that teachers have to play - have to spend time...researching resources....the office politics was quite interesting...stresses and...power...cliques within...there were a lot of excursions....there was quite a breakdown in the administration linking up with the
teaching staff as well, so there were problems, you know, there were things that should have run more smoothly.....teachers seem to be on the go the whole time, like even in the lunch hour if you're not talking over a class you've just had you're out in the playground. I just found that it was go, go, go the whole time....it seems like they (the teachers) have to make a lot of on-the-spot decisions...” (IIa/R, 103-113).

Sandra's reply was "It's exhausting! Apart from it being exhausting? I don't know...that's difficult....it's constant, exhausting and....you have to learn how to handle kids who might not be treating you with respect...you have to handle them with respect. That's difficult...” (II/S, 29-32).

Trevor talked about the various causes of problems in the classroom - poor organisation or mismanagement, accidental events, disruptions and environmental conditions (II/T, 65-72) - and then added: "...but there are the other external factors that are ... working with other staff... I think every M.Teacher I've spoken to has been rather surprised at how much bitching goes on ... and that's rather sad..." (II/T, 72-75).

From the above comments it can be seen that most of the respondents remarked, in some way, about the complexity of the teacher’s role and the problem of finding sufficient time for the many tasks that must be undertaken. Three of the student teachers referred to the interruptions that frequently occur during the school day. The fact that this appeared to be a more significant issue for the one primary
teacher than for those in secondary schools may be related to the differences in school organisation between the two. Another issue that was raised, by two of the respondents, was that of inter-staff relationships.

As a follow-up to two similar questions (I-3, I-4) in the first interview, participants were asked what they had found most rewarding (II-7, IIa-6) and most challenging (II-8, IIa-7) during their time in the school. Their goals, for the remainder of the practicum (or, in the case of Rebekah, her expectations about returning to the course the following year), were also discussed (II - 11, IIa-10).

When the student teachers were asked to nominate what they found to be most rewarding about their practicum experience, four of the respondents gave answers which accorded with their pre-practicum expectations. Three of these related to their involvement with students. Some of this involvement took place in the classroom, as when Rebekah reported on a successful lesson in which “...I felt like I'd helped in some way, even in just that lesson, the kids to express themselves in a different way...” (IIa/R, 135-137) or when Trevor referred to “....the engagement between my mind and the minds of the young people...” (II/T, 132-133). Bronwyn and Rebekah also reported informal conversations with students when “...I had a few of them respond really positively to me and ask me questions about ...a prac teacher and whether I'll actually continue teaching and they've said encouraging things to me...” (II/B, 82-85) or when “... one of the kids was in there talking about the debate they were doing with another school that was coming and she asked me a few questions about the courses that she had to choose for year 11 and we just
talked on a one-to-one level and I just thought that it was really good that we could just sit down and talk informally and that there was that respect and rapport there” (IIa/R, 138-144).

The other student teacher, whose rewarding experience was as expected, was Malcolm who was able to state that, for him, the greatest reward of practicum was his "...sense of self-satisfaction is one thing - maybe I can do it - coming towards the end, a bit of 'I did it' attitude - I've survived- I suppose reward from little bits of feedback you get from students or the sense you get that the students....under my charge are actually doing something" (II/M, 53-57). Thus, in addition to satisfying his pre-practicum desire to prove that he could do the job, Malcolm also found that positive interaction with students was rewarding.

This also applied to Sandra who, prior to the practicum, thought that getting through the first couple of weeks would be rewarding (I/S, 20-21). During the second interview she was able to report: "...I find it rewarding.....when you get a lesson together that....and it goes really well, that's rewarding..and I suppose that involves some kind of feedback from the children....when I taught my year 11 class..an extremely well planned lesson to explain one particular thing...and it culminated in a...really...you know, something really important at the end and when I got to the end, a couple of them said, 'Oh! I see what you've been doing' or 'I had no idea what you were doing to start with but now I understand!' That was rewarding" (II/S, 69-78).
Kevin, who went into the practicum without too many assumptions about what it would be like, found the most rewarding aspects of the experience were: "...my interactions with people there, that was good, especially the students - and teachers, to a lesser extent - but also, having been in a school,...you could see how it made sense....and, all the time, I'm thinking how to put ideas...into words...that make sense....activities that made sense.....that's good...." (II/K, 81-86).

Thus, in one way or another, the student teachers all derived satisfaction from some aspects of their interaction with students. As might be expected, this same aspect of their work was also prominent in providing them with their greatest challenges. Also of concern were the related issues of planning and classroom management.

As she had predicted prior to the practicum, Bronwyn found that "...the most challenging has been learning to write lesson plans and, actually, learn skills and, actually, ascertaining whether what I am teaching is actually coming across to the students" (II/B, 88-90). Kevin, also, found lesson planning to be a challenge in terms of "...consistently making activities, general activities, that would keep the class interested .....that was one....at first it was easy because there were lots of activities to use.....but by third week and fourth week...you find yourself repeating some activities...in different guises......and also, in the classroom, some lessons were good but other lessons...were a bit more difficult..." (II/K, 88-94).

Malcolm continued to see discipline and classroom management as challenging. As he expressed it: "Year 9 - classroom discipline, classroom management has just
absolutely driven me crazy....it's driven me, at least in the class, in the heat of the moment, inside my head during that class, I just want to give it all away, don't want to continue, don't want to be a teacher - just things like I can't keep the noise down, there's twenty-eight students in the class............... all the things that can happen in a class which I haven't been prepared for, haven't experienced before" (II/M, 59-66). Trevor, although he did not seem to be as troubled by disciplinary problems as Malcolm, referred to the problem of "...finding ways of engaging them (the students) with the subject and there are many and diverse ways to do that but you do have to keep coming up with new ones..." (II/T, 152-155).

Two of the student teachers were confronted with problems that they had not foreseen. Rebekah, for example, had expected that class management would be her greatest challenge. Instead she was to recall: "...I got to the school and I was met with bitterness and cynicism and suspicion...and basically, with the other prac students there, it had settled into a 'them and us' scenario and so I found the hardest thing was knowing what to say to the teachers I was with, just working out what the politics were. I found that, basically, I had to keep my head down and mouth shut if I wanted to steer clear of any major problems in the staffroom and I found that the most stressful actually" (II/a/R, 154-161).

The unexpected challenge for Sandra was time management for, as she explained: "It really is ...exhausting...I'm terrified, or I have been up till now, of having a lesson like I had today where you get to the end and there's three or four minutes where you don't have anything planned for them so what I've been tending to do

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is jam it right up to the end of the lesson and when the bell goes, you know, there's test tubes and unfinished sentences all over the place..." (II/S, 81-87).

Whilst the challenges faced by the majority of student teachers seem to have been in accord with expectations, this was not the case as far as their goals were concerned. When asked, during the second interview, what their goals were for the remainder of the practicum, most of the respondents seemed to have revised their priorities. Only Trevor maintained his pre-practicum goal which related to the work produced by his students or, as he expressed it: "...what I'm hoping to achieve is get the kids to produce some good work which I can take away and use in the future...get them to do something they can be really proud of, that shows...demonstrates to them, their parents and the school what we've achieved..." (II/T, 232-236).

Malcolm’s new goal of "...getting to the end of prac, making it to the end, not so much just surviving but...just...getting to the end and saying at the end of it that I've done it... (II/M, 88-90) could be said to be closely related to his initial goal of trying himself out in the school environment (I/M, 47-48). For the other four student teachers, however, there was a marked change.

Before the practicum Bronwyn, Rebekah and Sandra had all set themselves goals which included references to aspects of student learning. By the second interview, however, this had changed. Bronwyn’s new goal was: "...to actually impress my university supervisor by giving a few lessons where I actually take notice of the
things that she has criticised me for and, yeh, I'd like to actually leave the prac on better terms with my uni supervisor" (II/B, 113-116). Rebekah was interviewed some months after her incomplete practicum. She was looking forward to returning to the M.Teach program and felt that her experience had taught her to be more realistic about what to expect in a school. "...I think I was, like most pre-service teachers, hopelessly idealistic and unrealistic, so I think I'll be a whole lot more practical, without being cynical..." (IIa/R, 205-208). Sandra, who had previously talked about the methods that she would use to promote learning, now commented: "I've just got to get through another two weeks, that's all! I suppose I'd like to tame my year 9 class. They're my....most.....out of control..." (II/S, 121-123).

Whereas these three students had changed from learner-centred to teacher centred goals, for Kevin the opposite was the case. Having set out with the broad goal of being "...on the road to being a good teacher" (I/K, 45), Kevin now found his main goal to be "what the students learn" (II/K, 119). He had found that, initially he was more concerned with his own performance in the presentation of lessons but "...as time went on, that was less of a challenge....sure, do that as well but actually see that the students actually learnt something..." (II/K, 120-122). It is interesting to speculate about the difference between Kevin and the others. He was in a primary school and the others in secondary schools. However, it is difficult to say whether or not this is significant. A more likely explanation is that Kevin, as evidenced by his comments, was more settled and relaxed in his school placement, with well behaved students and strong support from the staff, so that he was under less
pressure regarding his own performance.

Whatever the reasons for the differences in goals between the student teachers, it is apparent that they were at different stages in coming to terms with the practical aspects of teaching. Moreover, these stages seem to be in accord with those suggested by Fuller and Brown (1975) who found that the concerns of beginning teachers went from survival concerns to teaching situation concerns and, finally, to pupil concerns (Fuller and Brown 1975, pp. 36 ff).

Based on the student teachers’ responses to the questions about their rewards, challenges and goals, it might be suggested that some subtle changes were taking place as a result of practical experience. There seemed to be more awareness of the complexities of the teacher’s role and a more realistic appreciation of both the positive and negative impact of teacher-student relationships. Implicit in the accounts given by the student teachers about their experiences was the crucial importance of in-school support by university supervisors and experienced class teachers.

As has already been discussed, the participants were asked, in the first interview, what they considered to be the qualities of an effective teacher (I-6). In the second interview a similar question was asked (II-9, IIa-8), to see if practical experience of the classroom may have influenced their perceptions.
Bronwyn's views on this topic had shifted slightly from such issues as organisation and subject knowledge to aspects of class management. Thus, she believed it was important "...to be able to think, what do you call it? - 'think on your toes', yeh, on your feet and...maintain your focus..." (II/B, 93-95). Teacher thinking and decision making also featured in Malcolm’s comments. Having previously focused on "producing students who have learnt" and gaining the respect of students (I/M, 42-44), he now talked about the importance of "...hindsight and foresight, I suppose, in some ways, being able to predict, perhaps, what's going to come up in a class..." (II/M, 69-70).

Kevin's previous concern for a teacher's ability to achieve results was extended to include "...a professional attitude towards their job, a fair amount (of) intellectual integrity about what they are going to teach and how they're going to teach it, creativity in teaching ... treating them (the students) as individuals..." (II/K, 97-100). This concern for the professional qualities of a teacher was echoed by Rebekah who talked about "...not losing that desire to further the interests of your students..." (IIa/R, 170-171) and the need "...to be pragmatic and to be realistic but not to lose those ideals and not to lose that first love....because I found all of the teachers were just hanging in there...it was just day-to-day survival and that's not the kind of teacher I want to be" (IIa/R, 175-179).

Sandra continued to be concerned with issues of classroom management but with a slight change of emphasis. In the first interview she had talked about the teacher's need to have a lot of different teaching strategies and to be able to
"relinquish control" (I/S, 43). By the time of the second interview, she was considering such characteristics as "Confidence, I think that's really important because the children can tell. You've got to be confident and I think you've got to be firm...you've got to be consistent...and that's hard when you're doing prac....especially the first couple of days...consistency and confidence...I guess you get confidence by knowing the content" (II/S, 91-95). Consistency was also mentioned by Trevor, along with such qualities as "...humour, persistence, intelligent preparation, sympathy, empathy, passion, interest, enthusiasm..." (II/T, 159-161).

Thus, as might be expected, the student teachers' experiences in the classroom had caused all of them to revise their thinking about the qualities needed by a teacher.

Whereas they had previously tended to stress the behaviour of the teacher, they could now see the importance of the personal attributes and thought processes that determine that behaviour.

In order to shed more light on the influences that were important in developing their understanding of teaching, participants were asked which of their activities, both inside and outside the classroom were most important in helping them to adjust to their work as teachers (II- IO, IIa-9). Not surprisingly, all made mention of interactions with other people.

Bronwyn referred to interactions with her fellow practising teachers, as well as with some of the school staff, especially "the library staff..." (II/B,100) and "...the Art staff relationships as well....one of the staff....almost like a subversive
element..." (109-110). From this it might be inferred that teachers in the schools can have both positive and negative influences on beginning teachers. Kevin described the staff at his school as "...just generally helpful...don't have any difficulties at all......nice environment to work in......(II/K, 115-116). Malcolm talked about being "...part of a team.." (II/M, 78) and referred to the help he received in the LOTE staffroom (II.M, 78-80). Similarly, Sandra spoke of the support she received from the Science staff and also mentioned "...going to the photocopying room and talking to the other teachers in the room..." (II/S, 104-105). Rebekah also found interactions with others important and saw the value of "...getting involved in as many aspects of school life as possible..." (IIa/R, 184) while Trevor mentioned the value of "...collaborative communication....with other teachers...and with my peers....you know, we talk a lot about our work together" (II/T, 207-208).

For Sandra, informal interaction with students was also important. Her first reaction, when asked what activities she found most helpful, was: "Sport, I think...yes it has helped because you get to see the children in a different situation, in a much more relaxed situation and ...they come and ask me things they wouldn't ask me in the classroom..." (II/S, 100-102). When asked if she had time for personal reflection on her teaching, she replied: "...I try to write down what I thought was good and bad about the lesson....and usually when I go home I tell my father....just talking to my father as a teacher...I'm extremely lucky to have two nice cooperating teachers...other people I've spoken to haven't got that rapport..." (II/S, 114-118).
As well as acknowledging the importance of support from the staff, Kevin stressed the need for "...some knowledge of ....research.... but also a stable home life so...activities were centred around those two things, activities outside the classroom and, also, reading and research..." (II/K, 105-108). Another who referred to his life outside the school was Trevor. To him the activity which he found of most value was: "...my kung-fu..." which he described as: "...one of the most successful and positive learning environments I've ever encountered..." (II/T, 187-195).

It will be observed that, in adjusting to their work in a school, the student teachers drew support from three sources - their interaction with school staff and their peers, interaction with students and activities outside the school. Of these, the first was by far the most powerful and was capable of having either a positive or a negative impact. Even given the importance of such support, however, one of the respondents, Rebekah admitted that "...I didn't feel...I still feel I haven't made the transition from being a student to being a teacher and I think it'll probably come with more time spent in the classroom and...having responsibility". (IIa/R, 192-195).

From the data surveyed in this section, it can be concluded that the student teachers found the first practicum to be a rich and memorable experience that gave them fresh insights into school life and caused them to draw on their own inner resources as well as the support of others. It is possible to identify three aspects of the
practicum that were important, as seen from the point of view of the novice teachers. These were the impressions of teaching gained from their observations in the school, their personal experiences during practicum; and the sources of support which they found most helpful.

From their general observations in the schools, the participants became aware of several aspects of teachers' work that could cause problems. These included the demands and complexities of the job; the diversity of roles undertaken by a teacher during the course of a day; time management; and inter-personal relationships, especially between members of staff.

As a result of these observations, the people interviewed identified a number of desirable qualities needed by an effective teacher. These would seem to fall into two categories - personal qualities and management skills. From a personal point of view, it was felt that teachers need to demonstrate a professional approach to their work with a high level of integrity, creativity and concern for the learning and welfare of students. In terms of management, reference was made to such qualities as on-the-spot decision making, foresight and consistency.

As far as the novice teachers' personal experiences were concerned, their most rewarding ones were positive interactions with students as well as the satisfaction they felt when a lesson went well. Their concerns were related to such issues as classroom management, planning, time management and their desire to see some
evidence of student learning as a result of their efforts.

In meeting the demands of the practicum, all students appeared to value the support of school staff as well as their peers, although it is interesting to note that only one of them made specific reference to the cooperating teacher to whom they were assigned. Out-of-class contact with students - at sport, for example, or during informal face to face contact - was also favourably mentioned, as was the value of their own activities outside the school and home life.

It is obvious that the participants' first hand experience of life as a teacher had a much stronger impact than the representations of reality contained in the cases that they had read and analysed at university. Whilst this may not be surprising, it does raise some serious questions about the efficacy of using cases to provide a realistic picture of what teaching is like. The next stage in the M.Teach program required the students to write original case stories, based on their own experiences during practicum. The reactions of the participants to this exercise will now be considered.

THE CASE AUTHORSHIP EXERCISE

Before the practicum commenced, the M.Teach students had been made aware of the case authorship exercise that would follow when they returned to the university. In the second and third interviews of the present study a number of
questions attempted to explore the various aspects of this exercise from the initial choice of topic to the completion of the story (II-6, III-1, III-2, III-4, III-5, III-6, III-7).

Requirements regarding choice of topic were fairly flexible, allowing the student teachers to focus on either general or specific issues or on particular incidents which occurred during practicum. During the second interview, the participants were asked if they had yet begun to think about a suitable topic for the case (II-6).

Bronwyn, who was teaching an art unit called "Metamorphosis" decided to "...draw parallels between the idea of metamorphosis in art and my starting out as a teacher and the metamorphosis that I'm going through from an artist to an art teacher..." (II/B, 72-75). Kevin was "...looking at the broad area of classroom work practices throughout the day rather than an individual student..." (II/K, 67-68). During the practicum, Malcolm's thoughts were about his problems with his Year 9 class and, in particular, how he might motivate them because: "Certain individuals that are part of small groups within the class....don't really participate in role plays or activities" (II/M, 49-50).

Sandra was considering two possibilities for a case story. One concerned "...two boys in my year 9 that are quite bright, quite up to date with their work but don't work very well together with the rest of the people..." (II/S, 55-58). The other was about a "...girl in the year 7 class...who is a very exuberant child, constantly talking and she's got a very positive self image....she just...she's just not listening
to me when I'm talking...I supervised her doing sport...she's scatty, sort of, out there as well..." (IVS, 61-65).

Trevor, during practicum, was beginning to look at a couple of individual students who interested him and reported "...I have one student who is in a class that...in a large class today who was formerly, apparently, an IM student and is now in the school debating team and does pretty well. She is an incredibly keen student, always looking for extra work to do and always talking to me after class and that kind of thing...There are certainly issues of language and language affected learning. One student, for instance, who is in both - a Vietnamese student - in both my Year 10 History and my Year 10 ESL class...has very, very limited literacy and oracy skills and, um, he's being moved to an IM situation...He's an issue of a case, so there are a few..." (IVT, 109-124).

It was apparent, at the time of the second interview, that the development of case stories was at an embryonic stage, with some of the respondents still trying to choose a specific issue. They were, of course, still concentrating on the immediate demands of their first practicum and it is understandable that the case writing assignment, to be completed on return to the university, may not have been a high priority.

Nevertheless, it was clear that the five novice teachers, who remained in the program at this stage, were becoming aware of issues suitable for a case story. By the third interview, the case stories had been written. At the beginning of that
interview the participants were asked to summarise the issues raised in their stories (III-1).

In Bronwyn's case, the original topic of "Metamorphosis" had led her into focusing on motivation in general and her difficulties with motivating one student in particular. "I had a student who, though she professed to enjoying my classes, later on in a series of lessons started to play up and muck up and behave badly and, um, she sort of, I kept her in for a lunchtime detention and then she confided in me that she didn't really see the purpose of art and she wanted to be a lawyer anyway. She was in Year 7 and, um, so I had to sort of have a bit of a motivational talk with her" (III/B, 6-12).

Like Bronwyn, Malcolm had gone on to focus on the problems of motivating one particular student, "...a situation where someone was not very motivated. She said towards the end of my practicum experience that her mother made her do it, made her take the subject up, so there wasn't much motivation there so it was a question of motivation and also discipline, in general, from individual and the classroom as a whole which was something new for me" (III/M, 6-12).

Kevin had continued with his intention of addressing general issues, explaining "...unlike some of the other case studies, I didn't look at just one student or just one class but, instead, just looked at issues concerning a primary school - classroom sizes...how was time allocated..." (III/K, 6-9).
Sandra and Trevor were both writing stories that reflected on their work with a number of students with individual differences. Sandra identified the main issue of her case story as: "...a recognition of the fact that there are a lot of different individuals in the classroom and that it is very difficult to structure a lesson that'll reach all of those children..." (III/S, 6-8).

Trevor also wrote a case story concerning "...a particular class of thirty students - a year 10 History class - and looked, within that, at 8 individual students and characteristics and concerns of those individual students..." (III/T, 6-8). In discussing his case he referred to what he saw as a conflict between curriculum. This conflict was illustrated by an incident which occurred at the beginning of Trevor's practicum. As he explained: "...a former peer of these students, a guy who had been in the same year and the same class the year before and been asked to leave at the end of the year...he had actually...he was killed...he died in a football accident the day before my first lesson. So, that sort of characterised the first interaction I had with the class so that kind of involvement between the esoteric stuff that we're studying and the actual fact of someone's death in their lives..." (III/T, 23-30).

Thus, all but one of the student teachers wrote case stories that involved specific students. This may be related to the fact that most of the cases that students had read before the practicum had been about atypical individual students. The only student teacher not planning to write about individual students was Kevin and it will be remembered that, in the case analysis exercise, he had elected to respond
to one of the few cases that did not deal with individual student behaviour. If it is true that the cases studied by the student teachers at the university become a model for the types of cases that they write themselves, this has implications for the way in which teacher educators select cases for inclusion in the program.

A number of interview questions looked at the writing process, the effect of that process on the writers and the ways in which they worked through this particular experience. Early in the third interview, the participants were asked if they found case writing a difficult exercise (III-2) and also whether they had a great deal of personal involvement in the story itself (III-4).

Describing the exercise as "not too bad" (III/B, 14), Bronwyn went on to say: "I like the format that it was in - the fact that we didn't have to keep it in the bounds of an essay made it easier for me. It might have made it harder for some of the students but, um, and it helped to clarify some of the things I had been thinking about after prac anyway" (III/B, 14-18) She also admitted to having a high level of personal involvement. As she pointed out: "I talked about a lot of feelings I was having and the changes I was undergoing, sort of with the outside incidents, well, about fifty-fifty. The student who was having the crisis about whether she thought art was relevant sparked that off" (III/B, 27-30).

By contrast, Kevin had a much more detached approach to the exercise which he found to be "not especially" (III/K, 11) difficult and in which he had "very little" (III/K, 20) personal involvement. In an attempt to elicit more information,
supplementary questions were asked as follows:

**Interviewer:** Was your wish to look into that area prompted by things that happened to you personally during practicum?

**Kevin:** No, not so much things that happened to me personally but just things that I thought about while I was there...

**Interviewer:** ...and saw happening around you?

**Kevin:** Yeh, I wasn't deeply traumatised by anything that happened (III/K, 21-26).

For Malcolm, on the other hand, the case story was both difficult to write and intensely personal in nature. As he said: "I found it so difficult coming to terms with the whole exercise, writing it up and understanding where it was coming from and where it was going to" (III/M, 14-17). When asked, in a supplementary question, if it was the personal nature of his case that made it difficult to write he replied: "Yes, I suppose it was...something that was personal for me and, well, the nature of the case study I wrote, it was also personal for the person that I was writing about, so that it was sort of like not only trying to understand where I was coming from and what I was trying to write and trying to produce but the whole situation in the classroom and with the individual and where that was coming from as well...difficult trying to put it all together and trying to make sense of it" (III/M, 22-29). Malcolm’s dilemma was probably best summed up by his remark that: "I'd always taught people who'd wanted to learn so I found that a new experience to deal with year 9 students who weren't motivated in the subject they were taking - yes, certainly very much personal involvement there" (III/M, 46-49).

In contrast to Malcolm, Sandra found that her own personal involvement with the events in her case story actually made it easier for her to write. As she explained:
"I didn't actually find what I chose to write about difficult because it was something that just came out of experience and it was very easy ..." (III/S, 23-25). However, she went on to make the interesting comment that "...I found it difficult to write what I considered to be a stereotypical case story which involved one particular incident and a way of dealing with it and a resolution...but the way I did it, I think it was quite easy...just pops out of your memory and your experience, that's all." (III/S, 25-29). This seemed to imply that she had a rather narrow view of how a case story should be constructed, possibly based on the sample of cases that she had studied prior to the practicum, although she did not allow herself to be restricted by it. She further explained her personal involvement in the story by saying: "...it was my personal perception of those individual children in the class and also a reflection of my ability or lack of preparedness to deal with those individual situations, so I think it was a very personal account. It was intended to be" (III/S, 42-46).

Trevor explained that his case story was a mixture of "different types of writing and different forms" (III/T, 34) but said that he did not have any difficulty in writing it. In terms of his own involvement in the story, he stated: "...I talked about myself, and my interactions and my thoughts and, obviously, reflecting on my own activities and ideas, then they do have personal qualities. How much? Well, I can't give you a percentage but I'm there and, um, the word 'I', or 'my' and 'myself', does appear in the text" (III/T, 54-558).

Thus, apart from Malcolm, who was writing about an incident that had obviously
disturbed him, the student teachers had little difficulty in writing a case study. All except one of the stories concerned students, although only two of them gave an account of interactions with one student in particular. The level of personal involvement varied considerably from Bronwyn and Malcolm, who both seemed emotionally affected by the incidents related, to Kevin, who seemed to be more detached and chose to deal with issues of a much less personal nature.

During Phase Two of the M.Teach program, the students had had the opportunity to read a number of cases written by experienced teachers. In the third interview, participants were asked how much they had been helped in the case-writing exercise by the cases that they had used in Phase Two of the course.

For Bronwyn the cases studied at the university were: "...a loose guideline but I tried to make mine...not as concrete as some of the other case studies" (III/B, 22-23). Kevin felt that they helped "...a fair amount, even though most of the cases were different" (III/K, 15). Malcolm claimed that the cases had given him: "...a whole overview...of possibilities and things that can arise in the classroom, in the school and in the life of a teacher, so I found those broad experiences of experienced and, in some cases, not so experienced teachers out there, to be quite beneficial" (III/M, 35-39). Sandra said that the study of other teachers' cases had helped "...a little bit, perhaps not too much, simply because mine wasn't...I mean most of those tended to revolve around particular incidents and mine perhaps didn't, so perhaps that didn't help...but, I suppose it gave me the confidence to put things down on pieces of paper and realise that, if they could write about their
experiences, then I could write just as easily about mine I suppose...and there was a lot of variety in those case studies too..." (III/S, 33-39). Trevor suggested that experienced teachers who wrote the original stories would have had an easier task because they were drawing on "a fairly long period of experience" (III/T, 44) instead of a short practicum "...but the cases were an introduction to a kind of narrative approach...which I'm quite keen on..." (III/T, 48-50).

Given that the use of cases in teacher education is usually seen as a collaborative, rather than an individual pursuit (Merseth 1990; Dezure 1993; Hutchings 1993; Ackerman, Maslin-Ostrowski et al. 1996), two questions in the third interview dealt with the importance placed by participants on collaboration in the writing of their case stories (III-6, III-7). As a course assignment, this was intended to be a collaborative exercise to the extent that time was set aside in seminars during the six-week writing period for the writers to discuss their progress with peers and seminar leaders and to seek feedback. Another possible source of collaboration was in the schools during practicum, when the preservice teachers were assigned to a cooperating teacher.

The participants were asked if, and to what extent, they discussed their case stories with their cooperating teachers (III-6). The inclusion of this question was based on the assumption that the cooperating teacher, acting as a mentor to the student teacher during practicum, may have been well placed to supply useful background information. Depending upon the nature of the case, they may even have shared in some of the experiences which formed the substance of the case.
Whilst Bronwyn did not tell her cooperating teacher that she was writing a case story, she did acknowledge that there was "...a lot of input from my cooperating teacher" (III/B, 46-47) as far as helping her to clarify events related in the story. This was because the story was based on an incident in which both Bronwyn and the cooperating teacher were involved.

As far as Kevin was concerned there was no discussion of the case story, or its subject matter, with the cooperating teacher at all. Kevin did not choose the topic for his case until after the practicum had finished and the case itself dealt with general issues about school organisation, based entirely on his own observations.

Malcolm also chose the subject of his case story after the practicum, describing the case as: "...something I only really reflected on after the practicum and the whole sort of ramifications of the thought processes that sparked so I didn't talk this over with the cooperating teacher during practicum" (III/M, 67-70). His case story concerned one particular student and when asked, in a supplementary question, if he had discussed that student with the cooperating teacher, he replied: "She would have come up in conversation but not so much to do with the nature of the course. I suppose it was something that came after the fact...you know, it sparked in my head later on that what she'd said...and the chain of events, I suppose" (III/M, 74-77).

Sandra's case story dealt with four individual students. Whilst she did not discuss the development of the case story itself with the cooperating teacher, she did
acknowledge the usefulness of the teacher as a source of information on one of the students. As she explained: "I think I discussed one individual with my cooperating teacher during practicum. Actually, it did have quite a bit of her because she gave me quite a bit of background about this child that I couldn't have known any other way...but I probably didn't talk about the other students with her and I probably should have - one in particular" (III/S, 63-68).

Trevor, when asked if he discussed the case with his cooperative teacher replied: "I don't think I actually sat down with my cooperating teacher and said 'I'm going to write this up as a case study' because I would have thought that that was, to be entirely honest, ridiculous" (III/T, 80-83). When questioned further on this, he did state that he had talked with the teacher about some of the issues raised in the case "...in the way I would walk out of the class and I would say something and she would say this or that or the other, so there was certainly an ongoing process of discussion, reflection and assessment" (III/T, 87-90) and that, to some extent, he his discussions with other people had helped him in writing his case story. (III/T, 93-99).

It would seem, from the above comments by the various participants, that there was some ambivalence regarding the role that might be expected of the cooperating teacher in the case writing exercise. There are a number of possible reasons for this. From what the participants said, they did not appear to have seriously worked upon the case writing until after practicum. This is understandable because of the pressures of their daily work including the preparation and delivery of lessons and
classroom management.

The nature of the relationship between the preservice teachers and the cooperating teachers, whose responsibilities included a supervisory function, may have been such that there was a reluctance to share personal and emotive elements of the case story. This reluctance would, no doubt, have increased if the story was in any way critical of the school or people in it. The preservice teachers may also have regarded this exercise, which was a university course assignment, as separated in some way from the practicum leading them to the conclusion that the teacher's input was irrelevant. This certainly would seem to be a likely attitude when a case story is more general and not directly reporting on classroom experiences, as with that written by Kevin. Whatever the reasons, the role of the cooperating teachers, when they had a role at all, seems to have been limited to that of resource person, providing background information on students and it will be noted, above, that Sandra felt that she should have taken more advantage of this.

The other opportunity for collaboration was afforded by the university seminars where time was provided for the discussion of case stories during the writing process. This seemed to present the participants with no problems and, when they were questioned about this (III-7) the feedback obtained from peers was viewed favourably. This feedback seems to have been particularly useful in two ways. It confirmed for the writers that they were being successful in getting their message across. It also enabled them to discover that their experiences had been shared by other members of the group.
As Bronwyn observed: "I sort of pretty much had made up my mind how it was going to go, so the feedback just kind of reconfirmed that for me and it was encouraging because I wanted to use a metaphor and I mentioned that in class and they encouraged it, so that was important, I guess" (III/B, 63-66). Kevin had a similar experience and, as he said: "It helped to ensure that you were on the right track, as it were, that what you were writing about wasn't entirely unimportant..." (III/K, 41-43).

Malcolm was able to work, in a small group, with others whose case stories dealt with similar issues to his. As he put it: "..well, I noticed in the writing up process, a number of us came together because we had, in some ways...the nature of our case study was similar...that was a feedback from peers...it was a give and take...we were sharing experiences and we found that we were actually, you know, offering advice after the fact and saying 'Did you do this?' and 'Did you try that?' or 'What about this?' or 'What about that?'....so yes, I experienced feedback from peers...I found that quite valuable" (III/M, 80-87).

In a similar way, Sandra enjoyed the interchange of ideas with others who had had similar experiences, saying: "I thought this was really important, actually, and I didn't expect it to be as important as it was. It was important just to have them listen to what I had to say and confirm that some of the things I was feeling weren't necessarily unique to my situation, that they had also experienced them. That was really important (III/S, 71-75). Sandra also found that the collaboration helped her to explore, more deeply, the subject of her story and the way in which she
presented it (III/S, 71-81).

Trevor was absent from some of the seminars and, when asked about the value of feedback replied: "Well, I confess that my case story hasn't been looked at by other M. Teachers in the seminar which is... regrettable but, to me, it's very much something that will be ongoing and, ah, it's not something that I intend to stop once I finish it, so I'll get to a point where I'll submit the case story... but then, it will develop." (III/T, 108-112).

It can be seen, then, that all four participants who collaborated with their peers, whilst writing their stories, found this a valuable experience which had varying degrees of impact. The two who seemed to gain the most from collaboration were Malcolm and Sandra, who both found other writers dealing with similar issues to those in their own stories.

To gain some idea of the overall impact of the case writing exercise on the participants, they were asked if they found that the act of writing a story, to be read by others, caused them to reassess their own perceptions of the incidents that they were reporting (III-5). All participants agreed that it had.

In Bronwyn's words: "...it made me realise that in some ways I was very introspective the whole time and, in some ways a lot of the things that I was telling the girl were a bit hard for her to comprehend because it was coming a lot from my own, sort of, inner world, so, in that way I think it helped me to sort of realise that
I've got to, as a teacher, communicate more at a concrete level rather than, especially with a year seven kid, rather than try and be too sophisticated" (III/B, 35-42).

Malcolm, whose case story explored very personal issues and feelings related to his practicum experience, found the act of writing was very helpful, saying: "Certainly by writing up the story you then, in hindsight, have time to reflect on instances that have happened in the past. I suppose personally, too, it came to be, sort of, like a cathartic exercise too. You were then going through that process of, sort of, trying to get it out of your system in a sense too. Hopefully, by doing this and sharing it with others, it not only was useful for people who were ultimately to read the report but also for me, again, coming back to, well, giving myself some answers or helping me to prepare myself for, um, you know, future similar instances out there in the classroom, out there in the school" (III/M, 54-63).

A similar experience was related by Sandra, who commented: "Getting things, actually getting things down on paper always makes you - you think more clearly about what you really think and how, I guess, you know, really pulling out the details of what the situation was and I had to go back and think about what had happened in the classroom at particular times to either validate or explain what it was I was trying to say and, um, um, yeh, I think it, sort of, yeh, it led me to feel, perhaps, that some inadequacies after the fact that I hadn't really thought about during the fact...yes, I think it really did" (III/S, 50-58).
Trevor also related how the act of writing had caused him to reflect and reassess his thoughts. As he explained: "Part of my case is a brief description of eight individual students and I took those as examples of students with particular characteristics and particular learning needs within the classroom context, um, to demonstrate, you know, sort of variety of needs and requirements of different students and, having written those, a paragraph on each one and going back over them I found myself amused or disturbed or surprised by some of the descriptions I was using, the implicit assumptions or the language or whatever it might be, um, and, so, yeh, actually writing is one way of transferring your ideas into text and reading it again is clearly an excellent way of reflecting and commenting on your own assessments and thought processes" (III/T, 61-73).

The student teacher who seemed to be least affected by the case authorship exercise was Kevin, probably because of the somewhat impersonal nature of his case story. However, he still acknowledged that "to a certain extent" (III/K, 30) it had had an impact on his thinking. As he explained: "The act of writing makes you re-assess and reorganise your thoughts for everything pretty much but apart from that general rule, not really" (III/K, 30-32).

It would appear that the case authorship exercise served three purposes. Firstly, it prompted the students to focus upon some issue or issues relevant to their own professional development. Secondly, it provided them with a starting point for collaboration with their peers. Thirdly, it encouraged them to reflect upon their work as teachers and to reassess events in the light of that reflection.
The act of writing cases, which has been discussed in this section, is the third of the three events, the others being the case analysis exercise and the practicum, referred to at the beginning of the chapter. Although different in nature, these three events - the analysis of cases written by others, participation in a practicum and case authorship - all provided some form of input that might be expected to have a bearing on the acquisition of professional practical knowledge (PPK). Some aspects of PPK, as revealed by the interviews, will now be considered.

**PPK DEVELOPMENT**

There are two ways of approaching the development of PPK for the purposes of the present study. One is by questioning participants about their observations of practising teachers. The other is by looking for data, gathered in all interviews, which might suggest ways in which the participants were learning from their own experiences.

Whilst the concept of PPK was not directly referred to in the interviews, there were questions that related to the participants' observations of the ways in which teachers construct and apply knowledge based on past events, or experiences (II-3. IIa3), and make use of story, or narrative, in order to make sense of those experiences (III-9).

It is not suggested that these are the only ways in which teachers construct PPK but
a decision has been made to focus on them because, firstly, the issues of event-based knowledge (Carter 1988; Carter and Richardson 1989) and teachers' use of narrative (Bruner 1985; Connelly and Clandinin 1990; Carter 1993; Clandinin and Connelly 1995) have been widely canvassed in the literature and, secondly, because they are ones that might easily be identified by preservice teachers during a short practicum experience.

During the second interview participants were asked to what extent they found that the teachers at their practicum schools relied on practical knowledge based on their own past experiences (II-3, IIa-3). All of them were able to provide examples of the ways in which teachers' present knowledge and behaviour appeared to be shaped by past experience.

Bronwyn referred to the way in which her supervising teacher, who had previously taught at a boys' school, managed her classes. According to Bronwyn: "...she carries through from her experience that iron discipline that she's found to work well in a boys' school. She just doesn't let anything actually arise" (II/B, 27-29).

When asked, in a supplementary question, if she was finding that teachers tend, in their conversations, to relate back to what has happened in the past, Bronwyn talked about her university supervisor saying: "...she doesn't just criticise me at face value, she also talks a lot about situations and how I would fare in a different class, in a different school with a different sort of social class, um, which I think is a little bit unfair..." (II/B, 39-42).
Kevin pointed out the ways in which he felt that teachers' experiences were reflected in the way they went about their work, saying: "...all the teachers - they didn't really rely on notes to any extent. It was all in the head. So I guess they were relying on practical experience to that extent. One example: the cooperating teacher, when she was teaching art, did a great deal on art appreciation......which shows her knowledge and love of fine arts. So I guess that she was using her experience to an extent when it came to art lessons" (II/K, 23-29).

When asked if he had noticed teachers making frequent reference to past experiences as a justification for their present actions, he replied: "No, each of the teachers didn't so much rely upon the authority of precedence. Rather they seemed to weigh up each situation, you know. according to its merits...if they were relying on precedence then it was implicit in something which they were talking about" (II/K, 34-37).

For Malcolm, also, the practical knowledge of teachers seemed to be implicit in their actions. As he explained: "I think definitely, from teachers I talked to and classes I've observed here, teachers have got a body of knowledge, of experience - games and role plays that teachers have done here with their classes, they are things they are not doing for the first time. They can pull them out......knowing the materials, knowing the texts you are using.....that all adds up to the experience of a teacher" (II/M, 19-24).

After her short but worrying practicum experience, Rebekah affirmed the fact that
experience can be influential in the work of teachers although the outcomes of this were not always positive in the school where she found herself. As she explained: "One thing about being a prac student is, when you get to the school, a lot of the teachers whom you do come into contact with (sic) often say something about the education of beginning teaching process and a lot of them actually related to me in some form or another that you don't really learn anything at university and you only really put the runs on the board once you are actually in the classroom. I think, to an extent, that is true. Your theory will be refined by classroom experience and practice but they seemed quite cynical about the whole thing...I found that a little bit disheartening but, for them themselves, I wasn't really impressed with any of the classes that I saw. There wasn't a lot of actual teaching that was going on" (IIa/R, 57-67).

On a more positive note, she related the case of one teacher who made effective use of her knowledge of her students. As Rebekah commented: "...I did see one year 7 class when book reviews were being done and the teacher of that class was able to bring the students out and to get them to think more reflectively on what they had read....I found that she knew the students well, personally, so she knew how to talk to them. She knew what kinds of questions to ask.....made me think it's really important to know the kids as much as you can" (IIa/R, 80-85).

On the whole, however, Rebekah's experience of teachers and their use of practical knowledge had been rather depressing for her. In an effort to elicit more information some supplementary questions were asked and the following
discussion took place:

**Interviewer:** So, coming back to the question about whether teachers rely on practical knowledge, you didn't feel there was anything...

**Rebekah:** I didn't feel they relied on much else!

**Interviewer:** Practical knowledge about what, though, about how children learn or about how you control a class?

**Rebekah:** It seemed more to be methods of control, like, I got a whole feeling throughout the school that the morale of the teachers and the administration was quite low and that there was this feeling that they were just about to lose the battle of control in the school, like they seemed to be pulling out all stops as I said, like a last ditch effort to retain some kind of control and I found that the teachers were quite cynical and quite pragmatic and quite short-term in their thinking as well... and I was only there and observing for just over a week (IIa/R, 86-99)

As Rebekah had found, teachers' past experiences can have both positive and negative effects on their practice. Trevor was another to suggest that the influence of experience on a teacher's work is not always a positive one and he cited the following example: "Well, there's one member on staff here who's an older guy, and he yells every class (sic) and hates, hates the sort of fact that, to him, its just keep 'em suppressed, keep 'em down and there are other teachers who work very differently" (II/T, 44-47). When asked about the ways in which teachers relate back to past experiences when talking about their teaching methods, Trevor said: "Well, sure, I mean there are...we've had conversations with a lot of the staff and they talk of their learning curve in the first periods, first couple of years of teaching and there are things like waiting for a room to be silent..." (II/T, 53-56).

Two specific areas of teachers' work were cited by Sandra as ones that reflected the value of experience. The first was the use of questioning in the classroom.
According to Sandra, "...they're very good at doing question and answer type stuff which I think is purely experience, because you can't theorise what kind of answer a child is going to give, so that's totally practice" (II/S, 21-24). The other area she mentioned was discipline, commenting that experienced teachers seemed "much more comfortable" in handling behavioural issues and in choosing alternative courses of action (II/S, 24-25).

The observations of the various participants in this study tend to confirm suggestions in the literature that teachers' practical knowledge is event-based (Carter 1988; Carter and Richardson 1989). For example, Bronwyn felt that the class teacher's methods had been influenced by her experiences at a previous school. Moreover, the above reports seem to infer that past experiences can be internalised, becoming implicit in teacher behaviour and that this behaviour may have both positive outcomes or, as in the case of the teacher described by Trevor, negative ones.

On the one hand, by drawing on their experiences, teachers can develop a repertoire of actions and proven responses to recurring events. They also tend to have a wide range of options for dealing with class management and discipline problems. On the other hand, knowledge based on past experience can be restrictive if it causes teachers to carry certain learned behaviours into situations where they are no longer appropriate. Moreover, unpleasant experiences can lead to cynicism and lack of enthusiasm in some teachers.
Given the powerful influence of experience on teacher knowledge, some writers see the use of story telling, or narrative, as a tool with which teachers endeavour to make sense of their experiences and construct their practical knowledge (Bruner 1985; Connelly and Clandinin 1990; Carter 1993; Clandinin and Connelly 1995). In order to explore this in the context of the present study, a question was included in the third interview (III-9) to ascertain whether the participants had noticed teachers employing narrative in their discussions about teaching practice and, if they did, whether this happened often and whether it was a widespread practice or confined to a small group.

When the question was posed, two of the participants queried the definition of the word "narrative" (III/K, 119 and III/T, 326ff). Trevor, for example, argued that "...a narrative is not just anecdotes. A narrative is something where, you know, you actually put it down on paper or communicate in a longer form...there's material there that something can be done with" (III/T, 326-329). This point is certainly worth considering in terms of the value that can be placed on the informal relating of incidents by teachers. However, the intention of the question was to elicit information about the extent to which teachers employ the elements of a narrative approach when discussing their practice and, for this purpose, the word was being employed in a more general sense to cover various forms of story telling, whether it be developed into a formal narrative or not. However narrative may be defined, the question did evoke some interesting comments from the participants.

Bronwyn recalled that her cooperating teacher used anecdotal evidence in
discussions with her: "...when she was trying to correct me and make me realise that I am probably too vulnerable... she would tell me some story about what had happened to her" (III/B, 241-243). When asked if this mode of discourse occurred in the staffroom, whether it happened often and whether it was widespread, Bronwyn commented: "I felt that it was heading in that direction but, as a newcomer, I wasn't really confided in that much...I'm sure it's a big part of life in the staff room, telling stories about kids..." (III/B, 248-252).

According to Kevin, the use of stories about past events was "extremely frequent" (III/K, 125) in teachers' conversations. When asked if he believed that teachers might actually use their past experiences to creatively reflect on their practice, Kevin replied: "I wouldn't say that. They did use anecdotes to explain their actions...towards some things...I don't know how they actually went about using the experiences" (III/K, 143-145).

Malcolm's main recollection was of staffroom conversations. As he explained: "Well, there was a lot of talk of students, particular students or particular classes or particular things that were going on in...with students, classes within the school, um, so, the staffroom itself has got a learning environment for a, you know, a prac teacher, um, then again there was a sharing, you know, it was a space for sharing of experiences, um, so, yes, I found it quite an interesting experience" (III/M, 255-261).

Sandra had no hesitation in saying "Well, obviously, it happened all the time!"
(III/S, 376) when responding to the question about teachers' use of stories. She went on to say: "Basically every recess and every lunchtime one of the teachers would have a story to tell about what had happened in their last class" (III/S, 379-381). In a supplementary question Sandra was asked what purpose was served by all this talk, whether the teachers merely used it as therapy or whether it resulted in the resolution of issues. To this she replied: "Sometimes it was therapy, sometimes it was just for a light-hearted moment, a bit of a laugh. Sometimes there were issues they had to sort out...I don't know, perhaps it was because I was a student teacher, but I don't think resolutions to problems happened in that informal environment quite so often....those issues were dealt with more on a formal basis but...there was certainly plenty to say all the time about kids" (III/S,384-390).

When asked about the extent to which teachers tended to refer back to things that had happened in their past experiences, Sandra said: "Yes, it happened a lot. I don't know that they necessarily connected...actually I was quite surprised that they didn't connect with individual students quite so much as actually just the sort of generic sort of classroom practice or..classroom situation itself..but..yes that happened a lot, especially when I was being given advice about how I could improve something or approach something in a different way" (III/S, 397-403).

Trevor's initial response to the question was: "People coming out with stories - it's one of the foundations of a narrative approach....so, yeh, I guess they talked about some stories but, ah, no I don't recall evidence of other staff sort of sitting down and presenting a narrative which was then sustained as such" (III/T, 320-323).
When asked if teachers referred back to past experiences when discussing current issues, he remarked: "At the school I was at they rarely had to look very far back in the past to find something that was...opposite but, ah, it was essentially...every week something would, er, an incident would take place..." (III/T, 335-338). Whilst he agreed that teachers draw on their experience and talk about past events Trevor concluded by saying "...but that's how people do things and I don't know that that's...whether you can call it narrative or storying and re-storying......I don't think that it's anything particularly new...it just happens we've found a name for something that's always there" (III/T, 354-358).

From the above comments by participants about the use of story and narrative by teachers, three points seem to emerge. Firstly, teachers frequently tell stories about their work. These usually take the form of short anecdotes which appear to serve as therapy, by allowing them to 'let off steam' or to enliven staff room discussions. Secondly, it is common for teachers to refer back to past events in order to explain present situations, especially when this involves giving advice to novices. Thirdly, there is no evidence in the above student teacher data to suggest that teachers, as a matter of course, develop their stories to a point where they become powerful narratives that are useful for reflection. Whether or not this is a general rule cannot be deduced from the present study. However, it might well be argued that there could be many teachers for whom the act of case story writing could serve as a valuable professional development tool which promotes reflection and, in the process, teacher learning.
Having looked at the ways in which the interview participants perceived certain aspects of PPK development in experienced teachers, it is now time to consider the changes occurring in their own PPK. An effort will be made to do this by looking for changes of attitude, reflected in answers, given progressively through the three interviews, that may provide evidence of growing practical knowledge based on experience. This will involve re-visiting some of the participants' statements that have been previously cited. Use will also be made of participants' responses to a question which asked them what special areas of teaching practice they were prompted to explore further as a result of using cases (III-12) or, in Rebekah's case, how her experiences would affect her on her return to the M.Teach program after a break of twelve months (IIa-12).

It should be noted, at this point, that other data were collected from the participants at the time of the final interview. They were asked to complete a survey of "Desirable Attributes for Beginning Teachers" (Appendix C) by marking those to which they felt case-based learning was most applicable (IIa-11, III-8). This exercise will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter. However, following the completion of the survey, an unstructured discussion (different for each participant) took place and some of the comments made during that discussion will be referred to here.

In the following discussion, each participant will be considered in turn to determine the ways in which they each responded to the three significant events -
case analysis, practicum and case authorship - to construct their own unique PPK.

The interviews with Bronwyn provide a glimpse into the beginnings of what she, herself, describes as: "...the metamorphosis that I'm going through from an artist to an art teacher..." (II/B, 74-75). Moving from the isolation and introspection of an artist, working alone, to the role of teacher, in charge of a large class of students with varying degrees of motivation, was not an easy task for her.

Bronwyn went into her practicum with two main concerns - discipline and planning (I/B, 33-37). However, because of somewhat simplistic preconceptions about discipline in the private school to which she was assigned (I/B, 35-36, 43-48), she underestimated the classroom management aspect of her work and seemed to believe that good planning and organisation would be the key to a successful practicum (I/B, 36-37). This worried her to some extent as she recognised that organisation was not one of her strong points (I/B 33-34).

The continuing dissonance between artist and art teacher and her struggle to come to terms with management and planning may have contributed to an apparent conflict between Bronwyn and her university supervisor (II/B, 39-45, 113-116). At the same time, however, there appear to have been some changes in her ability to better appreciate the demands on a classroom teacher and to reflect on her own capacity to meet those demands.

When talking about the role of the teacher, Bronwyn initially concentrated on
subject knowledge and the skills needed to impart that knowledge (I/B52-55). However, as a result of her practicum experience, she was becoming aware of other concerns brought about by the complexity of a teacher's work. These included the ability to "think on your toes" (II/B, 94), and an awareness of factors, other than lesson delivery, which affect learning or, as she put it: "...not get obsessed by content of what you want to be teaching but, also, the environment" (II/B, 97-99).

In terms of reflection, Bronwyn admitted that the act of writing a case story on her practicum experience led her to look critically at her own behaviour and to realise that she was "...very introspective the whole time..." (III/B, 36) and that she needed, as a teacher, to "...communicate more at a concrete level rather than, especially with a year seven kid, rather than try and be too sophisticated" (III/B, 40-42). In summarising the relationship between case-based approaches and reflection, Bronwyn said: "...it helped to make my reflection a bit more sort of concrete and not so, what shall I say? In some ways it made me get a better perspective on things rather than just being overwhelmed by the emotions" (III/B, 155-158).

When asked (III-10) if there were any areas of teaching practice that she would like to explore further as a result of her work with the studying and writing of cases, Bronwyn said: "I think I would probably find it valuable learning how to communicate with kids at different stages of development a bit more. I think we had an introduction to that, a few lectures on it and stuff, but I don't think I've really understood it properly yet. Like, if you have all that theoretical language but I think it's an interactional thing and I have to actually interact with a lot of
Bronwyn appeared to have some rather painful experiences during the practicum and one cannot help feeling that there may be more of these before her metamorphosis was complete. However, it was apparent that her experiences thus far had made some positive contributions to her construction of PPK. There is also reason to believe, based on some of her comments reported earlier, that she had been helped in this construction process by the act of case story writing.

Compared with Bronwyn and most of the other participants, **Kevin** was far less introspective and personal when discussing issues related to the cases and the practicum. Nevertheless, there were definite indications of the learning that was taking place, especially as a result of his experiences during practicum. He specifically remarked about the satisfaction he derived from being in a school, saying that: "...you could see how it made sense....and all the time I'm thinking how to put ideas...into words...that make sense....activities that made sense.....that's good...." (II/K, 83-86).

This desire to make sense of what was going on around him characterised his view of school life during the practicum. Of special interest to him was the tendency for the school day to be punctuated with interruptions of one kind or another (II/K, 41/45). Related to this was a concern for time management (III/K, 8-9). Also, as the practicum progressed, Kevin found the focus of his attention moving away from his own performance and the presentation of lessons to more of a concern for
the learning outcomes of students (II/K, 119-122).

Before the practicum, discussing the qualities needed by a teacher, he talked about the need to ensure that learning takes place, referring to a good teacher as "...someone who facilitates learning and helps students learn on their own terms, not just the teacher's" (I/K, 40-42). When questioned after experience in a school, however, he referred to such qualities as: "...a professional attitude towards their job, a fair amount of intellectual integrity about what they are going to teach and how they're going to teach it, creativity in teaching..." (II/K, 97-99). Thus, there seems to have been a growing awareness of the personal qualities, in a teacher, that can be instrumental in achieving desirable learning outcomes for students.

As a result of his involvement with case analysis and case writing, Kevin was interested to discover more about: "...school-teacher relations, community-school relations.....and also relationships between students and teachers...just how well the teacher can communicate with a student, not just in terms of conveying factual information....but also in terms of how they've understood what students are saying to them, and students have understood what has been said..." (III/K, 153-1561.

In terms of his construction of PPK, it is significant to note that Kevin did much more than simply react to the events of the practicum. He seemed to have found strong professional support at the school in which he was placed and was able to develop a clearer perception of the qualities of a good teacher, no doubt, because of the role models with whom he came in contact. Moreover, he was able to move
beyond his own immediate concerns about lesson preparation and presentation to consider ways in which teaching is influenced by factors outside the classroom. He did it in a relatively dispassionate and logical fashion and his ability to reason in this way could be an indication that, because of his positive practicum experience, he was making steady progress in PPK development.

Of the six participants, Malcolm had probably had the most experience as a teacher, having taught English in Japan and Japanese to Primary teachers in Australia. However, this had not prepared him for teaching in a secondary school. Certainly, before practicum he had predicted that he may find classroom management and discipline challenging but the difficulty of these aspects, especially with his year 9 class, still seemed to take him by surprise and he talked about "...all the things that can happen in a class which I haven't been prepared for, haven't experienced before" (II/M, 64-66).

He also became aware of the problems that teachers face with time management and interruptions to their teaching and preparation time (II/M, 28-32). Another aspect of teaching which became of interest to him, and which was the subject of his case story, was motivation. According to Malcolm: "I'd always taught people who'd wanted to learn so, I found that a new experience to deal with year 9 students who weren't motivated in the subject they were taking..." (III/M, 46-49).

Malcolm acknowledged that, from the study of cases at the university, he had begun to appreciate "...a whole overview...of possibilities and things that can arise
in the classroom, in the school and in the life of a teacher...” (III/M, 35-37). He further elaborated on this in another part of the interview when he said: "You know, you're not just standing in front of students teaching for forty minutes or whatever and that's it. There are added responsibilities that do come into things like facilitator, director, or, you know, mother/father figure, counsellor, you know, sports coach. It seems to encompass so much more than just, um, the actual teaching of your subject area” (III/M, 151-157).

Before practicum Malcolm had summarised the most important qualities of a teacher as follows: "Producing students who have learnt,.....and perhaps someone who has a good rapport, someone who is liked - not necessarily liked but respected and liked...” (I/M, 42-44). After some practicum experience his view had changed slightly to include: "Hindsight and foresight, I suppose, in some ways, being able to predict, perhaps, what's going to come up in a class....Patience and perseverance are very important, keeping face, in a sense, that you don't lose your cool. You have to win, somehow, student respect - that's what makes a good teacher” (II/M, 69-73). This would seem to indicate a growing awareness of the complexities of a teacher's work.

Through the process of writing a case story, Malcolm also began to find value in reflecting on his own practice. For example, he commented that: "...while I was writing up my case study, it was a constant thing, well, how could this have been done differently? With whom could I have consulted? Likewise with the student herself, what measures could have been taken to help her?” (III/M, 187-191 ).
Another area of school life which impressed itself on Malcolm was the value of the collegiality which he experienced in the staff room. He described this by saying: "...I was in the LOTE Staffroom. It was only small. There were three permanent full-time staff there. There was another prac student there when I was there and I found that that was a very professional mood, I suppose you could say, of the staffroom, was very, er, cooperative. People, the full-time staff always seemed to have time to answer questions, spend time with you on problems, so I found that was quite a cooperative, collaborative staff environment" (III/M, 209-216).

As a result of his practicum experiences, combined with the act of writing up a case story, Malcolm became interested in the link between classroom discipline and motivation. As he explained: "I found if someone wasn't motivated, they seemed to be the ones that were always difficult to discipline and control, keep them on track...so that sort of correlation of motivation and discipline was something I came up with - something I'd like ....really needed to read up on and develop strategies for my own teaching style and techniques in the future..." (III/M, 272-278).

There seems little doubt that for Malcolm, like Bronwyn, the construction of PPK was a difficult process. Yet, there is evidence that growth was taking place, even if that growth mainly took the form of beginning to ask the right questions. The most powerful lessons that Malcolm appeared to learn during the practicum were to do with the complex nature of a teacher's work and the importance of
motivation in the learning process. Moreover, he clearly found that the act of case authorship was of great value in helping him to clarify his thoughts about these issues after the practicum was over.

Of all the participants in the study, it might be fair to say that Rebekah was the one who encountered the steepest learning curve. Her pre-practicum views of teaching tended to be rather idealistic. She talked about "...having students spark me off with ideas in ways of approaching things..." (I/R, 21-22) and, recognising her own "fairly academic" (I/R, 22) nature, felt that she needed to be able to relate to students at their own level, saying: "...the best way for that to happen is for me to toss something out to them and for them to respond and to show me which way to go, so I think I'm really excited about listening to whatever ideas are motivated and I'm just very keen to tune into the way in which they respond to things because I think it will be quite creative and innovative..." (I/R, 26-31).

Whilst acknowledging the importance of coming to terms with classroom management, Rebekah's main concern was to achieve learning outcomes or, as she put it: "I'm quite concerned about how do you help students to get from point A to B so, if you have a particular learning outcome, knowing what things will bring them along that path..." (I/R, 35-37).

The particular school in which Rebekah found herself for practicum did not live up to her idealistic view of what teaching was all about. The one aspect of school life for which she had not been prepared was the climate of inter-personal relationships that existed in the school. This was made more difficult for her
because she was unwell at the time. She described the situation by commenting: 
"...I was coming to the school and there were sort of personal factors in my life that I was trying to deal with and, as well as that, I wasn't physically well - quite drained physically - and so I really needed support and encouragement and I got to the school and I was met with bitterness and cynicism and suspicion...") (IIa, 150-155).

Even in the classroom she found that her academic learning had not fully prepared her for the reality. As she explained: "I did a lot of reading, I did all the course work I was given, I went and did extra reading and did a lot of thinking on all the aspects of the program, probably more than in my previous degree........but I got there and I found there are a whole lot of other issues that came up that I hadn't really thought much about and the things that I did know, that I had learnt in the program, I felt like I was only really scratching the surface..." (IIa/R, 12-19).

In this situation she became aware of the "...diversity of roles that teachers have to play - have to spend time...researching resources....the office politics was quite interesting...stresses and...power...cliques within...there were a lot of excursions....there was quite a breakdown in the administration linking up with the teaching staff as well, so there were problems, you know, there were things that should have run more smoothly.....teachers seem to be on the go the whole time, like even in the lunch hour if you're not talking over a class you've just had you're out in the playground. I just found that it was go, go, go the whole time....it seems like they have to make a lot of on-the-spot decisions..." (IIa/R, 103-113).
This rude awakening to the complexities of school life was, no doubt, responsible for a shift in Rebekah's thinking about the most important qualities needed by a teacher. Whereas she had initially emphasised such factors as organisation, knowledge of curriculum, syllabus and school policies and awareness of student needs, after her practical experience, Rebekah talked about the need "...to be pragmatic and to be realistic but not to lose those ideals and not to lose that first love....because I found all of the teachers were just hanging in there...it was just day-to-day survival and that's not the kind of teacher I want to be" (IIa/R, 175-179).

When she was interviewed some months after her practicum experience, Rebekah was positive about returning to the course and seemed confident that she had learnt some useful lessons about life in a school. As she said: "I guess I've had more time to consider the reality of school life because I think I was...like most preservice teachers, hopelessly idealistic and unrealistic, so I think I'll be a whole lot more practical, without being cynical" (IIa/R, 204-208).

After her short but tempestuous practicum experience, Rebekah seems to have spent a great deal of time reflecting on that experience and it was evident, in the interview conducted some time after the event, that there had been some positive learning outcomes. Since she did not write a case study, the apparent growth in her PPK cannot be ascribed to the use of case methods. However, her story, as it was told in the final interview, does point to the importance of adequate support for student teachers in their first practicum and has implications for the way in which
schools and cooperating teachers are selected for the important task of nurturing novice teachers.

Sandra had no illusions about what her first experience of classroom teaching would be like. As she explained before the practicum: "I thinks it's going to be challenging to stand up in front of a class of thirty little faces sort of looking at me and expecting me to do something..." (I/S, 23-25). Nevertheless she went into the practicum with a positive attitude and was looking forward to trying out some of the innovative practices that she had learnt about in her science method course at the university (I/S, 48-57).

Once in a school, Sandra expressed surprise at the amount of pressure under which teachers carry out their duties, saying: "...it's constant, exhausting and...you have to learn how to handle kids who might not be treating you with respect...you have to handle them with respect. That's difficult" (II/S, 30-32). She felt that she was not well prepared for the demands of classroom management (II/S, 9-10) and, especially found time management to be a major challenge (II/S, 80-87).

Prior to the practicum, when asked to nominate important teaching qualities, Sandra had talked about the need for "...different strategies for reaching the children..." (I/S, 41) and a teacher's "...ability to relinquish control" (I/S, 42). In the light of her practicum experiences, she referred to confidence, firmness and consistency, whilst suggesting that confidence comes from knowing the content to be taught (II/S, 91-95). It could be said, then, that experience of classroom
teaching had led Sandra to place greater value on the teacher's ability to maintain control although she did not overlook the need for competence in subject knowledge.

In her interactions with students, Sandra was learning the value of positive feedback to let her know that her teaching was on track. As she said, "I find it rewarding....when you get a lesson together that.......and it goes really well, that's rewarding...and I suppose that involves some kind of feedback from the children..." (II/S, 69-72). She also acknowledged the usefulness of reflection in evaluating her own performance. This she did both through writing evaluative comments after her lessons and by talking to others, such as her cooperating teachers and, at home, her father, who was a teacher (II/S, 115-118).

As a result of working with cases before practicum, Sandra had begun to develop an interest in such issues as student self-esteem and equity (III/S, 101-111) and the assessment of students (III/S, 154-158). Her concern for these areas deepened during practicum with the result that her case story was closely related to those issues. Speaking of her case story she said: "I think the main issue was a recognition of the fact that there are a lot of different individuals in the classroom and that it is very difficult to structure a lesson that'll reach all of those children, or that you have to use lots of different strategies so that you can be teaching to them and that includes assessment and different reporting techniques..." (III/S, 6-11).
When asked if the study of cases and the writing of a case story had caused her to think of areas that she would like to explore further (III-10), Sandra replied: "Yes, I think the idea of different assessment methods for different children interests me...and also.....I guess these are drawn out of mainly my case study, but also different ways to motivate different children in the classroom by, maybe, not focusing so much on the actual subject that I'm teaching, to incorporate kind of cross-curriculum ideas or, you know, other subjects into science teaching, to ...make it appeal to a broader group in the classroom so as to increase that interest and motivation...I guess that really interests me a lot." (III/S, 411-419).

Sandra’s construction of PPK, as a result of the practicum experience and the use of cases, seems to have been concerned with a growing awareness of the complexities of teaching and the needs of students. She was the only one of the participants for whom there was an obvious link between the use of cases at university and her own approach to teaching in the practicum. Mainly because of her case analysis exercise, she took with her into the school a deep concern for the need to cater for individual differences in the classroom and that concern was reflected in her own case story.

Trevor gave every impression of having a great deal of confidence in his own ability as he embarked on his first practicum. He was looking forward to his interaction with students, saying: "...essentially I like to engage with the minds of other people and I think that adolescents, in a lot of respects, do as well" (VT, 62-64). His expectations in this regard seemed to be realised for, when asked what he
was finding most rewarding about practicum, he replied: "The thrust and parry of my involvement with the students.....the engagement between my minds and the minds of the young people and, er, you know, some of it...some of them aren't interested and some of them aren't terribly interesting either but, um, some of them are just wonderful and I enjoy the engagement of minds and I can see that in a proper, like in a year, with your involvement with a class and the kind of things you can do there..." (II/T, 132-138).

There was more than a hint of the authoritarian about some of Trevor's comments as, for example, when he was describing the qualities of an effective teacher. He talked about teachers "producing effective students" (I/T, 144-145) and suggested that to do this "...you have to find out what..qualities...that are going to be ... developed, instilled, engineered....in the student...but what kind of qualities and capabilities do you want to develop in an individual student...in groups of students? and that's how you figure out what an effective teacher is ... so students, I guess, you have to make them self-reliant but you have to make them cooperative, you have to make them, you know, the idea is that they should like learning that they should know how to..." (I/T, 145-152).

This view of teaching seems to have softened a little during the practicum when he again discussed desirable teaching qualities and talked about the need for "...humour, persistence, intelligent preparation, sympathy, empathy, passion, interest, enthusiasm..." (II/T, 159-161) as well as "consistency"(II/T, 168). To this list he added: "I think those are the characteristics of good teachers and I think
there are characteristics of better teachers and they include: things like communicative cooperation with other staff and, for instance, I'd really like to see more and more, quote, 'teachers', unquote, in my classroom so that when I'm in my classroom, that's all fine and dandy but as, often as possible, it's an open classroom and there are other people, not just teacher and students, so you start breaking down this idea of 'the class', 'the teacher', the antagonistic function I was talking about before and, I think that's really important, and something that, well hopefully....we haven't been able to do as much of it as I'd like this prac, but, um, next time round we'll see how it goes..." (II/T, 169-180).

During his time in the school Trevor became aware of some of the problems affecting a teacher's work, such as organisational problems, environmental factors and unexpected occurrences (II/T, 65-72). He also referred to inter-personal relationships between staff members, commenting "...working with other staff... I think every M.Teacher I've spoken to has been rather surprised at how much bitching goes on..." (II/T, 73-75). Almost as an afterthought, he added: "....and the kids....just having to deal with kids" (II/T, 76-77).

In terms of his relationship with the students he found that motivation was an important issue. Whilst he seemed happy with his own presentation of lessons, he was concerned that the students were not completing the work he had set them to do. As he commented: "I think I've sort of mastered my teaching in some respects but what I haven't mastered is getting them involved in interacting.......actually producing responses and actually doing stuff....I'm a bit worried about that, so,
that's something I want to try and work on between now and the end of prac..." (II/T, 220-225). Some further remarks that he made on this subject were somewhat revealing in terms of his own priorities when he said: "...I know it's going to be tough but, what I'm hoping to achieve is get the kids to produce some good work which I can take away and use in the future...get them to do something they can be really proud of, that shows...demonstrates to them, their parents and the school what we've achieved..." (II/T, 232-236).

There was some evidence that Trevor was learning to reflect on his own practice. For example, he related how he had come to realise that, in the early stages of the practicum, he was tending to speak in the vernacular rather than modelling good English to his students. When asked if this was done in an effort to identify with his students, he replied: "I just relaxed and, whatever the context was, so I don't know whether I was thinking subconsciously, whether I had a subconscious motivation to sort of impress them with the way I used their kind of language but that really wasn't it. It was, yeh, it was a bit stupid..." (III/T, 213-217). This was of some concern to him for, as he said: "...I'm a good speaker and I've been trained in my language and I know I have a mastery of the language which is much better than most people and I should be in a classroom demonstrating, you know, exemplifying the speaker of beautiful English..." (III/T, 222-226).

Another example of reflection came when he was discussing the writing of his case story in which he wrote brief descriptions of eight individual students. He commented that "...going back over them I found myself amused or disturbed or
surprised by some of the descriptions I was using, the implicit assumptions or the language or whatever it might be, um, and, so, yeh, actually writing is one way of transferring your ideas into text and reading it again is clearly an excellent way of reflecting and commenting on your own assessments and thought processes." (III/T, 68-73).

When asked about areas of teaching practice that he would like to explore further, Trevor expressed a desire to work in multi-discipline teams when preparing teaching programs. Using the unit of study that he had used during practicum as an example, he said: "If I am going to teach a topic like I taught - 'Vietnam and the Vietnam Conflict in the 1960's' was what I called it - um, I would like to have taught that in conjunction or prepared it, certainly, and implemented the program we'd prepared in conjunction with an Art teacher, certainly a Science teacher, um, you know, people from other disciplines so it was much more holistic in its approach..." (III/T, 368-374).

As with the other participants in the interviews, Trevor seems to have spent a great deal of time reflecting on his experiences. As a result, he seemed to be making some changes to his views about teaching and his understanding of the school as a workplace. His ability to use his reflection to examine his own practice, however, seems to have been at a beginning stage. Whilst he could admit that the students did not always respond as he would wish, he seemed a little reluctant to look critically at his own practice to find the cause of this.
From the data presented, it would seem apparent that, during the period under consideration, the six novice teachers were making significant discoveries about the practical aspects of what it is to be a teacher. The types of knowledge that have been identified above seem to owe their origins more to observation and first-hand experience of what happens in schools than to the more academic and theoretical teaching that had taken place in the university. Whilst the practicum loomed large as a source of the PPK that students were constructing at the time, there is sufficient evidence to show that the study of cases and, in particular, the writing of cases had made a useful contribution. For example, the study of cases before practicum had heightened their awareness of the many types of issues that need to be addressed in schools while the task of writing an original case story caused them to focus on specific issues or problems that affected them and encouraged them to reflect on their experiences.

Having looked at the developing PPK of the six participants separately, it is possible to see some commonalities in the knowledge growth that was taking place. All of them were more aware of the complex nature of a teacher's work. This included such aspects as time and management pressures, multiple roles within the school community and staffroom politics. There was also a growing understanding of the needs of students and an appreciation of the ethical and professional considerations.

As was explained in Chapter Three, the interviews that have been discussed here, took place over a twenty-four week period in the M. Teach program and represented
one of four sources of data. Before discussing the other three sources, it is appropriate to briefly summarise the contribution made to the research by the interview data.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF DATA FROM THE INTERVIEWS

The interviews provided an opportunity to observe a small group of M.Teach students during a specific period in their course. As was pointed out at the beginning of this chapter, there were three significant events in the lives of the students during that period. Those events - the study of cases written by practising teachers, the first practicum and the writing of an original case story based on the practicum experience - tended to be closely inter-related. The first, the study of cases, had been deliberately placed in the twelve weeks leading up to the practicum and was apparently seen, by the course organisers, as a form of preparation for the students' first encounter with work in a school. For obvious reasons, the practicum, itself, was closely linked with the case story that students were required to write on their return to university. It could also be said that there was a link between the two case exercises in that those studied prior to practicum might provide a model or guide for the case authorship exercise.

One point of focus in this study was the growth in the participants' professional practical knowledge (PPK) that was taking place during the period in question. More specifically, however, there was an interest in the part played by the two case exercises in contributing to the construction of PPK. Once again, it must be
emphasised that it is difficult to separate these from the practicum experience which made such a powerful impression on the student teachers. It does seem reasonable to suggest, however, that the practicum experience and the cases, especially the case authorship exercise, worked well together and enriched one another.

Although the study of cases before practicum was not seen by the participants as highly relevant to their own practice, it became apparent towards the end of the interviews, that a small number of those cases had made a lasting impression. The participants did raise certain issues about that part of the course. In particular they mentioned the subject matter of the cases and their own tendency to concentrate on one case because of assessment constraints. It does seem clear, however, that the cases studied before practicum, although not specifically relevant to the practicum, did make a useful contribution to the participants' understanding of the theory, policy and politics of education and, in that way, provided valuable support to the teaching that was going on at the university.

Based on the data gathered by the interviews, it would seem possible to conceive of ways in which the use of cases, both in conjunction with the practicum and as a means of supporting the academic program at the university, might be enhanced. This will be discussed in detail in the final chapter. First, however, data gathered from sources other than the interview will be considered to see if they are consistent with the interview material.
CHAPTER FIVE
ANALYSIS OF DOCUMENTS

In addition to the interviews, there were three documents collected from the participating M. Teach students during the same period. As has been discussed in an earlier chapter, it was felt that these might prove useful as a means of triangulation to strengthen the reliability and validity of the information gained from the interviews whilst also providing a more holistic view of the subject of the investigation.

The documents in question consisted of two course assignments. The first was a case analysis prepared before the first practicum. The second was an original case story written by the participants after that practicum. In addition, the participants completed a survey, completed at the time of the final interview, in which they indicated which of the “Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers” (DABT) they considered to be promoted or supported by the use of case-based approaches.

In the first part of this chapter the data derived from the two case exercises, completed by the participants, will be analysed. The second part of the chapter will report on and analyse the data gathered from the DABT survey. This will be followed by a final section which explores the ways in which the information gathered from the three documents tends to confirm or deny that derived from the interview analysis.
Because of the differing nature of the documents concerned the methods of analysis will differ between the two sections that follow. Details of these methods and the rationale on which they were based were discussed in Chapter Three. Before proceeding, however, it may be worthwhile reiterating the inter-related elements that exist both within the subject being researched and, also, within the ways of gathering information for that research.

The focus of the study is the role played by case-based approaches to learning in helping novice teachers develop their professional practical knowledge (PPK). This requires a consideration of the ways in which cases were used during the period under review and, also, the relationship of these to the developing PPK that could be observed during the same period. Furthermore, because the participants' first practicum experience also took place at that time and was intentionally linked, by the course organisers, with the case-based learning, the influence of the practicum must also be taken into account.

In gathering information for this part of the research, two distinct approaches were used. One was through interactive observation, by the researcher, of the participants, their activities and the changes that appeared to be taking place. The other was through listening to the voices of the student teachers, themselves, to determine their reactions to the processes that were taking place and the activities in which they were involved. The material considered in this chapter is clearly divided between these two categories. The first section, looking at the case exercises relies heavily on the interpretations of the researcher about what those
exercises revealed of the participants. The second part, the DABT survey analysis, is more concerned with the views of the student teachers about the ways in which cases affected them.

THE CASE EXERCISES

The method used to analyse the two case exercises was described in detail in Chapter Four. An organising framework, based on the Triad of Knowledge (Collinson 1996), was proposed as a means of classifying data and the discussion which follows adheres to that model. Once the work of the participants is examined in this way, this section of the chapter will conclude with a brief outline of any significant patterns that may be evident. This will include consideration of the contribution made by the two exercises to the developing PPK of the participants.

It should be noted that two of the participants did not complete both exercises. Rebekah completed the case analysis exercise but, because she suspended her candidature early in the practicum, she did not write a case story. Trevor failed to hand in the case analysis assignment but did write a case story. When any references are made to the written work of an individual student teacher, the abbreviations CA and CW will be used to indicate the case analysis exercise and the student teacher's written case story respectively. This will be followed by the initials of the writer and the relevant line number(s). Thus, CW/B, 65 refers to line 65 in the case story written by Bronwyn. During discussion of the case analysis
exercise, if it is necessary to cite material in the original case story that story will be referred to by name and the line number(s) given.

A. THE CASE ANALYSIS EXERCISE

In keeping with the framework proposed in Chapter Three, the written case analyses of the participants will be now be considered. After an introductory section describing the content of the cases chosen for analysis, the responses of all participants will be discussed in terms of the Triad of Knowledge (Collinson 1996; Collinson 1996a). This will be followed by a summarising section which explores the way in which the cases were approached by the student teachers. This will include specific reference to the interplay of the personal experience, context and thought processes together with some tentative observations about the way in which the participants’ PPK was reflected in their writing.

THE CASES CHOSEN FOR ANALYSIS

The five participants who completed the case analysis exercise chose to respond to five different cases. These will now be briefly described, firstly, as a background to the discussion that follows and, secondly, because the choice of case was, in itself, seen as significant in understanding the student teacher’s intrapersonal knowledge and their construction of PPK. After the participants and their chosen cases have been introduced separately, the data provided by all of their responses to the cases will then be considered in terms of the various aspects of
PPK previously outlined.

**Bronwyn**

The title of the case to which Bronwyn chose to respond was "Norma" (Appendix D). The case describes an incident which took place in a small inner-city co-educational high school. Ten percent of the school's 500 students were Aboriginal and there was a support unit consisting of two Aboriginal aides. Norma was a fourteen-year old Aboriginal student. With the help of one of the aides, Geoff, she had been working on a special program, designed by Geoff and the Support Teacher Learning Difficulties (STLD) to help her with her reading. Although her reading was at the level of a six-year old, it had been possible for her to be integrated into a mainstream Year 8 class for most of the time.

The action of the case concerned Norma's encounter with an inexperienced casual teacher, Julia, who was teaching at the school for the first time. Julia's first lesson of the day was with Norma's unstreamed English class. She had arrived at the school half an hour before the lesson and had been given some written information about the school by the Head of Department who then had to leave her to attend to other administrative duties. Julia had brought multiple copies of some short extracts which she asked individual students to read. All went well until she asked Norma to read. Norma refused. When asked again, she still refused. Julia, fearing her authority was at stake, continued to insist that Norma read. This resulted in Norma shouting at Julia: "I'm not reading anything for you, you f---white bitch!"

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(Norma, 50-51) and leaving the room.

The situation was later resolved with the help of Geoff who had been away from the school when Julia arrived. He explained Norma's learning difficulties to Julia who regretted her insensitivity. After Geoff's mediation Julia apologised to Norma. When Geoff pointed out to Norma that she should also apologise she said: "Oh yeah, .....I'm sorry I called you 'white', Miss" (Norma, 78).

Kevin

The case which Kevin considered was one of six short case stories, written by two teachers from the same school, under the heading: “Change and Change Agents” (APPENDIX E). The teachers were reviewing the year which was drawing to a close and thinking ahead to the future, having just received a copy of “Agenda '96”, the Department of School Education’s priorities for the next year.

Out of the group of short cases, the one which Kevin chose to analyse was entitled: “Simpsons/Culture of Kids/Water Rats/Building Bridges” (Change and Change Agents, 156-204). In it the teacher describes how episodes of the popular TV program, “The Simpsons”, were used to stimulate discussion and writing with a Year Three/Four composite class. This was justified as a means of “narrowing the gap” (Change and Change Agents, 172) between what the teacher saw to be two different worlds - the “world of school” and the “world of home” (Change and Change Agents, 168-169). The teacher was pleased with the results but ended the
story by asking the question:

"But, by achieving these goals through English had this KLA been compromised?"

(Change and Change Agents, 204).

Malcolm

Preparing to be a teacher of Japanese in secondary schools, Malcolm had already had considerable experience tutoring in Japanese and had also spent some time teaching English in Japan. With his interest in languages, it does not come as a surprise that Malcolm, for his case analysis assignment, chose to respond to a case in which second language acquisition was an important issue. The case was entitled “Meet Vladimir” and sub-titled “Vladimir Unfolds” (Appendix F). It was written by a teacher from an Intensive English Centre (IEC) and concerned a Russian boy, aged 15, who was enrolled in the Centre one month after arriving in Australia. He spent eleven months at the Centre in order to develop skills in spoken and written English before being enrolled in High School.

The sub-title, “Vladimir Unfolds”, refers to the way in which the case was written. The author, knowing that the case was to be used by tertiary students training to be teachers, had organised the material in the case into four separate parts. Each successive part told more about Vladimir’s learning and behaviour at the IEC and revealed more of his family and home background. At the end of each part was a set of discussion questions for consideration before moving on to the next section. In the questions posed at the end of Part One and Part Two, the reader is asked to
consider what further information is needed in order to assess Vladimir’s problems (Meet Vladimir, 46-47, 114-115).

Vladimir initially presents as a likeable student who is quickly developing oral communication skills but is falling behind the other students in the areas of reading and writing. As time goes by his behaviour deteriorates and this further interferes with his academic performance, resulting in the need for him to repeat part of the course. In Part Two of the story we learn that Vladimir’s parents are separated. He came to Australia with his father and his mother is still in Russia. It is not until Part Four that we discover that Vladimir has a twin brother who lives with their mother in Russia. It is also suggested at this stage that the Counsellor, after speaking with Vladimir’s father, “...believes there may be very angry, possibly violent, scenes at home” (Meet Vladimir, 176-177).

By the time the teacher is aware of all this background information, Vladimir is ready to move on to High School. He has also been found accommodation in a government funded house for adolescents (Meet Vladimir, 192-194). A few months after leaving, he visits the centre to report that he is enjoying High School and has settled in well (Meet Vladimir, 196-197).

Rebekah

Rebekah chose to analyse the case entitled “The Great I Am” (Appendix G). The subject of the case is Tom, who is described by the case author in the following
way: “Tom is quite an over-weight and intelligent boy. He has quite a large self-esteem problem when it suits him and has a habit of opening his mouth to make any stupid comments that he can possibly think of.” (The Great I Am, 6-8). It is claimed that Tom frequently initiates arguments with other students and with teachers but never accepts that he is in any way to blame. This has resulted in numerous suspensions from the school.

As an illustration of Tom’s behaviour, a particular incident is related. Tom’s class had been involved in a PE lesson. Tom, himself, had not participated (probably through self-consciousness about his weight) and this had been “…tactically ignored by the teacher” (The Great I Am, 34). At the end of the lesson, Tom joined a group who were collecting equipment and returning it to the storeroom. However, they stood at the door and threw the equipment into the room with the result that the PE teacher called them back to pack the equipment away properly. All did so except Tom who refused on the grounds that he had not participated in the lesson. When the teacher threatened him with lunchtime detention, Tom swore at the teacher. This in turn caused Tom to be referred to the Head Teacher (the author of the case story) and then to the Principal who suspended him from school once more.

Sandra

The case analysis prepared by Sandra was much longer and more detailed than those submitted by the other student teachers, consisting of much more than the
required four thousand words. The reason for this would appear to be that she became very interested in the issues relating to the case and wanted to study them in some depth. Like Rebekah, Sandra chose a case story about a teenage boy whose antisocial and disruptive behaviour was causing concern.

The case chosen was entitled: “A Disruptive Student. There’s Nothing Wrong With Me!” (Appendix H). This concerns a boy named Andrew who has completed two years of secondary school. He is the youngest of four boys in his family, the other three being adults. He is described as intelligent with good practical skills but little interest in school work. He exhibits “...an extreme dislike for women teachers...” (A Disruptive Student, 10-11).

Andrew has had a long history of anti-social behaviour both in the school and the local community. Years of counselling and repeated suspensions from school have not helped. In fact, the situation is becoming worse and Andrew is now the leader of a group of students causing problems in the playground. There is a suggestion that he may suffer from Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD). A proposal that Andrew should go to a special departmental facility for emotionally disturbed students for assessment and treatment has been agreed to by his parents but Andrew refuses to go.

The author of the case story, knowing that it was to be used in teacher education, provided guiding questions for discussion. These questions covered the issues of ADD; the segregation, in special schools, of students with behaviour problems;
these can be influenced by political considerations, awareness of government policy documents will also form part of the professional knowledge base. The five participants who completed this exercise all demonstrated an ability to search the literature and identify relevant information. Thus, their responses to the cases became a combination of their own pre-existing professional knowledge and the additional knowledge arising out of the research that was prompted by the case analysis exercise itself.

It can be argued, then, that case analysis provides a useful way in which to encourage the expansion of professional knowledge. However, the way in which this knowledge development takes place can vary between individuals. From reading the various case responses, it would appear that the application of professional knowledge was influenced by certain factors that will now be discussed.

One important aspect of the professional knowledge content in each individual's response was the way in which that knowledge was selected. For example, Bronwyn's selection of this material was determined by one guiding question. This was "Why does Norma resist literacy?" (CA/B, 12). Her answer to that question was based on the assumption that the main issues raised by the case were Norma's Aboriginality and the resulting conflict between her culture and that of the teacher, Julia. Thus, all the sources consulted related to these issues. The only policy document cited was the NSW Department of School Education's *Aboriginal Education Policy* (1996).
Having chosen this line of approach, Bronwyn proceeded to write an interesting and detailed comparison of Aboriginal culture with her own. She referred to the policy document and supported her comments with references to other sources which indicated the types of teaching and learning programs considered to be most suited to Aboriginal students. It should be pointed out, however, that her main source was concerned with Aboriginal children living in traditional communities rather than an urban setting.

Kevin also limited the area with which he would concern himself by stating, early in his analysis that it was his intention to "...concentrate for the most part on the Key Learning Area of English and on primary school students" (CA/K, 10-11). In support of his arguments, Kevin cited a large number of sources, including three relating to NSW Department of School Education Policy. These were: Agenda '96 (referred to above); the K-6 English Syllabus and Support Document (1994); and The Mass Media in Education Policy (1981). The other references all related to theory and research in the following six broad areas of interest: children and childhood; culture; education and pedagogy; media; literature for children; and marketing.

Implicit in Malcolm's treatment of his chosen case was his own professional knowledge about languages. For example, in referring to Vladimir's difficulties with written language he supplemented this with professional knowledge related to the following areas of interest: the needs of non English speaking background (NESB) students; second language acquisition (SAL); multiculturalism; student
welfare; discipline and classroom management; and support services in schools (e.g., counsellors and social workers). In connection with these issues, Malcolm cited the work of a number of authors as well as the NSW Department of School Education *Policy on Student Welfare* (1986), the *Multicultural Plan 1993-1997* (Oct., 1992), *Schools Renewal: A Plan to revitalise Schools within the NSW State Education System* (June, 1989) and the *Report of the Committee of Review of NSW Schools* (Sept., 1989).

Although Rebekah cited only two Department of School Education Documents (both relating to Student Welfare), she referred to numerous researchers in the areas of classroom management, student behaviour and discipline in schools. Moreover, her treatment of these issues was influenced by strongly held convictions about social justice.

Of the many references used by Sandra in preparing the response to her case, approximately one-third were departmental policy documents or relevant government publications. These, together with other sources consulted, related to seven areas of interest, namely: student behaviour/discipline; student welfare; special education; counselling and support services; ADD; gifted and talented students; and cooperative learning.

Sandra identified two major issues as follows: *Firstly, there is the subject, Andrew, whose opportunity to participate and be productive in his own education is being severely compromised. Secondly, there are the other students in his*
classes, for whom 'there is little or no teaching of any value occurring' (CA/S, 24-27). With this as a starting point, she then went on to consider policy and research in the various areas mentioned above.

Apart from the professional knowledge sources which the student teachers chose to consult, it is also interesting to consider those which they omitted. With the possible exception of Sandra, whose comprehensive treatment seemed to cover all possible areas, the respondents each managed, to a greater or lesser degree, to overlook some aspects of their cases that might reasonably have been considered significant for an understanding of the issues raised in those cases.

Bronwyn’s case analysis, in particular, provides an example of this. As has already been observed, she elected to focus on issues related to Aboriginality. In her enthusiasm to do this Bronwyn appears to have overlooked certain aspects of the case which might serve to give it a more general application. For instance, the original case story makes the point that Norma: "...had all the usual resistance of the adolescent who has met with repeated failure in attempts at learning to read" (Norma, 21-22). In fact the basic cause of the confrontation in the story was not race related.

In concentrating exclusively on racial issues, Bronwyn failed to consider policy documents on the use of Support Teachers Learning Difficulties (STLD) or on the integration into mainstream classes of students with learning difficulties. Omissions such as these did not prevent Bronwyn from presenting a detailed and
well argued response to the case. However, they may have limited her own learning and her ability to generalise about the issues of the case.

Kevin’s preference for concentrating on the broader issues raised by the case has already been mentioned. Consequently, he did not have a great deal to say about the specific lesson unit, described in the story, or the teacher’s teaching methods. Although the teacher’s presentation of the case was not particularly rich in detail, it still might have been possible to comment on the pedagogical methods mentioned by the teacher and to speculate on other ways in which the TV program might have been used to enhance the curriculum.

Malcolm covered the main issues of his case by citing relevant professional knowledge. Unfortunately, he did not make adequate use of that knowledge and ended his case analysis somewhat abruptly, without fully discussing the implications of policy and research for the case or the way in which the various aspects of the case were handled or might have been handled better. This had, in fact, been a requirement of the exercise. His failure to take the analysis to its final conclusion and to provide his own detailed plan for management of the case might be attributed to Malcolm’s own lack of experience. It could also be related to the rate of development of his interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge which will be discussed later.

Two areas that Rebekah did not seem to have considered in the case analysis were the NSW Department of School Education’s policy on student suspension, which
sets out clear guidelines about processes to be followed by schools, and the role of Support Teachers (Behaviour) in the school system. Had she done so she might have questioned the extent to which the school had followed departmental policy and had availed itself of support services. Mention might also have been made of the health issue. Tom’s behaviour appears to have been triggered, to some extent, by self-consciousness about his obesity. This, in turn, could possibly be the symptom of a medical problem which needed investigation.

Whilst recognising that some issues were apparently overlooked in the various written responses to the cases, it must be added that all the respondents presented strong arguments within the limits that they placed upon themselves by stressing some issues at the expense of others. It would appear that there was a personal element in all of the responses. This is difficult to prove, in view of the fact that each respondent wrote about a different case. However, there did seem to be a unique quality about each response that was a function of the individual who created it. For example, Kevin’s deliberate choice to analyse a case about general issues and his treatment of that case may have indicated an unwillingness on his part to become too emotionally involved in difficult issues. In contrast, the responses prepared by Bronwyn and Rebekah were quite emotive in nature.

This individuality was seen again in the way in which each of the participants used the professional knowledge at their disposal to critique the cases. Invariably, most criticism was reserved for the case author or the teachers and school administrators. At times, such criticism may have been misplaced. Bronwyn, for
example, having chosen to focus solely on what she saw as the racial implications of the case, criticised the school for its failure to implement appropriate policies. However, from the evidence presented in the case itself, it could be argued that adequate policies were in place and that the confrontation that took place had a great deal to do with the inexperience of the casual teacher, whom Bronwyn defended.

Kevin, speaking of the case story which he was analysing, claimed that it "...suffers from some problems of analysis" (CA/K, 30), and went on to criticise "...the teacher's vague and casual reference to culture" (CA/K, 32) and the attempts to distinguish between the school world and the non-school world (CA/K, 33-43). He also criticised the teacher's expressed fear that the KLA of English might be compromised by the introduction of popular culture in the form of a TV program into a teaching unit. Kevin questioned the use of the word 'compromise' (CA/K, 44) and made the comment that: "To view 'our teaching and learning' or education as something that should not be exposed to a variety of influences is in itself dangerous...Worse though, this view also seems to imply that 'the world of the school', is something wholly distinct, and is at risk of surrendering its identity (CA/K, 50-54).

Malcolm, in his case analysis, criticised this method in which the case ("Vladimir") was presented. As has been explained, the case author had deliberately constructed the case in four separate parts, to be studied in sequence, with each part providing more information. However, Malcolm complained that:
"The case could have been presented more as a whole rather than in four separate bunches as was the case" (CA/M, 304-306). Thus, it is apparent that Malcolm failed to appreciate the fact that the method of presentation was actually an attempt to replicate the way in which teachers have to work. When dealing with dilemmas of the kind described in this case, relevant information often comes to the teacher slowly and one of the most important practical skills a teacher can develop is the ability to ask the right questions. Apart from this, Malcolm offered little criticism of the way in which the case was handled by those at the school.

Rebekah and Sandra, on the other hand were highly critical of the authority figures involved in their case stories and the absence of vital information in those stories. Rebekah rightly pointed out that it was impossible to know, from the details given in the case story, the extent to which the school was following Departmental policy guidelines (CA/R, 30-40) since there was no indication that appropriate student welfare strategies had been implemented.

Sandra also inferred that there was a lack of information in the case story that she was studying and concluded that: "...even without details it is possible to hypothesise that Andrew is being constrained within an authoritarian discipline system that has missed some opportunities to succeed" (CA/S, 35-37). Her hypothesis about the school’s discipline system may or may not be correct. However, her remarks do seem to make the valid point that the teachers have an obligation to examine their own practices and not to assume that it is only the student who needs to change his ways.
Complaints, by the student teachers, about the lack of information in the cases might suggest that there is reason to question the efficacy of using multiple open-ended cases with student teachers, especially prior to their first experience of teaching in a school. It highlights the importance of matching the types of cases presented to students with the purposes which those cases are expected to serve.

Another interesting aspect of Rebekah’s response to her case was that, in presenting the policy and research documents relevant to the case, she then proceeded to criticise the cited documents. With respect to education department policy on social welfare, for example, she commented that “...little in the policy addresses how a student is valued in the context of society. This is an infinitely bigger task than just valuing a pupil in the classroom, and this cannot be divorced from it” (CA/R, 127-129). She also expressed reservations about the assumptions behind the various theories and research studies, stating: “The problem with the theories discussed above is that the construction of the school (and broader system) is not questioned, and ‘negotiation’ is still directed by the teacher who holds the power. Thus, while students seem to have power, if these theories are seen as the end point for conflict resolution, teachers subtly retain power” (CA/R, 243-246). Thus, once again, Rebekah’s interest in broader social issues can be seen to be paramount in her analysis of the case.

From what has been said about the use of professional knowledge in the written responses to the various cases, it will be apparent that, whilst the student teachers appeared to have no difficulty in accessing and presenting relevant knowledge of
this kind, their selection and presentation of professional knowledge was influenced by their own personal forms of knowledge. These types of knowledge, interpersonal and intrapersonal, will now be discussed.

**Interpersonal Knowledge**

Interpersonal Knowledge, as previously defined includes relationships with students, the educational community and the local community (Collinson 1996). This type of knowledge was central to an understanding of the cases, especially those which involved the behaviour of individual students within the school context (i.e., “Norma”, Vladimir”, “The Great I AM” and “A Disruptive Student...”). Thus, each case provided a basis on which the student teachers could explore the importance of interpersonal relationships in education. This exploration took the form of either critically examining the interactions implicit in the case story or suggesting ways in which interpersonal relationships between the protagonists in the story might have been improved.

In her response to the case, Bronwyn made numerous references to interpersonal relationships. Most of these related to Aboriginal culture. For example, she emphasised the importance of kinship (CA/B, 73-77) and its educational implications (CA/B, 118-122). Other aspects of interpersonal relationships in Aboriginal culture were also discussed. Bronwyn pointed out that Aboriginal children are trained to be independent from an early age (CA/B, 115ff), that it is customary for them to take longer to respond to a question or request (CA/B, 127ff)
and that there is a strong tendency for these children to be embarrassed if singled out in front of a group (CA/B, 146ff).

In addition, Bronwyn pointed out that: "Swearing is just part of Aboriginal speech and is not regarded as insulting in itself. This shed's light on Norma's apology where she says sorry for calling Julia 'white' rather than for calling her a 'f---bitch'. Also apologies are not expected traditionally as the obligations of kinship are much more binding than an apology could ever be. Greetings or saying please or thank you are also not generally a part of Aboriginal speech. If you do something for someone it is because you wanted to or your kinship demanded it not because of any philanthropy" (CA/B, 183-190).

All of Bronwyn's information about interpersonal knowledge in Aboriginal culture was obtained from a small number of selected references. It is not clear whether these references were representative of the literature or selected because they supported Bronwyn's line of argument. Moreover, it might be suggested that the sources quoted are not always relevant to the case. For example, it might be argued that since the cited information referred, mostly, to traditional aboriginal culture in Arnhem Land, it may not be entirely applicable to the life of an urban Aboriginal girl.

Although Kevin elected to concentrate on the rather general topic of children's culture in his response to his case, he did demonstrate an understanding of the ways in which interpersonal issues were relevant. For example, early in the discussion
he made the point that: "...children's culture seems like the ideal analytical nexus for the convergence of so many cultural, political and personal concerns" (CA/K, 67-68). At the same time, he was aware of the cultural tensions that can exist within a school (CA/K, 290-293) and came to the conclusion that: "The teacher's own antipathy and sense of competition towards the non-school world of the students meant that s/he only used children's popular culture out of desperation." (CA/K, 300-302).

Malcolm was also aware of the importance of interpersonal relationships when considering the problems experienced by the subject of his case, Vladimir. He suggested that interpersonal relationships outside the school had contributed to Vladimir's problems (CA/M, 172-180) and acknowledged that the attempts to solve those problems also involved relationships with and between a number of people (CA/M, 208-211).

Indicative of the way in which Rebekah approached the personal interrelationships in the case is the way in which she interpreted the story's title when she said: "The title of this case study "The Great I Am" is obviously an allusion to God's reference to himself in the Old Testament - that he would be known by his actions. This title tells me two things: that if Tom is judged by his actions alone, without looking beyond the results to the causes, then he won't be reached. I see little evidence of staff probing the causes of Tom's behaviour. Secondly, the title reflects the tone of the case study, that he is God and can do what he likes. This
seems to be firm in laying the blame completely at Tom’s feet” (CA/R, 95-102). Thus, she infers that the teachers at the school must accept some of the blame for the situation being as bad as it is and, later, makes the comment that: “...as far as the case study reveals, teachers have let frustration and anger exasperate(sic) the situation” (CA/R, 172-173). Rebekah also stressed the need to involve Tom’s parents and the school counsellor in searching for ways to improve the situation.

It is a feature of Rebekah’s reaction to the case that she sees the needs of the student to be of prime importance. As she observed: “Tom needs help with his interpersonal skills, this being aided by a more positive self concept, and a fostering of his interests and abilities. He also needs to understand the origins of his own behaviour and the feelings of others” (CA/R, 150-153).

Like Rebekah, Sandra, placed the burden of responsibility on the teachers to help the student, in this case Andrew. She pointed out that it was important for teachers to seek to understand the reasons for Andrew’s conduct and to find appropriate ways of communicating with him CA/S, 75-77). She was also very interested in the information about his position in his family where he is the youngest of four, with three adult brothers.

The need for communication between home and school was also stressed. This was especially the case if he were to be diagnosed as suffering from ADHD and were prescribed medication. Sandra pointed out that, according to a document published by the NSW Department of School Education, “...the management of
ADHD students is the shared responsibility of parents, medical practitioners, teachers and schools. Positive feedback and reinforcement are successful strategies to increase appropriate behaviour and it is noted that specific, remedial changes to classroom procedures can be implemented without a medical diagnosis” (CA/S, 228-232). Hence, interpersonal relationships were seen to be of great importance. Sandra recommended classroom practices that were more open to student participation.

Sandra suggested that, because Andrew was engaged in a power struggle with the teacher, a way of dealing with this might be “...to simply not enter the power struggle - to divest control by using democratic methods of learning and discipline” (CA/S, 344-345). Outside the classroom, also, Sandra would expect Andrew and his parents to be involved in making decisions so that: “...everyone involved understands the nature of the problem and the direction management will take” (CA/S, 461-462).

As happened with professional knowledge, some of the students appeared to overlook some important aspects of interpersonal knowledge related to their cases. For example, much of Bronwyn’s analysis of the case was concerned with contrasting what she perceived to be the conflicting cultural attitudes of Aboriginals and white Australians. There is always a danger, of course, that such generalisation can lead to a stereotyping of both groups. Also, in pursuing this line of approach, she had little to say about the individual differences that are encountered among students irrespective of their ethnicity or about such
interpersonal relationships as those between: the school and its community; the school and casual teachers; the liaison officer, Geoff, and the other staff and the students; Julia and the class (and Norma in particular); Geoff and Norma; and Geoff and Julia.

Furthermore, there is little in Bronwyn's analysis to indicate an appreciation of the strong interpersonal relationships that Geoff has developed within the school and how these might have been achieved. Bronwyn did acknowledge his contribution to the resolution of this case as being "highly commendable" (CA/B, 336). However, she failed to reflect on ways in which his handling of the situation might have affected Julia's construction of practical knowledge about classroom management.

Kevin, by concentrating on the general issues of children's culture and the English curriculum, neglected to comment on the specific interpersonal relationships evident within the case itself. The writer of the case admitted to having problems of classroom control and management and was pleased when the use of a popular TV program, as stimulus, led to improved working relationships between the children in pairs and groups. Kevin had nothing to say about this, possibly because he had no personal experience of classroom interaction with which to compare the reported scenario.

A lack of classroom experience might also be the reason for Malcolm's failure to venture upon a more critical examination of the way in which the various
participants in the case related to one another. For example, it might be reasonable to question the avenues of communication that existed between the different professionals involved with Vladimir. There did not seem to be a great deal of consultation or collaboration between the teacher, the principal, the counsellor and the social worker.

Given the nature of the case analysis exercise, the written responses of the student teachers provide little direct evidence of their own interpersonal knowledge at work. Only one of the respondents, Bronwyn, shared a personal experience. Referring to a previous assignment, carried out in another section of the M.Teach program, in which she wrote a report on an interview with an Aboriginal woman, Bronwyn reported the following incident: "My tutors wanted me to place it on the internet for the access of other students, however, I thought it might be more polite to ask her first. She discussed it with her husband (who can't read) and rang me to say it was not O.K. to put it on the web. This could have been just to guard her privacy, but I'm more inclined to think it had to do with their attitude to knowledge in general" (CA/B, 49-55) Thus, Bronwyn reported this incident to support her claim that willingness to share knowledge is culturally based and, therefore, that there was a cultural reason for Norma refusing to read.

Apart from this one instance, the student teachers' own interpersonal knowledge can only be judged from the way in which they critiqued those aspects of the case stories that involved interpersonal relationships. For example, Kevin showed that he was aware of the way in which children's culture is affected by "...external
forces such as gender, ethnicity, class, politics and economics.” (CA/K, 162-163). He also acknowledged the dependence of a school on its environment, saying: “While schools are distinct, they are reliant upon their societies and cultures for their existence. Historical and contemporary concerns demand a voice in the curricula of schools” (CA/K, 236-239).

Likewise, Malcolm seemed to appreciate the contribution of interpersonal factors in both the cause and the solution of Vladimir’s problems when he remarked: “In Vladimir’s situation, his unwanted behaviour was largely a ramification of problems at home. Nevertheless, strategies to deal with his classroom and school behaviour needed to be put in place along with ways of resolving the issues in his private life. For Vladimir, a range of people were called upon to play a role in overcoming his unwanted behaviour. This ranged from the individual teachers who dealt with him on a day to day basis, as well as head teachers and counsellors” (CA/M, 205-211).

Throughout her analysis, Renekah demonstrated her own interpersonal knowledge through her critical examination of the relationships within the school. She noted that the teachers seemed to regard Tom as “...a 'too hard' case, and perhaps beyond redemption” (CA/R, 44-45) and, with reference to the discipline strategies used, concluded that “...most measures seem reactionary and ad hoc, and only compound the struggle for power” (CA/R, 51-52). In particular, the main incident in the case story was, for Rebekah, an example of this power struggle and she remarked: Perhaps Tom's behaviour intensified because of the obvious and
embarrassing demands placed upon him physically. A blind eye to non
participation gave Tom legitimate grounds to refuse putting the equipment away.
Thus a demand to do so seems to be an arbitrary exercise of control, which Tom
in his resistance took to its logical conclusion (CA/R, 108-112).

As was the case with Rebekah’s construction of professional knowledge, it is
evident that her interpersonal knowledge is also strongly influenced by her ethical
and moral concerns regarding the structure of the education system and society in
general. Thus, she insisted that: “...the issue of institutional power also needs to
be addressed. In the short to mid term the teachers’ pedagogy may need to be
altered, with more room for explicit negotiation and the sharing of power.
Students need to be involved in more than just tokenistic decision making; they
need to accept responsibility for their own education, and hence should have more
say in what is taught and how”, (295-299). In Tom’s case, this would involve “...giving
him the opportunity to exercise power as a social interest goal, through
increased involvement in the decision making process regarding rules and
standards that are not arbitrarily imposed. Tom's teachers need to acknowledge
Tom's right to have power, instead of instinctively reacting against it” (CA/R, 195-
199). Thus Rebekah’s understanding of interpersonal relationships appears to have
developed within the context of her own strongly held views about the importance
of the individual and the need for equity and justice.

Sandra also saw the incidents reported in her case as representing a power struggle
and suggested that: “It would seem inappropriate and ineffectual for the school to
try to manipulate Andrew's personal characteristics to suit its institutional needs” (CA/S, 452-453). Sandra suggested that the teachers might modify their own methods of communication with Andrew. For example: “Responses to Andrew's behaviour should be consistent and planned. Reacting in unpredictable ways can often have positive results, e.g., laughing at Andrew's humour or giving him an opportunity to say his piece when everyone is listening and attentive; encouraging positive behaviour; commenting when he is not demanding attention and ignoring when he is; refusing to enter power struggles, perhaps by accepting his view or comments; giving him an opportunity to contribute in a meaningful rather than subversive manner” (CA/S, 478-484). Such suggestions as these probably tell us something about Sandra's own interpersonal knowledge which she has constructed over time through her own experiences. Indeed, it can be said that her method of responding to the case reflects a considerable degree of maturity and confidence.

From what has been said about the evidence of professional knowledge and interpersonal knowledge, it can be seen that the way in which these were demonstrated in the case analysis reflected the personal characteristics of the respondent. This leads us to consider the role of intrapersonal knowledge in case analysis.

Intrapersonal Knowledge

Intrapersonal knowledge is that type of knowledge that “...emphasises understanding of oneself and the capacity for introspection and reflection”
(Collinson 1996, P. 67). It is not easy to detect such characteristics from reading the case responses written by the student teachers. It is possible, however, to observe the extent to which the personal characteristics of each individual impacted upon the way in which the case was interpreted. This was most noticeable in the response written by Bronwyn.

Bronwyn did demonstrate a degree of introspection and reflection when she considered the differences between Aboriginal culture and her own. She even expressed reservations about producing a written response to the case because written knowledge is culturally based and the act of writing “...can only help to affirm our power and our knowledge with regard to the Aborigines because knowledge is power - this is something Aborigines really understand, however there is a huge difference in how knowledge is valued and how it functions in each society” (CA/B, 30-33). She also used quite emotive language when she contrasted the Aboriginal attitude towards the environment with the exploitation of natural resources by our own society (CA/B, 387-393), although this had no direct bearing on the case itself.

An interesting insight into Bronwyn’s background may also be afforded by her use of terminology. For example, when discussing the differences in world view between Aboriginal and European culture she talked of the “Aboriginal weltanschauung” (CA/B, 98). Although this use of the German word may have been purely coincidental, it may have been a reflection of Bronwyn’s background, which is not revealed in this particular piece of writing but was known to the
researcher from seminar discussions. As the child of a German father and Australian mother, she was taken to Germany at the age of nine and had much of her schooling there before returning to Australia where she finished her secondary school education. This lapse into German terminology, therefore, is what might be expected given the family background described. What is surprising, however, is the fact that Bronwyn did not make any direct reference to her own experience as a student in a school where the instruction was in her second language. It might have been expected, for example, that the case would have prompted her to make more of an issue of multi-culturalism in general, rather than simply focussing on the “Aboriginality” issue.

At another point in the discussion, when describing Aboriginal attitudes to knowledge, she commented: “Knowledge goes hand in hand with authority, thus an exaggerating young braggart is less likely to be believed than a more senior member of the tribe. It’s a bit like intellectual property in our culture, much like how a pastiche of a Van Gogh painting can never be a Van Gogh” (CA/B, 154-158). This choice of metaphor reflects Bronwyn’s artistic background. It also confirms research into the tendency of teachers to use metaphors in order to make sense of their experiences and to construct knowledge (Mulligan 1993; Munby and Russell 1997). Moreover, this is another illustration of the way in which the types of knowledge become integrated (Collinson 1996). References to “pastiche” and “Van Gogh” may represent her professional knowledge but the way in which they are used suggest that they have also become part of her own intrapersonal knowledge.
Finally, it might be argued that Bronwyn's approach to the case provides a strong indication of her own personal attitude to authority. There seems to be an inference that people other than the teacher might have done more to avoid the conflict than they did. In dismissing the efforts that were made to give Julia background information about the school, Bronwyn neglected to consider ways in which the casual teacher, herself, may have managed the situation differently (CA/B, 363-367).

It would appear, then, that personal attitudes and knowledge played an important part in the way in which Bronwyn interpreted and analysed the case. It affected the way in which she described events and probably helped to determine which types of professional knowledge she chose to draw upon. This professional knowledge, in turn, impacted upon her existing interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge to determine how these were applied to the case.

By way of contrast to Bronwyn, Kevin showed little of his personal feelings in the treatment of his case. For the most part, when Kevin offered a point of view about issues such as children's culture or community attitudes to the media this was usually accompanied by a reference to a written source. Thus, it would be hard to say how much these opinions were determined by his own deeply held convictions and how much they simply reflected his professional knowledge acquired through reading of the literature.

One statement does seem to provide a hint of personally held beliefs. This came
at a point when Kevin was commenting on the attitudes of some sections of the community to children's culture. In this connection he made the following remarks: “It would appear that many of the criticisms directed towards children's culture rely on generalisations about what children's culture is, and it is extraordinarily diverse in composition. More sinister though, is a distrust of children. In an almost Wesleyan fashion, children are only 'good' if they mimic their parents and limit their expression to the pure and gentle. Children can only have their own culture as long as it pleases the parents and guardians. In this way, such attitudes prove themselves to be inimical to the anti authoritarian ethos of child culture. While children's culture can be manipulated, it cannot be controlled. Thus threat of the untamed, anarchic child, the natural being of Rousseau and Oscar Wilde, bringing their (sic) own desires into the classroom may well be far too much” (CA/K, 397-406). Apart from this display of personal feeling, the case analysis exercise tells us little about Kevin’s intrapersonal knowledge.

Malcolm was another respondent whose writing gave few clues as to his personal beliefs and attitudes although his choice of topic and his treatment of it may provide some indication of his own self-awareness. For example, from his selection of this particular case for analysis, we might infer that he found the issues raised in the case compatible with his own background and interest in foreign languages.

In Malcolm’s discussion of the way in which Vladimir was treated, there was one issue which seemed to illicit a rather personal response. His own attitudes to
family and family relationships seem to be reflected in his comments about
Vladimir's separation from his father. Although he accepted that Vladimir's
removal to an adolescent home appeared to have a positive effect, he still
questioned this strategy, saying: "To move him from his father's care and place
him in a home seems to be a last resort. Were enough things done to save the home
situation? Is the adolescent home going to be temporary or is it seen as a long-
term solution? With a lack of specialised knowledge and experience in this field
along with a general insufficiency of information from the case study itself it is
difficult to thoroughly answer these questions. (CA/M, 329-334).

Apart from this observation, Malcolm's reporting and analysis of the case
demonstrated little personal engagement with the events.

As has already been observed, much of Rebekah's writing seemed to reflect her
own deeply held convictions and world view, especially her attitude to broader
social issues, such as institutionalised power and the place of the individual in
society. Reference has also been made to the way in which she interpreted the title
of the story. We have no way of knowing whether the case author had thought as
deeply about the implications of "The Great I Am" as Rebekah did. However, her
detailed exposition of its meaning in the Biblical account of God does seem to
reflect her own religious background, to which she referred in the first interview.
The manner in which the case was discussed seems to suggest a strong sense of
responsibility for the welfare of students. For example, Rebekah stated: "There
is an ethical responsibility for teachers themselves to formulate their own
approaches to disruptive behaviour and to see it as a part of providing long term educational enrichment (Slee, 1995), not short term appeasement" (CA/R, 174-177). This sense of responsibility together with her convictions about society combined to make Rebekah’s response to the case a very serious one demonstrating a studious exploration of the literature.

Sandra did not present her views in such an emotive manner as Bronwyn or Rebekah. The analysis was a well documented review of literature relevant to the case, leading to a practical plan which might be implemented in the school. Nevertheless, the reference materials cited and the way in which they were applied to the case may provide some clues as to Sandra’s intrapersonal knowledge. In some of the comments and in the proposed management plan there is strong evidence of what Collinson refers to as an ethic of care and a work ethic (Collinson 1996). Sandra, like Rebekah, expressed a strong belief in the rights of students and obviously felt that, if she were the teacher, she would be willing to take more responsibility for the situation than the author of the case story.

As has already been observed, the various case responses provided very little evidence of intrapersonal knowledge, in the sense that it has been defined. It is apparent, however, that the responses were heavily influenced by personal factors of which the respondents may or may not have been aware. From this it might be concluded that the act of case analysis has, within it, the capacity to provide a starting point from which student teachers are encouraged to explore the ways in which such personal factors influence their professional judgement, leading to an
enhancement of their intrapersonal knowledge. This has obvious implications for case methodology in teacher education.

SUMMARY OF THE CASE ANALYSIS EXERCISE

In summary, a number of comments can be made about the treatment of the case analysis exercise by the student teachers. Although the five respondents were quite different in personality and background and were writing about five different cases, it is still possible to identify a number of characteristics that seemed to apply, to a greater or lesser extent, to all.

The respondents all adopted a strongly academic approach and demonstrated good research skills in responding to the cases. Kevin, for example, even gave his written work the sub-title: "A Case Study Essay for Study One" (CA/K, 3). This is probably not surprising in view of the fact that this was a university course assignment set for assessment purposes and all respondents were post-graduates, used to writing in a formal and detached way about various topics. However, it does suggest that, for the student teachers, this exercise was seen as just another university assignment rather than a vicarious experience of classroom practice. This is not to imply that they did not gain a great deal of knowledge from the exercise but, if it was intended that this assignment was to be a preparation for practicum, its value in that regard is problematic.

As might be expected, given the above comments, all five case responses relied
heavily on professional knowledge. Finding relevant policy documents and literature relating to theory and research seemed to present the student teachers with few problems. It is, perhaps, a strength of this type of case analysis exercise that the student teachers were afforded the time and the detachment to be able to consider the situations described in the light of professional knowledge. This is something that practising teachers often fail to do, probably because of time constraints and emotional attachment to the situation.

Apart from the emphasis on professional knowledge, however, it must be stressed that there is also evidence of the other two parts of the triad of knowledge, interpersonal knowledge and intrapersonal knowledge. The written responses also indicated an integration of the three forms of knowledge. Integration of the triad of knowledge was seen by Collinson as an important part of becoming an exemplary teacher provided that the forms of knowledge are integrated "...in ways that allow them to structure the physical, social and intellectual environment of their classrooms" (Collinson 1996, P. 10). This proviso is a very important one. Whilst it seemed that the three forms of knowledge integrated fairly naturally, that integration was not always of the useful kind as envisaged by Collinson.

The student teachers were able to choose from a wide range of case stories and the choices they made seemed to reflect their personal interests. This seemed to evoke varying levels of personal involvement in the case analysis and that involvement ranged from the rather detached and clinical approach of Kevin, who seemed to be more comfortable dealing with general issues, to the highly emotive responses of
Bronwyn and Rebekah.

With the possible exception of Sandra, who wrote a much more detailed response than the others, there was some tendency to overlook some issues that could have benefited from consideration. Such omissions did not seem to be serious except, perhaps, in the case of Bronwyn who tended to spend most of her time discussing, quite thoroughly, issues which one might argue were not entirely central to the case.

All the respondents showed a tendency to empathise strongly with students (and, in Bronwyn’s case, an inexperienced teacher) and to be highly critical of school staff and administration. One explanation for this would be that the student teachers’ only experience of schools, so far, had been as students. As Fuller and Brown (1975) observed:

> Fresh from the pupil role, education students who have never taught are concerned about pupils, that is, about themselves. They identify realistically with pupils, but with teachers only in fantasy. They have not experienced the realities of the teaching role. Education courses that deal with the teacher’s realities seem to them “irrelevant” (Fuller and Brown 1975, p. 38).

This casts further doubt on the ability of case analysis to enable completely inexperienced novices to place themselves in the position of the teacher in a case story. On a more positive note, however, it could be argued that this tendency to be the student’s advocate was not necessarily a bad thing. The innocence of the student teachers, about the problems and stresses faced by the teachers, may have
allowed them to be more objective in reviewing the causes of the dilemmas presented in the case stories.

There may, of course, be other reasons for a respondent to be so critical of the case author or the authority figures in a story. For example, some of the cases were lacking in vital information about what positive steps had been taken to deal with the problem in the past, leaving the reader of the story to decide, with some justification, that the school had reacted inadequately to the situation.

Perhaps the most promising characteristic of the case analysis exercise was the opportunity it provided for student teachers to develop skills in problem analysis and resolution. Once again, the ways in which the respondents approached these tasks and the nature of the outcomes seemed to be influenced by personal factors. Consideration will now be given to the ways in which the case responses appeared to reflect such factors as the personal experience, context and the thought processes of the participants.

An experience which all participants had in common was prior exposure to academic study, since they were all post-graduate students. This experience had taught them to carefully organise an essay and to consult relevant sources in order to substantiate their arguments. Obviously, some were more adept at this than others. Apart from this, the five student teachers were coming from different experiential backgrounds. Some examples of this that might be mentioned include: Bronwyn’s art background; Malcolm’s experiences as a teacher in Japan and his
interest in oriental culture; and Sandra's experiences as a mother of small children and her parental involvement in their education.

The context in which this written assignment took place was, basically, the same for all of the participants in the study. They were about half way through the first year of the M. Teach program. This had consisted of an introductory phase, entitled "Orientation to Teaching and Learning" and a second phase using case-based methods of enquiry. The first phase consisted of lectures and seminar discussions as well as regular visits to schools and other organisations. The second phase lasted for twelve weeks. During that time the student teachers worked in small groups to examine and analyse a number of case stories, written by practising teachers. The case analysis exercise was a course assignment which was being used for assessment purposes.

To some extent, however, the context was unique for each student. Each was free to choose one out of the fifteen cases set for study and their choice was, in itself, a reflection of the context within which they found themselves. This might be illustrated by looking at the work of three of the respondents. In Bronwyn's case, for example, it is illuminating to find that she had recently completed an assignment on Aboriginal culture in another section of the course. This may have prompted her to select "Norma" as a case for study. She had obviously developed a strong interest in the problems faced by Aboriginal people trying to live between two cultures. Moreover, it is not beyond the realms of possibility that she saw an opportunity to lighten her work load by reusing some of the material that she had
already researched.

It is possible that the choice of topics by Malcolm and Kevin were also a reflection of their own personal contexts. Reference has already been made to the possible link between Malcolm's teaching interests and his choice of a case for analysis. Kevin elected to analyse a case dealing with general issues. He may have done so because he did not feel ready to confront more specific problems involving students. It is not suggested that there would have been anything wrong if that were the case. In fact, it could be argued that the availability of different types of cases, to cater for individual needs, is desirable. Of course, another possibility is that he chose the case in question because the issues raised suited his own strong academic background.

In terms of thought processes, all the respondents demonstrated a capacity for logical analysis of situations although some were naturally more adept at this than others. Furthermore, since some of the cases were lacking in detail, respondents were, at times required to speculate about the background surrounding the case and make judgements based on reasonable assumptions about the situation. This they managed to do in a satisfactory manner.

One noticeable aspect of the approach to the cases was the extent to which the respondents' thinking was affected by their personal values and emotions. Bronwyn, as has already been noted, appeared to become quite emotionally involved in the issues that she saw as important to her case. Rebekah, also, used
her discussion of the case to raise issues about the wider issues of social justice that were obviously important to her. In doing so, she gave the impression of being somewhat idealistic in her expectations of life in general and schools in particular.

Given that the student teachers had no practical background on which to base their arguments, it is not easy to determine the extent to which they were developing their own PPK from critically examining the work of others. It is also difficult to determine whether the exercise caused them to move forward in their understandings or whether they used it to confirm their existing beliefs. This is especially a concern with the highly emotive responses of Bronwyn and Rebekah.

The case analysis exercise did, however, seem to confer certain benefits on the participants. It provided them with practice in the analysis of problems and the seeking out of relevant literature and encouraged the development of the skills of practical reasoning. The participants also demonstrated a growing awareness of the importance of interpersonal relationships in the teaching/learning process, the ability to explore multiple perspectives on each issue or event in the case and a capacity to see classroom activities within the wider context of social and political constraints. This is likely to prove beneficial to them in their future careers and may be seen as a useful foundation on which to build their PPK. It will be interesting, therefore, to consider the extent to which they built on this foundation in writing their own case stories which will now be discussed.
B. CASE WRITING EXERCISE

After their first practicum, the student teachers were required to write a case story based upon the practicum experience. Of the six participants in this study, five completed the case writing exercise. As has already been mentioned, Rebekah suspended her enrolment in the course before completion of the practicum and, therefore, did not write a case story. However, she did participate in an interview some months later where she looked back and reflected on the experience (IIa/R). From what she had to say, it would appear that she found herself in a school where some of the staff exhibited attitudes not unlike those of the teachers in "The Great I Am", the story she had used in the case analysis exercise.

The original case stories written by the participants will now be discussed using a similar framework to that used for the case analysis exercise (see Chapter Three). The individual stories will first be described. They will then be analysed in terms of the Triad of Knowledge (Collinson 1996). In a summarising section, after considering the influence of personal experience, context and thought processes on the stories, some comments will be made about the evidence of growing PPK.

STORY OUTLINES

The guidelines were fairly flexible (see Chapter Three) and the five different stories which resulted are outlined below.
For her first practicum, Bronwyn went to a private school for girls. From the first interview with Bronwyn, discussed earlier, it was apparent that she expected this to be a relatively easy assignment, given the school’s reputation for strong discipline and academic excellence. Instead, she was to encounter much the same problems of classroom management as many novice teachers experiencing the reality of classroom teaching for the first time. As a result, she was able to write an interesting case story which gives insight into those problems and the way in which she reacted to them.

The case story is based on Bronwyn’s experiences with one of the classes that she taught during practicum. It was a Year 7 class of 21 girls and she taught them for two periods per week for five weeks. The title that Bronwyn chose for her story was “Metamorphosis”. The title derives from the fact that, over the five-week period, she covered a section of the Art syllabus dealing with the artistic depiction of metamorphosis. It is also intended to be a metaphor for her own transformation from student to teacher and from an artist to an art teacher.

The main focus of the story is on Bronwyn’s encounter with one student, Caroline, who was “...naturally distinguished from her peers because of her height, beauty and verbal ability” (CW/B, 52) but who was not interested in learning about art because she did not see it as relevant to her ambition to be a lawyer. During the five weeks her behaviour deteriorated and, after the last lesson, Bronwyn, at the
insistence of the class teacher, gave Caroline lunchtime detention for her unruly behaviour. Besides dealing with this one particular student, however, the case also gives glimpses of Bronwyn's own problems with classroom management as well as her interactions with the cooperating teacher and her university supervisor.

Kevin

For his first practicum, Kevin went to an inner city primary school (referred to here as "Waterview Public School"). The case story, written after the practicum is entitled "Case Study on the Practicum at Waterview Public School". As with the case analysis exercise, however, Kevin supplied a sub-title, which was: "How to look for problems when you're having fun and everyone treats you well" (CW/K, 2-3). This sub-title betrays a somewhat narrow view of the type of subject matter that is suitable for a case story. According to a comment in the body of the case, "Most case studies seem to be premised on the presence of conflict or a dissonance between the goal and outcome. The sort of problems dealt with in the case studies often used an individual as the locus of study" (CW/K, 28-30). Whilst it may be true that many of the cases studied at the university were based on dilemmas involving individuals, it is quite legitimate for a case to address less personal issues and the case story written by Kevin is a good example of this. After explaining that he did not feel able to write what he saw as a typical case he went on to present a most interesting case story, dealing with a problem that is relevant to all teachers, novice and experienced alike.
As with his previous case exercise, Kevin chose to concentrate on general issues devoid of personal confrontation although, on this occasion, he was able to illustrate his comments with personal experiences. The case dealt with the problem of time allocation in the planning of lessons. It worried Kevin that he had felt the need to stop students from working on tasks in which they were obviously absorbed in order to start a new lesson or activity.

Of particular concern to him was the number of times that lessons were interrupted by things beyond his control. As he remarked: “*Seemingly attempting to keep in control of the class and ensure that the learning was as efficient as possible, I would call an end to a lesson. This was to start a new lesson, to send the students off to recess or lunch or to cater for an assembly, Education Week performance or some other event. Of all the reasons for ending a lesson, it was only the first that I had any sort of control over*” (CW/K, 55-59). In his presentation of the case, Kevin stated the issues clearly, gave appropriate examples and discussed possible solutions that were within the scope of his experience.

**Malcolm**

Malcolm, whose first practicum was at a selective high school in a Sydney suburb, wrote a case story entitled “My Mother Made me Take Japanese” (CW/M). The story relates to his experiences teaching “...*a Year 9 Japanese class in a co-educational, selective government high school. The class consisted of 28 students and was considered large for a language class in the school. The school had five*
languages of which Japanese was the most prominent and thus the main priority in the LOTE department (CW/M, 15-18). The central character in the story was a girl named Billy.

It is apparent that Malcolm had difficulty with classroom management and, in particular, with a group of unmotivated students (including Billy) that he referred to as “the sofa set” (CW/M, 36-38). The climax of the story came when Malcolm overheard a comment by Billy at the start of a lesson in the fifth week of the practicum. Malcolm described the incident as follows: “On this particular day, again in that changeover period between classes, Billy was pulling out her books and things from her bag while talking to others of her usual group on their usual table in front of the teacher’s desk. (sic) The group that I called the sofa set because of the soft sink-in chairs that were theirs to use in that part of the room. She made the comment to someone or to no one in particular but well within my earshot that she never wanted to do Japanese, that her mother made her take it on as a subject” (CW/M, 34-40). The written case story consists mostly of Malcolm’s personal reflections on his reaction to Billy’s comment and on his feelings of inadequacy in coping with the situation.

Sandra

For her first practicum Sandra went to a coeducational technology high school where she was attached to the science department. Her awakening interest in students with special needs, evident in the case analysis (discussed above) was
again evident in the content of her original case story. During her practicum, she quickly began to realise that classes are full of unique individuals, each with their own personalities and needs. Consequently, she used her case story to explore the ways in which a teacher might cater for these individual needs.

Sandra wrote her case story in the form of a reflection on her work with a Year 7 class, as exemplified by four students whom she used “...to illustrate the complex interactions that can affect a classroom situation and influence a lesson” (CW/S, 30-31). The title chosen for her story was: “Chris, Emma, John and Paul: Ordinary Students with Extraordinary Needs”.

In the first part of the story, after describing the school and class, Sandra gave a brief profile of each student and summarised the achievements of each of them in the unit of study that she taught. The four students differed in personality, ability and needs. By the end of her six weeks with these students, Sandra assessed their progress in the following way: “Chris, although bright and enthusiastic, scored poorly on the class test, still I believe he enjoyed his Science classes immensely. Emma didn’t get a book or homework mark for the Unit I taught, compounding her sense of despair. John drifted on, failing to complete homework or participate in lessons. Paul disrupted the class and finished with no notes (and probably no idea) on the topics covered” (CW/S, 70-74).

The remainder of the case story consisted of a reflective discussion in response to the question that she asked of herself: “What could have been done to change these
outcomes?" (CW/S, 76). Throughout the story, the reader is given an opportunity to observe the way in which Sandra was using her existing knowledge to construct meaning in a situation that was new to her.

Trevor

Trevor was preparing to be a teacher in secondary schools in the areas of History and the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). Enthusiastic and confident in his own ability, he immersed himself in university life. He often missed, or arrived late for seminars and had failed to submit his case analysis exercise for which he was given an extension of time. Following the first practicum, he completed a case story, which is discussed below. He never did submit a case analysis. By the time of the second practicum this and other assignments, for other courses in the M. Teach program, were still outstanding. The result was that he was forced to withdraw from the course. His case story will now be considered.

Trevor prided himself on his command of the English language and on his writing ability. As a result, his story was written less in the mode of a university essay and was more creative in style than those written by the other participants. Various literary devices, such as figures of speech as well as the quotation of poetry and song lyrics, were used to keep the reader’s attention and to convey his feelings about the practicum experience. Whilst his descriptions were, at times, a little abstruse, they did convey something of the atmosphere of his classroom. The
practicum had taken place at an inner city coeducational secondary school, which he referred to as Metroville High School (MHS) with about 550 students, 95% of whom were from language backgrounds other than English. Trevor had classes for History and TESOL. In the case story, he chose to focus on his work with a Year 10 History Class.

The case story was given the title: “Ghost: The Spirit of Metroville”. This alluded to an incident that occurred on the day of Trevor’s first lesson with the class and he began his story in the following way: “The day before one of them had been hurt, and died that morning. It was a clash, a thick crunching tackle which killed both, within hours. He hadn't been among them in that room since the year before, but suddenly his ghost was; in my first lesson, we breathed death behind bricks in the sunburn” (CW/T, 4-7). This, however, did not prove to be the subject of the case. Instead it was used, quite effectively, to provide a background against which the events of the story took place. Moreover, its significance was enhanced, coincidentally, by the fact that the unit of study, “The Vietnam Conflict”, which Trevor was to teach was, itself, concerned with the loss of young lives.

After the introduction and a situational analysis, describing the school and its community, the case story may be broadly divided into three sections. The first contained profiles of eight of the students to demonstrate the range of abilities, personalities and cultures within the class. The second was a description of the unit of work which Trevor had planned and the third concerned the teaching strategies used. The case did not focus on any particular event or events but took
the form of a reflection on the practicum experience. As with the other cases that have been reviewed, it is possible to see, in the content of Trevor’s case story, evidence of the Triad of Knowledge (Collinson 1996).

THE CONTENT OF THE CASE STORIES

The five cases will now be discussed within the categories of professional, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge.

Professional Knowledge

Given the personal and practical nature of the case stories, it is probably not surprising that, with one exception, the student teachers made no direct references to theory or research. Indeed, the guidelines for this particular assignment did not require such references. However, it is still possible to identify, in the various stories, evidence of some aspects of professional knowledge. These included: curriculum knowledge; pedagogical knowledge; student knowledge; knowledge of the school and the system within which it operates; and knowledge about the availability of professional support. As might be expected, the extent to which each of these types of professional knowledge were observable in the case stories varied from one to another.

Important to Bronwyn’s story was her knowledge of the Art Syllabus. As she explained: "I was to introduce the girls to the idea of metamorphosis using
Kevin, in his case story about time management, also made reference to curriculum. The example that he provided of a lesson which he felt would have benefited from more time was one in which: “The entire class was working on constructing montages in the style of Jeannie Baker” (CW/K, 65-66). Thus, what was obviously an Art lesson was probably being linked with English Literature and we might assume that Kevin had consulted curriculum documents in both these subject areas.

Neither Malcolm nor Sandra gave any indication of the specific subject matter that they taught. We know that they were teaching Japanese and Science respectively and both seem to have been given responsibility for a particular unit of study during the practicum. However, the case stories provide no detail of this, with the emphasis being placed on such issues as student behaviour and motivation.

By contrast, Trevor went into some detail about the curriculum content of his lessons. His interest in the topic to be studied is obvious and it is apparent that he had spent considerable time in planning. As he explained: “The unit of work I prepared was entitled The Vietnam Conflict and the 1960s. It was important to me that we were NOT studying the Vietnam War, since at a fundamental level this terminology characterised the topic in a particular way, laden with connotation
and inferences which I preferred not to accept as implicit assumptions. I wanted to look at the issue from a variety of perspectives, contemporary perspectives, and to this end I prepared a sourcebook of related material which we might use to explore the experiences and attitudes of different individual and groups affected by the context of Vietnam in the 1960s” (CW/T, 159-166).

Stating that: “Balancing in the nexus of curriculum and reality was my necessary adventure, an enterprise of dilemma which is familiar in most staffrooms” (CW/T, 310-311). Trevor questioned the relevance of the curriculum for his students but justified the unit of study that he had prepared by asserting: “They were not only studying a record of past events but were absorbing group and individual learning techniques and strategies which could be applied in future circumstance. Finally they were developing through practice a range of cognitive skills the value of which was the progressive maturation of mind” (CW/T, 319-322).

Pedagogy was obviously important to all the cases although the available detail about methods used varied from one story to another. Bronwyn, in setting the scene for the incidents that took place, made several references to her teaching methods and, in particular, her use of literature and mythology, along with information about the work of famous artists, to illustrate her practical art lessons (CW/B, 11-21). As she explained: “...right from the beginning I found myself teaching this unit in terms of stories and metaphors” (CW/B, 32-33). ) As an introduction to the final lesson in the unit she “...played them a video of chameleons fighting and extracts of David Cronenberg's 'The Naked Lunch' which
features a Kafkaesque special effect of a typewriter turning into a cockroach” (CW/B, 71-73).

She also made use of literature as a strategy for classroom management. She commented that: “Children are very sophisticated these days and have a low tolerance for boredom. I found that if I read them a paragraph of Kafka (Metamorphosis) in between correcting and helping them with their drawings, I could keep them concentrating on their drawings of similar forms” (CW/B, 40-43).

Kevin, in discussing ways of making better use of time in the classroom, remarked: “Another possible way of approaching this problem is through the integration of subjects. A number of schools approach subject management in this way, and it is even encouraged in syllabi, such as that for Science and Technology. By integrating a variety of subjects, a range of topics can be taught and studied in a much smoother and organic fashion. This is not simply to create an effect of tidiness, but it also adds to a subject’s perceived relevance. For instance, to teach report writing, it would be better to use a science lesson, as this is where reports are commonly used” (CW/K, 121-127).

Because Malcolm made no mention of the teaching methods that he used, it is difficult to determine whether he was expanding his knowledge in this area. Although the key issue in the story appears to be the motivation of unwilling students, that issue is obviously related to Malcolm’s difficulties with classroom management and discipline. Therefore, it is interesting to note that he did not seem
to draw upon the research material that he had cited in his case analysis exercise and it might be argued, from this, that there will not necessarily be a transfer of knowledge from case-based learning at the university to classroom practice.

Unlike Malcolm, Sandra, in attempting to explain her apparent failure to help some of her students to reach their potential, saw the need to use a variety of teaching strategies "...so that different learning styles can be incorporated" (CW/S, 125-126). In particular, she referred to the value of problem solving, saying: "The notion of teaching (especially Science) by problem solving and case study is appealing for students who need challenge or for those with specific learning styles, however I think they are of great value to all students because of the skills that are implicit in the tasks themselves" (CW/S, 146-149). It is worth noting that the use of problem-based learning in science was the subject of the only reference cited in the case writing exercise. That reference was to a journal article written by Sandra's lecturer in science method. Thus, in Sandra's case, a link can be seen between the university studies and the construction of practical knowledge in the context of the classroom.

Trevor's case story gave considerable detail of the teaching strategies used. His preparation of a source book has already been mentioned. Also, acknowledging the range of individual differences in his class, he recognised the need to provide a variety of resources and teaching strategies to cater for different learning styles. There is evidence that Trevor did use a variety of approaches although his reflection did not include an appraisal of their success and it would appear that his
attempt to meet the needs of all students was only moderately successful. For example, referring to one non-English speaking student he observed: "In the instance of Quoc, with whom I worked in the much smaller ESL class, I found myself leaving him essentially to his own devices in the class. He was not disruptive, but was unable to comprehend discussion or fully understand and pursue tasks" (CW/T, 302-305). He also cited the example of Mira, who wanted to be a hairdresser and failed to see the relevance of either the content being taught or the skills being developed by Trevor’s teaching strategies. (CW/T, 324-326).

Thus, while Trevor’s professional knowledge gave him a reasonable understanding of individual differences and the importance of catering for them, his teaching strategies did not succeed with all students. Although Trevor was aware of this, he seemed to be satisfied with the quality of the strategies that he used and the reader is left with the impression that he was either unable or unwilling to search for ways of addressing this deficiency.

The extent to which the respondents' knowledge of their students impacted on their case stories also seemed to vary considerably. In a case story such as that written by Kevin, dealing with a rather general issue, lack of detail on individual students is, perhaps, to be expected although he did make some passing references to particular students who responded well to a creative activity. Sandra and Trevor, on the other hand, demonstrated an ability to observe their students and construct student knowledge. In both case stories, a small group of students was selected and the students were described in detail. That information was then drawn upon in
their reflections about their own teaching.

Bronwyn and Malcolm, whose stories were mainly concerned with motivation and discipline of individual students, did not seem to have gone to great lengths to expand their knowledge of those students. Malcolm did seem to recognise a deficiency in this aspect of his knowledge when he stated: I did not know how Billy was doing in other subjects, how her general behaviour was in other classes, what her relationship was like with her parents and family, what problems she had, etc., etc. So that is why Billy's comment towards the end of my time in the school was so powerful. It gave me a little more information as to why she was the way she was in my class (CW/M, 103-108). Even taking the student's comment into account, it would still be worthwhile to compare her performance in Japanese with that in other subjects. This is especially true when we consider that Billy was attending a selective high school reserved for students with above average ability.

Some of the student teachers showed an understanding of the school and systemic context within which they were working. Kevin, Sandra and Trevor provided some forms of situational analysis which described their respective schools and their communities. Such information was less obvious in the other two case stories. However, Malcolm did make reference to the school's assessment policy.

Malcolm also showed some understanding of the wider context which related to the school system. In attempting to understand the fact that one-third of his class seemed to lack interest in the subject, he made the following comments: "In some
ways too, the system has to bear some of the responsibility for the state of affairs in the schools under their management. Or is this a prac teacher passing the buck onto some higher, invisible, untouchable authority? The fact that Japanese has reached the point in the NSW school system where it is the most popular language other than English is truly a remarkable phenomenon and something highly commendable. However, there is bound to be a discrepancy between quality and quantity in such a situation. Perhaps this is something that has always been the case with compulsory subjects like English and Mathematics and is now only starting to be felt in the LOTE area due to the greater emphasis being placed on language competency in Australian schools by successive governments of either persuasion” (CW/M, 114-123).

Kevin showed some knowledge of other systems of education. For example, having described the problems he encountered in the area of time management, he indicated knowledge of the ways in which these problems are approached in other school systems, saying: “Alternative systems such as the Montessori and Steiner schools have attempted to confront this difficulty inherent in classroom teaching” (CW/K, 106-108).

It might be suggested that another aspect of professional knowledge that student teachers may acquire during practicum is the knowledge of professional support that is available, either through the services of specialist support staff or through interaction with their mentors and university supervisors.
Sandra, in considering ways of meeting the special needs of students, pointed out that: "Whilst the school Counsellor is able to devise and implement a management plan for students in need, it is often the job of teachers to determine where the need lies" (CW/S, 96-98). It might be reasonable to suggest that this particular insight into the relationship between the class teacher and the school counsellor is an outcome of her research into counsellor referral procedures for the case analysis exercise immediately before practicum.

The input of mentors and university supervisors did not seem to play a significant part in the any of the case stories. Sandra, as will be mentioned later, did express regrets that she did not have more discussions with her cooperating teacher about individual students. Bronwyn did refer to the feedback she received from the supervisor and class teacher but she reported this in a somewhat negative fashion. The way in which the professional advice was offered would obviously be influenced by the personalities and past experiences of the people concerned and the acceptance of that advice would be facilitated or hampered by Bronwyn’s personal characteristics and her relationship with the other parties. Because of this situation, specific examples of these encounters will be mentioned in the following sections on interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge.

From what has been said about the various aspects of professional knowledge, it can be seen that the way in which such knowledge was constructed appears to have been influenced by personal factors, with Bronwyn's case story providing the clearest example. In all of the stories, the issues discussed were heavily laden with
interpersonal and intrapersonal issues which will now be discussed.

**Interpersonal Knowledge**

The construction of effective interpersonal knowledge will obviously be of crucial importance to any teacher. All the case stories showed evidence of development in this area. The types of interpersonal relationships that appeared to be significant in this regard were the student teachers' interactions with the class group, with individual students, with the class teacher and with the university supervisor. Also apparent, in some cases was a growing awareness of the influence of events that took place and decisions that were made outside the classroom.

All the student teachers included, in their case stories, some information about the ways in which they interacted with the class to which they were assigned. Bronwyn experienced problems that are not uncommon among beginning teachers. She admitted to having discipline problems with the class (CW/B, 35-36). This was not because of lack of preparation or lack of enthusiasm on her part. She lamented that "...no matter how interesting I thought the unit was, I just couldn't make the girls feel it too (CW/B, 37-38). The difficulties of management appear to have been exacerbated as the practicum progressed and there were incidents such as the following: "In the mean time rubbers were flying and I had to separate girls who in the limited space were starting to scribble on each other's drawings" (CW/B, 86-88). On another occasion, she reported: "All the while I was with my
back to the class, so I didn’t notice the beetle go sailing across the room” (CW/B, 120-121).

There is evidence that Bronwyn reflected on the situation and attempted to do something about it. This will be further discussed in relation to her intrapersonal knowledge. One result of this reflection was a prepared speech which she delivered to the class the day after a particularly upsetting incident. She described the scene as follows: “I waited for the stragglers to arrive and then launched into a whole spiel about how I’d been teaching metamorphosis and that I myself was undergoing a metamorphosis from student to teacher. I drew up little icons of a caterpillar and a chrysalis hanging on a leaf and a butterfly on the right, with a big arrow showing my supposed development. (At that point I seemed to be identifying mostly with the pupae with its insides liquefying, but hiding this process away inside its shell). A lot of the girls sat at their desks open mouthed and with their eyes popping out, but they were by and large not the ones who had been misbehaving. Caroline and co. arrived with the stragglers and thus missed most of it anyway” (CW/B, 101-110).

Kevin’s description of his classroom interactions was less graphic. He did not appear to have problems of class management. However, he used his case story to reflect upon the effect of his own decisions on the students. It worried him that when he kept strictly to his timetable of lessons, he deprived the students, especially the slower ones, of time to complete learning tasks. To illustrate this concern, Kevin described a lesson in which the students were creating montages.
He commented that: "While all of the students were achieving different levels of success, a number of the students were extremely enthusiastic about the task. A number of students who were often disinterested and sometimes disruptive in other tasks were quiet and very productive in this lesson" (CW/K, 66-69). In particular, he found that one boy, "who sometimes found conversation of greater interest than class work" (CW/K, 69-70), became very interested in the task, to the extent that he voluntarily moved away from his talkative friend to sit near two of the quieter, more industrious students (CW/K, 72-73).

There is one aspect of Malcolm’s interpersonal knowledge that becomes clear from his written account. This is his lack of experience in communicating with unmotivated students. As he observed: "Although I have taught in a variety of environments over recent years, including teaching English in Japan, nothing prepared me for the Year 9 classroom. I have always been around students who wanted to learn and/or were paying to learn" (CW/M, 27-30).

Also indicative of his approach to his students was his statement that: "This particular class I could divide into three categories: 'The tryers', 'the middlers', (sic) those with potential, only if they would pull their fingers out and finally 'the throwaways' (sic). Unfortunately, Billy, along with possibly a full third of the class of 28 students, could be slotted into this latter category. At Year 9 this was to be expected to a large extent" (CW/M, 124-128). His choice of terminology seems to suggest that he was at a complete loss as to how he might approach and communicate with those students who did not immediately share his
enthusiasm for his subject.

Sandra had concerns similar to those expressed by Kevin, in that she was conscious of the extent to which her own decisions and actions impacted on her students. Thus, she commented: "As a result of actions (both conscious and sub-conscious) on my part, each of these students experienced consequences to their own unique personality. I was not able to immediately recognise each issue and was certainly not experienced enough to adequately deal with them" (CW/S, 67-70). The actions to which she was referring were not confined to those which took place in the classroom but included communication with other staff.

As suggested by the title of his case, Trevor's first experience of the interpersonal relationships in the classroom was affected by the sudden death of a former student. The class then, coincidentally, went on to study events which involved death in a previous generation. As Trevor explained: "The spirit of this boy was there, palpably there in the classroom on that first day, and he stayed with us through the following weeks. We were studying conflict which took place before any of us were born. We were studying warfare and killing and death. That sense infused my practice, it seeped through our moments of laughter and learning, it was a consciousness which we all explored" (CW/T, 239-243).

The case stories written by Bronwyn and Malcolm were both concerned with individual students. In some respects the cases were similar in that they both involved unmotivated high school students who saw no value in the subject that
was being taught. Another similarity was the effect that this rejection of the subjects seems to have had on the two student teachers. Both Bronwyn and Malcolm were committed to their areas of expertise and had had prior experience of tutoring groups of students who were highly motivated and shared their own passion for the subjects.

Bronwyn's case was about a girl named Caroline who, early in the practicum, referred to Bronwyn as "The best Art Teacher (sic) we have ever had" (CW/B, 53-54) but whom Bronwyn found to be a disruptive student. Two incidents, involving Caroline, were described. The first took place during a lesson when the students were doing pen and ink drawings (CW/B, 55-67). Caroline was having difficulty and spilling ink on the desk that was being used by other students as well as herself. Bronwyn insisted that she clean up the desk and, in Bronwyn’s words: "She complained about this, but complied with a red face. She had a spoilt look, as if she was out to avenge some slight or other...I knew then that I would have trouble with her as I had suspected from the start. She was a 'ringleader' and, paradoxically, craved attention even though she naturally got it" (CW/B, 62-67).

The second incident occurred during the final lesson of the practicum when Caroline threw a plastic beetle across the room while Bronwyn wasn’t watching. The class teacher, who saw the incident, insisted that Bronwyn take disciplinary action, later pointing out that it was a "health and safety issue" (CW/B, 140). Bronwyn told Caroline to come back to the classroom at lunchtime with the result that: "...she tried to squirm out of it by blaming the other girl and asking if she
could come at recess instead, but I told her I was too hungry for that’’ (CW/B, 124-126).

Caroline’s reaction to the punishment was to complain that she didn’t want to do Art because she had already made up her mind to be a lawyer and couldn’t see the relevance of Art to that occupation (CW/B, 130-132, 146-147). Bronwyn was unsure of how to handle this (CW/B, 134) and seemed a little put out at this criticism of her subject area. Her reaction was as follows: “She continued to harangue me about wanting to be a lawyer, so I told her it would suit her ‘argumentative nature’. I also said: ‘Isn’t it ironic that Kafka wanted to do something creative with his life, but his father made him work in a law firm. So he ruined his health by writing at night and being a lawyer by day?’ She said ‘Is that the story about the cockroach you read to us in class? -that was so weird!’ After she had cleaned up most of the tables I took pity on her and let her go early’’ (CW/B, 146-152).

By contrast, Malcolm was far less descriptive about his interactions with Billy, the subject of his case. In fact, his narrative was completely devoid of any two-way interactions with any of his students. Throughout the story Malcolm talked about the difficulties of motivating students but he did not give any examples of specific incidents. On the occasion of his first encounter with Billy, his own part of the conversation remains unclear. He simply described the incident in the following way: “She chatted to me about how the class was not such a bad group, etc., etc., all of which did not really mean that much to me. However, this was my first
contact with the Year 9 class and, more to the point, my first communication with Billy” (CW/M, 8-11). Likewise, when Billy remarked that she was only studying Japanese because of her mother's insistence, Malcolm seemed to be lost for words.

Malcolm was not unaware of his need to communicate more effectively and he commented: "One thing I feel I learned was the power of communication. I think I could have, or even should have, taken aside many of the students in class, and this certainly includes Billy, not so much to lecture them on blah and blah but to hear their side of the story” (CW/M, 97-100). If he had spoken with the students he may have found that there were different reasons why some of them were enrolled in a subject which didn’t interest them. In Billy’s case it was parental pressure. For others it may have been the constraints of the school timetable which permitted a very limited choice for a particular lesson period.

Sandra and Trevor each reviewed their relationships with a small group of students. Sandra, who acknowledged the centrality of communication in the teaching process, showed that she was learning the importance of allowing for the needs of individuals. For example, in reference to one student, she remarked: "Presenting information to Paul in an isolated, irrelevant way was never going to satisfy his needs" (CW/S, 129-131).

From Trevor’s discussion about various students, it is obvious that he, too, was becoming aware of individual needs although it is doubtful whether he saw it as his responsibility to make special allowances for these. There were some students
who caught his enthusiasm for the topic. For instance, Katie was enthusiastic about their studies, made suggestions, regarding content and activities, which Trevor implemented (CW/T, 104-112) and organised "a presentation to the class by herself and others, a presentation in the form of a short dramatic scene contextualising an issue of the conflict" (CW/T, 345-348). Beverley enjoyed researching the topic, bringing the results of her research to the class and, according to Trevor: "She spent most lunch times gushing with studious passion at me, whenever I was caught" (CW/T, 363-364).

Others, however, were not so easily motivated. Mira, who aspired to be a hairdresser has already been mentioned. When the class was given a test (with a Rolling Stones record playing in the background) Michelle, described by Trevor as a capable student, completed only two questions before writing on her paper: "I'm sick of these stupid tests and I hate this music. Sorry sir I'm not sorry sir just trying to be nice. The Rolling Stones sux" (CW/T, 357-358). Trevor's reaction is interesting. In reporting the incident he commented: "That type of assessment was of little value beyond amusement, but I loved her for it" (CW/T, 358-359).

He was equally dismissive of other students who did not seem to appreciate the efforts he had put into his lesson planning. Jamil was described as "...a student with whom I found myself in conflict. We seemed to antagonise each other naturally, and early in the prac I found myself making the class laugh at his expense, as a result of my frustration with his attitude and disruption" (CW/T, 83-85). Carlos was described as "the invisible student" (CW/T, 147) not because he was often
absent but because he did not participate in any discussions although he completed all his work without any apparent need to communicate with Trevor, who said of him: "His behaviour, on the polite side of surly, was an excellent expression of apparent disinterest" (CW/T, 152-153).

 Whereas some novice teachers would have been deeply hurt by such negative attitudes, on the part of their students, and others might have taken such criticism as a cue to revise their practices, Trevor seems to have been relatively unmoved by these experiences. It would be unfair to say that he was complacent but he did appear to exhibit a high degree of self-confidence, even self-satisfaction, that may be a reflection of his intrapersonal knowledge which will be considered later.

 Apart from their students, the people with whom the student teachers might be most likely to interact were their cooperating class teachers and their university supervisors. It is interesting to note that such interaction did not appear to be regarded as highly significant to the events outlined in the case stories. Malcolm and Trevor made no reference to input received from this source.

 Malcolm expressed considerable frustration about his inability to motivate his students but the reader of his story is left wondering to what extent he communicated his frustration with his cooperating teacher and university supervisor. It would seem that, during the practicum, his interpersonal knowledge did not include strategies for sharing his feelings and negotiating with those around him. Trevor, also, mentioned incidents which could easily have been the subject
of discussion with the class teacher but there is no evidence that such discussion took place.

Kevin made a passing reference to his class teacher and supervisor, though not within the context of the dilemma described in his story, when he commented: "My cooperating teacher and university supervisor were both very helpful and were invaluable in helping to make the practicum enjoyable and rewarding" (CW/K, 31-33). Apart from this, no detail was given but that may not be surprising given the nature of Kevin's case story.

Of the other two student teachers, only Bronwyn went into any detail about her interactions with the teacher and supervisor and these interactions were described in a rather negative fashion. She didn't seem to feel that she could seek out suggestions from these two people. In fact she seems to have regarded any comments that they did make as being judgmental rather than supportive. For example, Bronwyn was particularly nervous about visits from her university supervisor. At one point she commented: "It was a very windy day and my supervisor from Uni had come. I never knew when to expect her as she never announced her arrival and consequently I was nervous all the time" (CW/B, 78-80). She further remarked that she was: "...anticipating another harrowing two hour post-mortem on my terrible teaching methods and unprofessional personal habits" (CW/B, 83-84).

The cooperating teacher seems to have needed to intervene at times to help
Bronwyn maintain control of the class. For example, there was one occasion when she had to stop some girls having a charcoal fight (CW/B, 114-115) and it was the class teacher who witnessed the incident, unnoticed by Bronwyn, which brought about the major confrontation with Caroline (described in more detail below) on the last day of practicum.

It would seem that the teacher did spend considerable time advising Bronwyn and a couple of examples are worth mentioning. In a staffroom conversation following Bronwyn's speech to the class, the teacher cautioned her against such an approach warning that: "a teacher should never show that much vulnerability to a class, otherwise they just take advantage" (CW/B, 137-138). In reporting this, Bronwyn added: "I agreed not to give them the 'bleeding heart treatment' again" (CW/B, 138-139). From this interchange, it can be deduced that the mentor relationship was not very successful and that the teacher had been unable to develop a suitable rapport with Bronwyn.

Sandra had far less to say about communication with her class teacher and was far less critical. With hindsight, she felt that more communication with the teacher regarding individual students could have assisted her in her work. As she pointed out: "Specific information regarding medical conditions or home situations affecting class-work should be discussed. When I asked whether there was anything I should know about the students in the class, my co-operating teacher answered that they were all pretty exuberant and sweet. While this was true, I wish she had taken the cue to discuss individuals with me, at least so that I could have identified
my weaknesses and acknowledged my limitations” (CW/S, 102-107). She also recognised that she had a responsibility to be more assertive in seeking out information (CW/S, 139).

Another possible indicator of growing interpersonal knowledge can be seen in an awareness of influences from outside the classroom. For example, reference has already been made to Malcolm’s understanding of the way in which political decisions about the mandatory teaching of languages in schools might be linked to the attitudes of some students in his class.

Kevin, in exploring the problems associated with time constraints in the classroom, became aware of the way in which the decisions of others, outside the classroom, impacted on his work as a classroom teacher. He asserted that: “... the management of the classroom and lessons are subject to the decisions made by administration, government departments and parents” (CW/K, 135-137). He mentioned such interruptions as children being taken from lessons “for an assembly, Education Week performance or some other event” (CW/K, 58). As an illustration of parents influencing the work of teachers, he mentioned a petition presented to his practicum school by some of the parents, seeking the establishment of Gifted and Talented classes (CW/K, 137-138) and concluded that this was “not necessarily bad but uncoordinated with other events and priorities within in the school” (CW/K, 139-140).

Sandra suggested a more positive way in which people outside the immediate
classroom may influence the teacher's work. Having mentioned her difficulty in understanding and meeting the individual needs of students, she referred to the isolation that can be experienced by the classroom teacher and suggested the need for peer support and formal communication sessions during which staff members could share information (CW/S, 89-96).

As has been demonstrated, the various case stories were rich in data which provided evidence of the development of interpersonal knowledge. Moreover, the various incidents and comments relating to the student teachers' interpersonal relationships would seem to suggest differences in the quality and rate of growth in interpersonal knowledge from one person to another. This might be explained, in part, by the nature of the experiences related in the case stories. However, it could also be argued that the way in which each student teacher reacted to the demands of interaction with others was closely related to personal characteristics and reflected the development of intrapersonal knowledge.

Intrapersonal Knowledge

As might be expected, the student teachers revealed more of themselves in the writing of their original case stories than in their analyses of those written by other people. This they did by sharing their feelings, demonstrating their personal characteristics and by their use of reflection.

Bronwyn frankly discussed her feelings as she attempted to come to terms with the
demands of teaching in a classroom. Thus she described the beginning of her first lesson as follows: "All the while I am incredibly nervous as this is my very first lesson ever. I am dropping books and trying in vain to line up the edges of my pictures with the screen of the video projector. I am having difficulty in projecting my voice and also feel quite wooden and unnatural" (CW/B, 23-26)

An equally dramatic description was given of her feelings during a visit from the university supervisor, when she said: "This time I was sort of frozen because she had been very critical of my performance on two previous occasions. My insides were liquefying as I crossed the room shakily handing out paper (I had been constantly running to the toilet in the previous weeks)" (CW/B, 80-83).

Kevin, unlike Bronwyn, was not given to displays of strong feeling. From the way in which he wrote about the school and the people with whom he came into contact, it seems apparent that he enjoyed his time at the school. Consequently, he was sufficiently confident with most aspects of his own work to actively seek out an area which he felt might be improved. Thus, he was led to comment: "The 'disturbing' classroom interaction which I noticed taking place in the classrooms was when I began acting against my own interests by stopping the students from continuing to engage with the activity" (CW/K, 53-55). It might be suggested, from this, that Kevin must have felt comfortable in his surroundings and enjoyed a successful practicum. Otherwise, he might not have felt able to indulge in such self-criticism.
The content of Malcolm’s case story tends to give the impression of a very sensitive and introspective nature. He clearly expressed his feelings on entering the Year 9 classroom for the first time, saying: “Hanging around the floor of the classroom as the students wandered in, I felt rather lost wondering where I would sit to make myself as inconspicuous as possible” (CW/M, 4-6). Later, describing how he felt when his students failed to show an interest in his lessons, he said: “It was most frustrating to see my efforts fall on uncaring ears and see the materials I had spent so much time preparing strewn across the floor after a lesson” (CW/M, 74-75).

Sandra was another who was able to articulate her feelings as she began teaching for the first time. She did this at the beginning of her case story by saying: “One of the difficulties I faced as a pre-service teacher was imagining what teaching was really going to be like. The theory, conjecture and philosophy were addressed in our seminars, and we had some practice at lesson planning and classroom management during our method instruction. However, the stark reality of a room filled with 30 individuals is perhaps something you can never prepare for, given that those individuals are constantly changing, both in nature and in character” (CW/S, 4-9). Later, when acknowledging her problems in meeting the needs of individual students, she commented: “I was not able to immediately recognise each issue and was certainly not experienced enough to adequately deal with them” (CW/S, 68-70).

The words “I believe” were used more than once in Sandra’s story. For example,
she asserted that: "For my part, I believe every student in a class should be functioning at maximum potential and would see less than that as a reason for concern" (CW/S, 98-100). This would seem to be an echo of the sentiments expressed in her case analysis (CA/S). However, instead of using her strongly held belief about the rights of students to critically examine the work of others, she was now using it as a benchmark for her own performance.

Trevor expressed his feelings about his first practicum in the following words: "It was a time of great challenge and inspiration, rapid and exponential learning, and considerable reward and frustration. Reflection on the experience, in the delightful metacognitive tradition encouraged by my training, was a constant process (CW/T, 54-57).

Throughout the narrative, Trevor used a number of metaphors which gave some interesting clues as to the way he saw himself as a teacher. On one occasion he declared: "My task, to provide. Bring me the baskets of bread and fish" (CW/T, 224). When discussing the need to cater for a wide range of differences in the classroom, he remarked: "The needs of the many outweigh the needs of the few, said the Vulcan" (CW/T, 246-247). Towards the end of the story he announced: "It was a carnival, and I the juggling chorusmaster" (CW/T, 377). Whilst he would probably be loathe to call himself an authoritarian figure, he obviously took very seriously his leadership role in the classroom, as when he said: "I first sought to lead us into the discovery of relevance in war and protest and outdated fashions. I did this by making explicit connections, sometimes brutally" (CW/T, 315-317).
Thus, the case stories give the reader some idea of the feelings and attitudes of the various writers. However, in terms of intrapersonal knowledge, it is not what the stories reveal to the outside observer that is important. Since one element of intrapersonal knowledge is self-knowledge (Collinson 1996, p. 6), it is more important to consider the extent to which the student teachers themselves were aware of those personal characteristics that have been mentioned. From the quotations that have been included, it seems reasonable to suggest that they were at different stages in the development of self-knowledge.

Another important component of intrapersonal knowledge is reflection (Collinson 1996, p. 6). It was, of course, an implicit requirement of the case writing exercise that the student teachers reflect upon their practicum experience and all case stories contained examples of reflection.

Bronwyn used reflection in trying to make sense of what was happening. After a particularly difficult lesson, she reported: “That afternoon I went home on the bus feeling very disappointed and ready to give up. I couldn't understand why some lessons went well and others, particularly the ones where my supervisor came, not at all. The only pattern I could see was that they behaved better in the classes where I broke up the lesson by reading them something, telling a story or showing a video” (CW/B, 91-95).

Likewise, she was able to reflect upon the results of her practicum as described in her supervisor's report, saying: “I was very relieved to have come to the end of
prac. My reports show that I was overly concerned about my own performance and not pitching my lessons to the cognitive and empathic level of my pupils. However, this is not surprising considering the fact that I have spent the preceding decade honing my skills in introspection as a fine artist and have spent the majority of my time with my back to the world, on my own, making things” (CW/B, 154-159).

It can be seen that Bronwyn was not yet able to introduce a critical perspective into her reflection which was still operating at a descriptive level. This would accord with the findings of Hatton and Smith who concluded that this form of reflection is more easily developed by novices than the dialogic and critical forms (Hatton and Smith 1995, p. 46).

In discussing the difficulties of time management in the classroom, Kevin referred to aspects of the problem that were beyond his control but, at the same time, he was quite comfortable about accepting responsibility for those aspects where he, himself, might make a difference. This sense of balance in his discussion might be attributed to his frequent use of reflection in an effort to understand the incidents that were taking place. A good example of this can be seen in the following statement: “Inexperience with the class, with teaching, with the subject area all contributed to my mistake. Sometimes it was because I misjudged the time it would take to teach the topic, other times it was due more to the fact that I wasn’t sure how the class would respond. I am still ambivalent over whether or not I acted appropriately in ending and beginning lessons without having enough time to finish them” (CW/K, 100-104).
Reflection played a very important part in Malcolm’s search for an understanding of his frustrations in the classroom. For example, with reference to Billy’s declaration of her dislike for the subject area, he commented: “It was only later when I had time to think about it that I was able to reflect on what it meant to me. In reality, it created a window into her psyche that allowed me to view a smidgen more of the place she was coming from. Teaching junior high school students in general and teaching a bunch of people many of whom didn’t care one iota about the subject I was teaching was in one sense sad and scary and in another enlightening. Enlightening because it helped to lift the veil on some of my naïveté, idealism and not to mention ignorance about kids learning Japanese that I had carried into the school and this particular classroom with me” (CW/M, 45-52).

Sandra also used her case writing exercise as an opportunity for honest reflection and asked herself “So, what would, could or should I have done for Chris, Emma, John and Paul? I definitely would show more compassion and understanding for Emma’s plight. I would use more flexibility in my demands for homework and class books. I could have written homework tasks on a handout to make sure everyone, not only John, knew what was expected. I may have used more worksheets to involve Paul and John in class time. I would include extension tasks for students like Chris and use a more flexible method of assessment. I should have talked to my co-operating teacher about the level of class participation by all these students and experimented with different ways to improve it. I would have incorporated more variety in my teaching strategies and included innovative approaches, such as problem solving and case study” (CW/S, 133-142). Thus, for Sandra, the
writing of a case story not only provided her with a valuable de-briefing on the events of her first practicum but, no doubt, laid a strong foundation for her future work in schools.

Much of Trevor's reflection tended to be somewhat esoteric. However, it did permit him to make passing references to the need for some improvements in his practice. For example, he commented: "Mistakes, I made a few, and there are things I would have done differently. My memories might be improving with time" (CW/T, 374-375). Elsewhere he remarked: "It occurs to me in retrospect that there were other technologies I might have used but did not. We did nothing with computers, for instance" (CW/T, 294-296) and also stated that: "...there was more room for small group collaboration..." (CW/T, 384-385). He also admitted that: "Students with limited literacy and oracy were disadvantaged in the class, since the size of the class meant I was unable to attend to individual concerns. I should have found better responses to this problem, devised activities and learning experiences which would involve students without sophisticated academic requirements" (CW/T, 379-383). Such reflections as these do suggest that his developing PPK was beginning to come to terms with the complexities of life as a teacher.

Nevertheless, he concluded his case story on a buoyant note, with the following assertion: "I am confident that every member of that class learned something of value. I recognise the extent to which I grew with the experience, and value that learning of myself. It was a real time" (CW/T, 391-393). It seemed to be a feature
of Trevor’s reflection that he was able to constantly balance self-appraisal with a positive attitude and justification of what he had done. It is interesting to compare his story with that written by Sandra. Both were mainly exercises in reflection. However, the reader is led to believe that Sandra was learning more from the exercise than was Trevor.

Like their development of self-knowledge, the student teachers’ reflective skills, as evidenced by the above examples, seemed to be at different stages. From this it might be implied that the construction of professional practical knowledge (PPK), although it was obviously taking place, was proving to be an easier task for some than for others.

**SUMMARY OF CASE WRITING EXERCISE**

The case stories written by the five student teachers provide an opportunity to observe the ways in which they were attempting to make sense of new experiences. Some were obviously more skilled at doing this than others. Two of the stories were concerned with classroom management, two with reflections about the individual differences between students and one with organisational problems.

Even the choice of titles for the case stories seemed to be significant in providing an insight into the nature of the cases and the feelings of the authors and the implications of the various titles have already been discussed. It will have become apparent, from considering the ways in which the student teachers chose and
developed the themes of their stories, that the writers were all influenced by their personal experiences, by the context within which they found themselves and by their own thought processes as they interpreted the events which unfolded around them.

In general terms, the five student teachers had some experiences in common. All were post-graduate students. All were participating in the M. Teach program and had recently been exposed to case stories written by practising teachers. These similarities aside, they came from different backgrounds and, although we know little of their personal life experiences, some significant experiential elements are apparent. For example, knowing what we do of Bronwyn’s previous experience as an artist, working alone, it is possible to understand why she may have found the necessary interactions with the other people in her case story to be very challenging. It could also be argued that, for both Bronwyn and Malcolm, their previous experiences in tutoring motivated students seemed to be more of a hindrance than a help in preparing them to teach in a high school.

A major part of the context within which the student teachers were operating was the M. Teach program of which both the practicum and the case writing exercise were important components to be used in assessing student progress. The special nature of the practicum experience was well portrayed by Malcolm who said: “Although I feel that there are just so many things you can do as a prac teacher in someone else’s class, it brought out the strengths and weaknesses of my character along with exposing my inexperience” (CW/M, 92-94). It is probably
a measure of Malcolm’s sensitive and serious nature that this aspect seemed to be important to him and he commented: “Being a prac teacher is a fleeting experience. You are there for six short weeks, immersed in the lives of the students under your care and then you are gone, as quickly as you came” (CW/M, 100-102).

Although this practicum experience was shared by all the participants, the overall context for each student teacher was different. This was closely related to the differing past experiences, already mentioned, as well as their placement in different schools for the practicum. It is apparent that some were happier with their school placements than others.

Kevin, for example, was most appreciative of the support that he received in his school and this seemed to affect the type of case story that he wrote. In contrast, Bronwyn and Malcolm both experienced problems at their respective schools. These problems may have been exacerbated by their own unrealistic expectations about their practicum schools. Bronwyn, in a well-known private school for girls, and Malcolm, in a selective high school, may have been under the misapprehension that such schools would have no discipline problems and that the students would all be highly motivated.

Sandra, also, seemed to be happy with her practicum school and, as a result, felt sufficiently confident to critically examine her own practice. In her case, particularly, it could be said that the case analysis exercise, completed before
practicum, also formed a part of the context in which this story was written. The information that she had gathered on special needs and individual differences had made such an impact that she was more aware of these issues than she might otherwise have been.

A singular aspect of the context in which Trevor wrote his story was the significant event that had occurred just before his first lesson and, subsequently, gave the case story its title. This event together with the multiple needs of a relatively large class of students, with mixed abilities, gave Trevor much to think about and reflect upon.

The reader of the various case stories is privileged to be given glimpses of the thought processes of the case writers as they attempted to explain the situations in which they found themselves. It was probably this aspect of the case writing exercise that most clearly identified the participants as individuals, rather than simply as members of a group of novice teachers.

Bronwyn's strong attachment to her chosen subject area had a profound influence on her interpretation of events. For example, when talking of the unit that she was teaching to the class she commented: "...I found myself envying the girls for having such an interesting topic at so young an age where my own art education in year 7 had been so rudimentary" (CW/B, 33-35). When the girls failed to share here enthusiasm, however, she complained that she was "...casting pearls before swine" (CW/B, 37) and gave the impression that she felt that she was betraying the
integrity of her subject when she stated: "It has occurred to me that my metamorphosis metaphor was not really about going from student to learner, but from artist to 'idiot high school teacher' (as my own lecturer at Art school condescendingly, but also humorously, referred to the teaching profession) in which case I was transforming from a butterfly to some kind of grub" (CW/B, 161-164).

As with the case analysis exercise discussed earlier, Kevin's presentation of his case story shows evidence of well developed powers of observation, logical reasoning and well balanced arguments. It also demonstrates the way in which Kevin thought about his own position as a novice in the school setting. For example, having justified his decision to write about a general issue rather than a specific incident owing to "...the lack of any major difficulties" (CW/K, 27-28), he went on to say: "Another reason why I felt I could not use an individual as a focus of a case study was a lack of information. Despite having made some attempts to find out more about some of the students, I did not feel that I had the authority to probe too deeply. Nor did I believe myself to be in the position to write about their lives. (CW/K, 35-38). It might be said, then, that not only was the context important, in determining the nature of the case story, but so too was the way in which Kevin thought about that context and his own place within it.

Malcolm's thought processes are also very important to the case. In fact, the case story gives a dramatic view of the many thoughts that were going on in his mind. For example, he posed for himself many questions: "So what was I doing wrong?"
Where and how did Billy develop the misguided attitude about Japanese that she had? What were the students doing wrong? Where had the system gone wrong? How was I ending up so frustrated and angry to the point that I never wanted to see another classroom again? Was my career choice miscalculated? Misdirected through idealism and ignorance of the true state of affairs in schools? Was Billy ill-suited to Japanese language studies? Was there something I could do to change her way of thinking, help her? Was there somehow I could turn around this class? Or was this just a typical Year 9 class? After all, it was a selective school and the kids are supposed to be academically better. But the bottom line is that kids are kids are kids” (CW/M, 81-90). Although he did not suggest any possible answers to these questions within the written exercise, the questions are not likely to go away and the act of expressing them will, hopefully, prove beneficial as he grows in experience.

As with her case analysis, Sandra demonstrated the capacity to think clearly and logically. What is more important is that she was able to do so when examining her own practices. Some teachers would find this a threatening exercise whereas Sandra recognised the value of critical self-assessment. Her ability to write in such an open and honest manner about her work would seem to indicate a high level of security and satisfaction in her choice of a profession. What is more important is that she was able to reach some sound practical conclusions about strategies she would use in the future.

Trevor’s story creates the impression of a novice teacher who, despite an
enthusiastic and out-going nature, thinks very deeply about issues and can be quite introspective. In looking back over his first practicum, Trevor was moved to make the following comments: "Realities are violence and sunshine and sex and death. While we grappled with curriculum the spring crawled and few of us really wanted to be in a square room made chaotic with desks and chairs. Was it after lunch, a windy day, last period or the day after your friend had been killed? Realities, details, everything but the lesson crowded at the windows of the classroom, and at times it seemed curriculum was a bony dwarf straining against the assaults of other concerns, distant matters" (CW/T, 331-336). The thought processes, that give rise to such observations as these, no doubt have a place in helping to make sense of a complex situation. On the other hand, the search for practical solutions also demands some practical thinking at a slightly more objective level.

The five case stories that have been reviewed here demonstrate the ways in which different people thought about the issues confronting them during their first practicum and how they interpreted those issues in the light of various types of knowledge and personal experience. It remains to consider the extent to which these five people were expanding their professional practical knowledge (PPK) and to speculate as to whether this process had been significantly assisted by the use of case-based learning. To some extent, this might be done by comparing the original case story with the case analysis completed before practicum.

When considering the work of the four student teachers who completed both exercises, it is interesting to note that there were striking similarities between their
original case stories and the cases that they chose to analyse before the practicum. The participants themselves did not appear to be aware of these similarities and it might be suggested that, had their attention been drawn to this, it might have proved a useful teaching strategy. Whatever the reasons for the two exercises being alike in nature, it does seem to make it easier for the observer to reach some conclusions about the way in which PPK was developing.

A good example is provided by the work of Bronwyn. The story chosen for her case analysis, “Norma”, and her own case story, “Metamorphosis”, both concerned teenage girls who rebelled, albeit for different reasons, against being forced to do something against their will. Both cases also involved inexperienced teachers who had not developed strategies for dealing with such problems and who were not used to working in a school. In her case analysis and, again, her own case story, she tended to explain away some of the problems by blaming those in authority and at the end of her story she expressed the hope that, at her next practicum, she would have “...less critical and demanding supervisors” (CW/B, 167-168). Another aspect of the case story that would have escaped Bronwyn was the likeness between herself and Caroline, the subject of her own story. Both of them were strong willed, resentful of being told what to do and protective of their own areas of interest.

It would be easy to suggest that the events described in Bronwyn’s story did not reveal a significant change in her PPK. However, it would be unfair to infer that Bronwyn had learnt nothing from her practicum or from the act of recording her
experiences in story form. There is some evidence of her developing PPK in her ability to reflect on her own teaching and to make some insightful observations about the reasons for her problems of classroom management.

Kevin’s original case story, like the topic which he chose for the case analysis, was based on a rather general issue and this tended to limit the level of personal and emotional involvement. However, the nature of the exercise demanded that Kevin draw upon his own personal experience. As a result, he demonstrated that his powers of observation and reasoning, evident in the case analysis exercise, could be turned inwards to critically examine his own practice.

For his case analysis exercise, Malcolm chose a case, “Vladimir”, which concerned a non-English speaking boy who was having trouble learning English. His own case story, “My Mother Made me Take Japanese”, was about an Australian girl who did not wish to learn a second language. Both cases involved issues of discipline and motivation. When the two are compared it is tempting to say that little had changed with regard to Malcolm’s PPK. Both pieces of writing suffer from a tendency to recognise the problems without being able to formulate concrete plans of action.

However, the important change in PPK that is signalled by the original case story is Malcolm’s growing awareness of the realities of classroom life. As he explained: “My innocence and idealism about teaching in schools had burst like a soap bubble under the summer sun. I had learned a lesson to the point that next
time I would have a little more understanding about what to expect at the chalk face. Like anything, teaching is a learning process for the teacher too: how to teach effectively. I quickly came to the realisation that teaching in a junior high school was nothing like I had experienced before and that I still had a long way to go in perfecting an effective teaching style. Further more, I now know that not all students taking Japanese are doing so because they like the language. To believe so is a fallacy. As a result I know that I have a lot of work to do on classroom management and control as well as student discipline. There needs to be a balance between the subject I am to teach and the fact that I am involved with a group of young adolescents. Teaching is not as straightforward as I first thought” (CW/M, 134-145).

As traumatic as Malcolm’s practicum experience appears to have been, there seem to have been positive outcomes in terms of his growing PPK and it might be argued that the case writing exercise played an important part in helping him to verbalise his frustrations to the point where his teaching experience had become, for him, a learning experience.

For the case analysis exercise, Sandra responded to a case called “A Disruptive Student. There’s Nothing Wrong With Me”. The case had been written with an emphasis on the constant misbehaviour of a particular student but Sandra approached it as a case of special needs and sought to find the cause of his unwanted behavior. In her original case story, “Chris, Emma, John and Paul: Ordinary Students with Extraordinary Needs”, she further pursued the interest in
individual differences and special needs that had been stimulated by the case analysis exercise. In doing so, she showed that she possessed the maturity to critically examine her own practice in the same way that she approached the work of others.

Trevor had not submitted a case analysis exercise. Although much of his own story is concerned with providing a showcase for what he considered to be his successes in planning and presenting an original and stimulating unit of work, there is some evidence that, by the end of the practicum, Trevor was developing the facility to critically examine his own work as a teacher. He had reached a point where he could identify aspects of his practice that needed to be addressed. The next step would be to own the problems that became apparent and employ his obvious capacity for research to seek out the answers.

There is no doubt that all the case stories reveal some development in PPK although it would be fair to say that this development was occurring at different rates from one student teacher to another. For example, whilst all of the student teachers were able to identify problems that they experienced during their first practicum they varied in their ability to examine those problems objectively and to develop strategies for overcoming them. It is interesting to note that Kevin and Sandra, who seemed to be more successful than the others in learning from their practicum experiences, were the ones who appeared to have had the least recent experience in some form of teaching or tutoring.
Apart from the fact that the case exercises provide the observer with an indication of the student teachers’ development of PPK, it is also important to question whether or not the case exercises, themselves, were responsible for some of that development. That this appears to be the case has already been suggested while considering the data from the interviews and the case exercises. Another source of information on this topic was a survey completed by the respondents during the third interview and this will now be discussed.

"DESIRABLE ATTRIBUTES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS" SURVEY

As described in the previous chapter, the student teachers, at the time of the third interview were given a copy of "Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers" (MACTEQT, 1995) a copy of which can be found in Appendix C. This lists thirty-five attributes divided into five categories: the ethics of teaching; the content of teaching; the practice of teaching; interaction with families and the community; and professionalism and professional development.

The participants were asked to consider whether they believed that their development of any of these attributes may have been assisted by the use of case methods and to mark the list accordingly. They were further asked to make special note of any attributes for which they felt cases were especially important. Every attribute was selected by at least one of the six participants. It was then possible to give each attribute a ranking (1-6) according to the number of times it was selected. From Table 2, it can be seen that twelve of the thirty-five attributes were selected
by five or six respondents whilst more than half were chosen four or more times. These responses were spread over all five categories.

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Table 2

Frequency of responses to the thirty-five “Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers” (MACTEQT 1995)

Those attributes which received the greatest response will now be considered. Because of the size of the sample, most emphasis will be placed on those which received five or six responses and they will be discussed in the context of the five categories already mentioned. In some instances the student teachers talked about some of their responses with the interviewer. In the discussion which follows their comments will be used, where appropriate, to supplement the data being considered.

The Ethics of Teaching

Five desirable attributes were listed under the heading: “The Ethics of Teaching”, Of these, one was selected by all six participants whilst two others were chosen by five. All the student teachers believed that the use of cases had helped them to
develop attribute (d) which was to "...believe that all their students have the capacity to learn and should be treated justly and equitably". Closely related to this issue was another attribute (a), which was selected by five respondents, and which mentioned that beginning teachers should "...act to foster each student's positive self-esteem, well-being, competence and unique potential". The importance of cases to both of these was stressed by Sandra, who commented: "I think I probably hadn't thought much about those things before I looked at the case studies and I guess my own case study, the one I authored, and also the one that I, sort of, looked into in depth I think really highlighted both of those things" (III/S, 107-111). This confirms the observation, previously made, that she used the case writing exercise to further explore the issues of individual differences raised in the case analysis exercise.

The other attribute which attracted five responses was (c) which required that beginning teachers should be "...alert to the consequences of their own behaviour and encourage students to develop the same awareness". Thus, as well as being made conscious of the importance of catering for students as individuals, the student teachers found that the use of cases had alerted them to the way in which interpersonal relationships can affect learning in the classroom. This knowledge of the importance of teacher-student relationships and the provision of an equitable learning environment was also highlighted in the responses to the next group of attributes.
The Content of Teaching

Nine of the attributes concerned teaching content. However, only two of these were accorded either five or six responses. The only one selected by all student teachers was (d) which asserted that beginning teachers should 
"...show developing skills in adapting their teaching to suit the individual learning needs of all their students in the context in which they are teaching..." and went on to list various individual needs based on such issues as gender, race, culture, ability disability, etc. Sandra commented that: 
"...I think the case studies really spoke to that kind of issue more, perhaps than anything else" (III/S, 117-118) and it is true that the cases studied at the university included some that strongly portrayed dilemmas based on equity issues. For example, Bronwyn, whose memory of the cases seemed to be confined to the one that she analysed for the course assignment, said, in relation to her choice of this attribute: 
"...I was doing that Aboriginal case study so...I definitely had to tick that one" (III/B, 93-94).

The other attribute, in this section, for which case methods seemed relevant (according to five of the respondents) was (i) which called for beginning teachers to 
"...have developing competencies in recognising and valuing the experiences students bring from their lives outside the classroom, such as linguistic and cultural differences". Again, this competency relates to the issue of individual differences which was an important focus in many of the cases studied.

As only two items were chosen in this category, it may be useful to compare them
with those that were least popular. Three of the attributes - (b), (c) and (g) - attracted only one response and these were concerned with the areas of subject knowledge, vocational education and information resources. These areas, as important as they may be, seem to be less concerned with interaction between teacher and students. Thus, it might be inferred that the strength of the case method is in considering situations where such interaction takes place. If this is so, it might be expected that the next category of attributes, related to teaching practice, may be more suited to case methods.

The Practice of Teaching

This was the largest category and included thirteen attributes. The fact that all except two of these were selected by at least half of the respondents would seem to suggest that there is a perceived link between case methods and the improvement of teaching practice. Four of the attributes were selected by five of the six student teachers. As with most of the responses already discussed, three of these implied the need for an understanding of, and appropriate response to, the needs of students.

Attribute (d) in this section referred to “...anti-bias approaches in ... curriculum development and implementation...” whilst (f) advocated “...an increasingly wide range of teaching approaches and strategies that provide alternatives to transmission teaching and reflect contemporary, mainstream theory and practice...” and (m) mentioned the need to “...base programs on observation and
assessment of individual students' competencies and progress". Hence, the important link between a teacher's student knowledge and teaching practice is again seen as an aspect of professional development that can be enhanced by the use of cases.

It could also be said that these three attributes are complemented by the other highly rated attribute which was (j). This emphasised the need of beginning teachers to "...reflect critically on their teaching practice and seek feedback...". As the value of critical reflection in teaching is widely accepted, it is encouraging that the student teachers were able to affirm that the use of cases had a positive influence on the development of that skill. As Bronwyn observed: "...it helped to make my reflection a bit more sort of concrete and not so, what shall I say, in some ways it made me get a better perspective on things rather than just being overwhelmed by the emotions". (III/B, 155-158). The second part of the attribute, the seeking of feedback, was not specifically referred to by any of the student teachers. However, this was certainly a feature of the case exercises.

Interaction with Families and the Community

Three of the attributes were to do with the influence of family and community on educational outcomes. Of these three, two received only two responses each in the survey. The other attribute (a), however, was selected by five of the respondents. This promoted the need to "...recognise the home as the foundation of learning and its continuing significance in students' development". The cases studied, the
practicum and the act of writing a case story, seemed to have heightened the student teachers’ awareness of the ways in which the home can influence student learning.

Trevor referred to one of the cases, studied at the university, in which family issues were important. He then went on to draw on his practicum experience when he said: "I could only but recognise the fact that those people were going to go home to an incredible range of family cultures and that's where truth is, you know, those kids have a home. You don't come to school for truth. You go home and that's where reality begins and school's a context which colours and shapes, affects your reality" (III/T, 249-254). Bronwyn, also, pointed to the main characters in the case she studied before practicum and the one she wrote herself as examples of the way home and community background can affect life in the classroom (III/B, 173-177). The work of teachers, then, in catering for the needs of their students, is strongly influenced by the community within which they teach and the success of their efforts will depend upon the way in which they develop professional attitudes towards the task.

**Professionalism and Professional Development**

The final category of desirable attributes consisted of five items related to teachers’ developing professional knowledge. Two of these were selected by all six participants. The first one (c) involved an understanding of "...the roles of specialist teachers in the school...". Some of the cases studied had involved
students who required specialist support. Thus, in responding to those cases the
student teachers had needed to familiarise themselves with the roles of the
specialists. Others had cause to think of such issues in writing their own case story.

The other attribute considered important was (d) which suggested that beginning
teachers should "...have a developing knowledge of the framework of law,
regulations and policies that affect teachers' work". In the study of cases, the
student teachers had been required to consult relevant policy documents and they
seemed to find this a useful learning experience. When asked whether he would
have read policy documents if he had not been prompted to do so by the case
analysis exercise, Malcolm replied: "Oh, probably not...no. they can be, policies
can be bureaucratic speak, I suppose, but again that's another aspect of teaching
that you're not only just teaching a subject but you have the whole hierarchy of
what is the education system to consider. As a beginning teacher, that's not always
easy to do" (III/M, 243-247).

Two other attributes from this category may be worth mentioning as they were
chosen by four of the participants. These were (b) which concerned the importance
of collegiality and teamwork and (e) the need to be aware of current issues
affecting teachers work.

From the results of the DABT survey, two important conclusions can be reached.
The first is that, according to this small sample group of student teachers, the
relevance of case-based methods is spread across all the five areas of teacher
competence mentioned above. The second is that most of the attributes selected across those categories had certain aspects in common. They tended to emphasise the centrality of the learner and the obligations of each teacher to develop a knowledge base appropriate to catering for all.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF DATA FROM DOCUMENT SOURCES

In this chapter, the data gathered from three documents have been discussed and analysed. These consisted of the two case exercises submitted by the participants and a survey completed by them during the third and final interview. The information gathered from these sources proved to be a valuable supplement to that obtained through the three interviews that were discussed in Chapter Four.

From studying these written sources it was possible to confirm some of the conclusions reached as a result of the interviews. For example, the student teachers’ growing awareness of issues relating to the complexity of the teacher’s role, the learning and welfare needs of students and the ethical responsibilities of the teacher were evident in all data sources. Also apparent in both the interviews and the documents was the contribution made by the use of case methods to the participants’ development of professional knowledge and their understanding of the importance of interpersonal relationships.

However, the documents did more than confirm information derived from the interviews. By studying the two written case exercises it was possible to see more
clearly the importance of personal factors in the way in which the student teachers
approached those exercises and, consequently, constructed their own PPK. This
personal element was not so easy to discern from the interviews alone.

The documents also provided valuable insights into the influence of the pre-
practicum cases on the student teachers. From what the participants had to say in
the interviews, it appeared that they were a little unsure of the relevance of those
cases to their own immediate needs in the practice of teaching. Examination of
their responses to the survey, however, revealed a much stronger appreciation of
the link between the use of cases and practical issues.

It can be seen, then, that the data found in the written documents both confirmed
and expanded the information gathered from the interviews. In the next chapter
the contribution of all data sources will be considered in a discussion of the
outcomes of the research study.
SECTION THREE

Conclusion
CHAPTER SIX
OUTCOMES AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH

The use of four different sources of data for the case study has been discussed and justified earlier. Each of these sets of data has now been reported separately. In this chapter, it is proposed to bring together the findings derived from all four sources. By doing this, it will be possible to identify the ways in which the different types of data contribute to an understanding of the subject of inquiry.

Since the purpose of the research was to explore the connections between case methods in teacher education and the development of PPK, the discussion which follows will attempt to organise the information gained from all sources within a framework which includes: case analysis; case authorship; and PPK development. When this has been done, reference will also be made to the impact of the practicum as its influence on the participants’ developing PPK cannot be ignored.

CASE ANALYSIS

The context within which the student teachers wrote a detailed case analysis, at the end of Phase Two in their course, has already been described. The most significant aspects of that context would appear to be: the placement of the exercise immediately before the practicum; the relationship of the exercise to the use of cases in seminar discussions; the compulsory nature of the exercise, which was for
assessment purposes; and the criteria on which the completed response was assessed, including its length. Arising out of the data, collected from various sources, there are several aspects of the case analysis exercise that are worthy of note and these will now be discussed.

The cases studied at the university were especially helpful in encouraging the development of professional knowledge (Collinson 1996a, p. 7-8). It became apparent in the interviews that the participants' professional knowledge about educational policy and theory had been expanded by working with cases. This was confirmed by the analysis of the written case responses in which there was heavy emphasis on this type of knowledge. Furthermore, an item, referring to knowledge of law, regulations and policy, in the DABT survey was chosen by all six participants. In fact one of them, when questioned about this attribute, admitted that he may not have paid as much attention to reading policy documents if this had not been a necessary part of the study of cases (III/M, 243-247). Although there was such an emphasis on professional knowledge in the case analysis exercise, the written responses also provided evidence of the two other branches of the triad of knowledge (Collinson 1996) - interpersonal knowledge and intrapersonal knowledge.

The student teachers' growing awareness of the importance of interpersonal relationships was evident during the interviews and in their responses to the DABT survey more than half of the respondents indicated that they believed there was a connection between the use of cases and an understanding of the importance of
collegiality and teamwork. Closely related to this was an appreciation of the importance, to education, of factors outside the school and this was also confirmed by some of the responses to the survey. It is possible that this apparent growth in interpersonal knowledge may have been, to some extent, related to the types of cases studied at the university. The majority of those cases demonstrated the problems that can arise when teachers do not succeed in establishing effective interpersonal relationships with students and other members of the school community.

It is significant that the use of cases was apparently intended to serve as a preparation for the student teacher's first practicum. Those interviewed, however, did not seem to see it that way. In questioning the value of the cases studied at the university as a preparation for the practicum, the student teachers pointed out that most of the cases they had studied were about dilemmas involving individual students. This was supported by the fact that all except one of the submitted case analysis exercises concerned individuals with behavior problems. In contrast, the major concern of the student teachers at the beginning of their first practicum was the management of a class. They did not deny that, as teachers, they needed to recognise the needs of individuals but felt that they would be better able to do this once they were comfortable with instructing the class as a whole.

However, the tendency of the cases to focus on individuals also had a positive aspect. The participants appreciated the opportunity to learn about the kinds of problems that can arise with individual students and, in the survey, they saw it as
a strength of case methods that they stressed the importance of catering for individual needs. Moreover, the cases, in demonstrating the interactions between teachers and individual students, undoubtedly prompted the student teachers to reflect upon the importance of interpersonal relationships. For example, in "Norma" (Appendix D) which was analysed by Bronwyn, the principal dilemma developed because of a breakdown in communication as well as an inexperienced teacher’s inability to develop rapport with an individual student.

Aspects of the third type of knowledge (intrapersonal) were reflected in the participants’ choice of cases to study and in the method of treatment. The student teachers were free to choose, from the cases studied at the university, one for intensive treatment. It seemed apparent that there was a strong link between their choices and their own personal interests. Personal feelings and background also seemed to play a strong part in their analysis of the chosen cases. This manifested itself in their tendency to empathise with the students (rather than the teachers) in the case stories; in their selection and treatment of reference materials; and in their interpretation of events in the case.

Thus, it was evident that the responses resulted from an integration of Collinson’s triad of knowledge. As was observed in Chapter One, the integration of the three forms of knowledge was seen by Collinson as the way in which exemplary teachers create a positive learning environment for their students [Collinson, 1996 #91, p. 10]. Implicit in this view was Collinson’s call for a balanced development of the three forms of knowledge [Collinson, 1996a #127, p. 16]. Of particular
importance were highly developed ethics and dispositions that constituted intrapersonal knowledge and had a positive influence on professional knowledge. The present study affirms the strong influence of interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge on professional knowledge. Moreover, it is apparent that this influence has the potential to have a negative effect on the interpretation of professional knowledge when problems in the other two areas have not been adequately addressed. As a result, the way in which some participants responded to the cases reinforced the view that cases can be used to confirm strongly held pre-existing beliefs (Grossman 1992, p. 236).

As far as the case analysis exercise is concerned, the findings of the research may be summarised in the following way. The exercise placed heavy emphasis on professional knowledge. Although this assignment had been intended as a preparation for the first practicum, the student teachers saw it as an academic essay, more related to their university studies than to classroom practice. At the same time, however, the participants' interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge played a part in their analysis of the cases and there was evidence that the interpretation and analysis of the cases were often heavily influenced by personal assumptions, attitudes and emotions.

Such personal factors were evident in both the case analysis and case authorship exercises. For example, one subject addressed in the interviews was the possibility of a connection between the two case methods. The participants agreed that the study of cases at the university had provided them with a general guide as to how
they should go about writing their own stories. However, they insisted that their own case stories were quite different from those they had studied. The quality of the student teachers' original case stories would seem to suggest that their earlier exposure to cases written by others had prepared them well for the authorship exercise. At the same time, analysis of their stories led to the conclusion that the cases chosen for analysis and the original case stories were more alike than the participants realised. This will be discussed further in the next section which considers data relating to the case authorship exercise.

**CASE AUTHORSHIP**

As mentioned above, there were some similarities between the participants' case stories and the cases that they had chosen for the case analysis exercise. These similarities, which have been discussed in Chapter Five, were related to the general issues raised in the cases. The interesting point is that the student teachers themselves were quite definite in their assertion that their cases were, in some way, different from those they had studied. As only four of the participants completed both assignments, it would be unwise to draw too many conclusions from this. It is possible that the student teachers, without realising it, may have modelled their own stories on the pre-practicum cases. Another explanation may be that, for these four student teachers, the choice of a case for analysis and the choice of a subject for case authorship were both influenced by personal factors, such as beliefs, attitudes, interests or past experiences.
Personal involvement was certainly an important aspect of the case authorship exercise. Most participants acknowledged this during the final interview. Even in the case of Kevin, who claimed to have felt little personal involvement in his case story, it could be claimed that his decision, in both of the case exercises, to deal with general issues rather than confront more personal ones was, itself, a reflection of his own nature. Another factor which seemed to personalise each case story was the school placement for the practicum. This was particularly so for two of the student teachers who had somewhat unrealistic expectations of the schools in which they were placed.

In writing cases about their own experiences, the student teachers were prompted to focus on issues relevant to their own professional development. This was acknowledged by the participants during the interviews and further confirmed by a strong response, in the survey, to those attributes related to professional development.

An important feature of the case authorship exercise was its encouragement of collegial and collaborative activities. In Chapter One reference was made to research which supported the use of such activities as an aid to learning (Day 1993; Bengtsson 1995; Francis 1995; Donmoyer 1996). The participants, when interviewed on this subject, affirmed the value of discussing their cases with their peers and, in the survey, more than half of them indicated that they believed case methods were appropriate for promoting an understanding of the value of collaboration.
Perhaps the most significant contribution of case authorship to the student teachers' development was in providing a vehicle for examining and reflecting upon their own practice. The value of reflection in professional practice has been well documented (Schon 1983; Schon 1987; Schon 1991; Hatton and Smith 1995; Lovat and Smith 1995) and it has also been noted that there are stages in the development of reflection (Hatton and Smith 1995, p. 45). In both the interview and the survey, the respondents recognised the link between case writing and the promotion of reflection. The analysis of the case stories confirmed that the exercise was successful in this regard. However, it was noted that the student teachers were at different stages with regard to reflective practice.

Consequently, there seemed to be some variation between participants in the extent to which they were learning from their experiences, confirming the view that, to be useful in the improvement of practice, reflection needs to cause the practitioner to confront issues in such a way that change can occur (Day 1993, p. 88). Thus the ability of teachers to reflect in a way that critically examines their own practice is very important to their use of practical reasoning and the construction of PPK.

**PROFESSIONAL PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE (PPK)**

The data obtained from the four sources suggested a number of ways in which the student teachers were developing their PPK during the period under review. It was apparent that they were coming to terms with various issues that might be classified as relating to: the complexities of teaching; the needs of students; and
the ethical and professional concerns of teachers. In this way their progress seemed to support previous research evidence that beginning teachers pass through stages of development [Fuller, 1975 #128].

By the time of the second interview, during their first practicum, the student teachers were becoming more aware of the complex nature of a teacher’s work and the diverse roles that a teacher is daily called upon to perform, both within the classroom and in the wider school community. By the wide range of attributes, across all areas, that they selected in their responses to the DABT survey, the respondents indicated that they could see the value of case methods in helping them to understand this complexity. The case stories, written after the practicum, were further evidence of the extent to which the student teachers were becoming more attuned to the realities of classroom teaching, leading one of them to remark: “Teaching is not as straightforward as I first thought” (CW/M, 145).

As well as an increasing understanding of the duties performed by teachers, the student teachers exhibited a strong and growing concern for the needs of students. This was evident in the interviews and, as has been explained, most of the desirable attributes selected in the survey, from all five areas, had something to do with the individual differences or needs of students.

The importance of catering for individual students was also a theme that ran through the student teachers’ case stories. Sandra and Trevor reflected on groups of students and how their individual needs were being met. Bronwyn and Malcolm
each wrote about individual students who were lacking in motivation to study particular subjects. Although Kevin wrote about the more general subject of time management in the classroom, his choice of this topic was inspired by his desire to promote student learning and the problem that, because of time constraints, he sometimes found himself cutting lessons short when the students were highly motivated and wishing to continue.

The student teachers' developing understanding of the complexity of teaching and their growing belief in the centrality of the learner were accompanied by increased appreciation of ethical and professional considerations. Through observation and experience they were beginning to construct their own understanding of the qualities of a good teacher. Whereas they had initially thought of teaching as being mainly concerned with course content and the encouragement of student learning, their experience in schools caused them to see other qualities that were just as important. Amongst these were the personal qualities and professional integrity of the individual teacher, management and decision making skills and the exercise of foresight and consistency in teacher-student relationships.

In their responses to the DABT survey, the student teachers indicated that they felt case methods were useful in promoting the rights of all students to learn and achieve their potential; in stressing the need for teachers, as well as students, to take responsibility for their own actions; and in pointing out the moral and legal obligations that devolve upon teachers.
All this information about teachers, learners and professionalism formed a useful foundation on which the student teachers were developing the skills of practical reasoning. As was suggested in Chapter One, practical reasoning is important to the construction of PPK. In the case exercises there appear to have been two important factors which affected the development of practical reasoning skills. These were, firstly, the integration of various types of knowledge and, secondly, the use of reflection. It could be argued that there was a two-way relationship between these two. The input of knowledge from various sources might be expected to have some impact on a novice's reflection. At the same time, it might be argued that the quality of that reflection could have implications for the way in which knowledge was processed and integrated. Further research into this dialectic between knowledge and reflection could prove useful. One approach to the relationship between reflection and developing knowledge is proposed by Collinson who refers to "...a conception of teaching that incorporates a disposition toward reflection, a disposition toward continuous learning and the development of interpersonal knowledge as interactive thoughtmapping" (Collinson 1996a, p. 105).

When the two case exercises were analysed to find evidence of professional, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge, it became evident that these three forms of knowledge were not easily separated. Each seemed to be influenced by the other two. In particular, there was an impression that the efficiency with which professional and interpersonal knowledge was processed and reflected upon was strongly influenced by intrapersonal knowledge.
At the same time, this type of knowledge, which has been defined as "...knowledge of oneself and the capacity for introspection and reflection" (Collinson 1996), was the most difficult to identify. Being of such a personal nature and internalised by the individual, the development of intrapersonal knowledge was best observed through its effects on the other forms of knowledge. The written exercises submitted by Bronwyn afford some examples of this.

In the case analysis exercise, Bronwyn's strongly held beliefs about Aboriginal issues not only influenced her choice of a case for study but also caused her to overlook other issues that were significant for an understanding of the case. This, in turn, helped to determine the aspects of professional knowledge which she introduced into her analysis and affected her interpretation of the interpersonal relationships that were so important to the case story.

When it came to writing her own case story, Bronwyn demonstrated that her skills of self-awareness and reflection were at a beginning stage. Whilst she saw herself as being deeply introspective, her introspection did not seem to help her to critically examine her own behavior. Similar problems were experienced by other members of the group. All five authors of the case stories had obviously reflected on their experiences but there were wide differences in the ways that they used that reflection. Furthermore, the value of this reflection seemed to vary in its effectiveness as a result of personal factors.

Bronwyn was able to reflect on the dilemmas that confronted her but tended to
rationalise these by blaming those in authority. Malcolm, whilst he was ready to take responsibility for the problems that his reflection uncovered, seemed to be unable to take the next step towards solving those problems. Trevor's story contained a great deal of reflection about the progress of several students in his class. However, there was an impression that he was attempting to use that reflection as a means of justifying his teaching strategies. Although he acknowledged that some of the evidence pointed to shortcomings in those strategies, he seemed to brush this aside without too much critical appraisal. Thus, much of the student teachers' reflection was at the descriptive level, confirming the belief that novice teachers find it difficult to achieve higher levels of reflection (Hatton and Smith 1995, p. 46).

Of the five student teachers who wrote case stories, only Kevin and Sandra seemed to have reached a point where they could adopt a self-critical stance in their reflection. Both were able to look at their own practice with sufficient detachment to question their own behavior and to propose strategies that might prove beneficial to them in the future. It is possible that their facility for doing this was aided by factors such as school placement and their relationships with mentors and supervisors, the assumption being that they would feel less threatened about confronting issues if they felt comfortable in their environment. If that were the case, it might be true to say that confidence and self efficacy are necessary prerequisites to enable teachers to look at their own practice in an authentically self-critical manner.
Another way of explaining the quality of reflection exhibited by these two student teachers is in terms of their own intrapersonal knowledge. For example, it would appear that they exemplified more of what have been described as the "ethics and dispositions" common to exemplary teachers (Collinson 1996, p. 7). This might explain why their case stories were less emotionally charged than those of Bronwyn and Malcolm and less defensive than that of Trevor.

It would be wrong to conclude that Kevin and Sandra were the only ones to have constructed PPK or that their knowledge would, ultimately, prove to be of a superior quality. However, it would appear that, for them, the process was less painful than for the others. For all of the student teachers, the act of writing a case story seems to have provided them with a vehicle for reflecting on some of their practicum experiences. The most difficult problem is not so much to decide the extent to which PPK had grown but to determine how much of that growth can be attributed to the use of case methods. Because all of the case analysis and case writing activity took place within the shadow of the practicum, it is appropriate, at this point, to consider the relationship of the practicum to the learning that was taking place.

THE SHADOW OF THE PRACTICUM

Although the stated focus of this research study was the relationship between the use of case methods and the construction of PPK, it has been stressed from the outset that the period during which the case methods were used was, to a large
extent, dominated by the student teachers' first practicum. It would be foolish to think that, for research purposes, the impact of the practicum on the construction of PPK could, somehow, be filtered out to reveal the extent to which the case methods, alone, affected the learning process.

A more realistic view of the situation would be to accept that the practicum was part of the context in which cases were used and that the two complemented one another. From the available data (see Chapters Four and Five), it would be reasonable to conclude that the practicum provided the student teachers with first hand experiences that were far more powerful than any vicarious experiences available through case stories written by others. At the same time, those case stories did broaden the base against which they reacted to their own personal practicum experiences. It could also be suggested that the cases studied at the university portrayed isolated incidents which represented what the case authors might have described as their "worst moments" as teachers. The practicum, hopefully, enabled the student teachers to see that such incidents are not the norm.

There was an even closer relationship between the practicum experiences and the case authorship exercise. Whilst it could be argued that the practicum alone might be credited with an increase in PPK, the value of writing a case story cannot be dismissed. The more painful experiences of practicum might have been simply relegated to the status of unhappy memories without the incentive, provided by the case authorship exercise, to examine them more closely and to make sense of the complexities of those experiences. This, in turn, seems to have given the student
teachers fresh insights into the events of the practicum leading to learning that might not otherwise have taken place.

The case authorship exercise also created an incentive for the student teachers to discuss their experiences with their peers. Opportunities to do this during practicum were limited but the time set aside in seminars for them to discuss their case stories, during the six-week writing period, seems to have been helpful. Not only did it provide feedback but it helped to clarify issues and promote the learning process.

It might be concluded, then, that although the practicum was, for the student teachers, the most significant event during the period covered by the research, its influence on the student teachers' learning was enriched by the use of case methods. The principal aspects of that enrichment, together with some limiting factors, will now be summarised.

**CASE METHODS AND THE CONSTRUCTION OF PPK**

It has already been suggested that the use of case methods may be an appropriate way of encouraging practical reasoning and, hence, the construction of PPK. As discussed in Chapter One, a number of researchers (Feldman 1992; Noel 1993; Fenstermacher 1994; Donmoyer 1996) have advocated practical reasoning as a vehicle for justifying practical knowledge and as a means by which practitioners can express and reflect upon that knowledge.
From the data derived from the present study, it could be claimed that the two case exercises used in the M.Teach program were instrumental in encouraging the use of practical reasoning to solve complex problems. This seems to have been facilitated by a suggested framework (the Generic Model) for analysing cases and by the criteria for assessment of both the case analysis and the case authorship exercises.

As has been demonstrated, the cases, working in conjunction with the practicum experience, heightened the student teachers’ awareness of the complexities of teaching, the needs of students and the ethical and professional demands upon teachers. The awareness of these issues, in turn, could be expected to play an important part in the construction of PPK and the process by which that construction took place could be seen to involve the integration of inputs of various forms of knowledge along with reflection.

Whilst all participants in the study seemed to benefit from the integration of knowledge and reflection, it was noted that the relationship of those activities to practical reasoning seems to have been strongly influenced by personal factors. As a result, it could be seen that the participants’ intrapersonal knowledge, which has been defined as ‘...understanding of oneself and the capacity for introspection and reflection’ (Collinson 1996, p. 6) was at different stages of development. Although this is not surprising, it is of some concern in view of comments made in Chapter One. Reference was made to the failure of traditional teacher education to pay proper attention to the more personal aspects of teacher knowledge.
(Collinson 1996) and it was inferred that a constructivist approach might address the imbalance.

It was suggested, in Chapter One, that practical reasoning develops along a continuum according to experience (Anderson 1990) and can be adversely affected by personal factors (Feldman 1992; Pendlebury 1993). However, it was also noted that teachers might enhance their practical reasoning by examining their own strongly held beliefs (Vasquez-Levy 1993). Whilst traditional approaches to teacher education did not address this issue, it was felt that a constructivist approach which used such strategies as reflection and case methods could "...create settings for teaching practical reasoning..." (Rentel and Pinnell 1989p, 7) and, thereby, assist in the development of PPK.

The case authorship exercise, in particular, placed the student teachers in situations where they had to confront issues that they might otherwise have been inclined to overlook. The act of writing a case story gave to the writers a legitimate debriefing tool which challenged them to acknowledge problems and reflect upon them. More importantly, it reinforced the notion that the practicum was a learning experience rather than a test of practical ability which finished with the writing of the supervisor’s report.

In the present study, participants varied in the degree to which they were able to learn from their experience with cases. Some were more able to confront and reflect upon their problems than others. This simply reinforces the fact that case
methods do not weave some kind of magic that can overcome differences in intrapersonal knowledge. Instead, it could be argued that the value of case methods is that they can provide the teacher educator with ways of uncovering such differences so that appropriate programs and resources can be developed to assist each individual student teacher in the use of practical reasoning. In other words, the key to the success of case methodology may be in the level of follow-up work that is provided.

In conclusion, it can be said that, for the participants in the present study, there was a clear connection between the use of case methods and the construction of PPK although this connection was subject to certain limitations, especially in relation to the impact of intrapersonal knowledge. In the next chapter, various implications of the study's findings will be considered and recommendations will be made regarding future action and research.
CHAPTER SEVEN
IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The information gathered from the present research study confirms the belief that the use of case methods has a legitimate place in a teacher education program that is based upon constructivist learning principles. It is not difficult to see that such methods offer an effective opportunity to assist novice teachers in the construction of PPK. At the same time, the results of the study have important implications for the ways in which teacher educators might employ case methods. As with any teaching method, there is need for ongoing evaluation and research in order to optimise the value of case-based learning and findings from the current research suggest some important directions for such work.

It is not suggested that there is any one ideal way in which cases should be used. On the contrary, the range of differences within even the small sample of student teachers in the present study would seem to imply that there is a need for a variety of strategies, in the use of cases, in order to cater for individual needs. Attention was drawn in Chapter Two to the apparent lack of research into the pedagogical methods used with cases and the present study affirms the need for more attention to this area. Before discussing this further, it may be useful to consider the processes used by the students themselves whilst engaging with case methods.

In Chapter Five, the data generated by the present study were analysed and
discussed within a framework prompted by Collinson’s Triad of Knowledge (Collinson 1996; Collinson 1996a). This same framework, based on the three forms of knowledge - professional, interpersonal and intrapersonal - will now be used as a means of reviewing the ways in which the student teachers engaged with the case methods used in the M.Teach program.

PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE

The analysis of cases in the M.Teach program encouraged the acquisition of professional knowledge. Such analysis, within the framework of the Generic Model (previously described) certainly facilitated learning about relevant theory and research as well as appropriate policy and curriculum documents. If this were the only purpose of using cases, it might be argued that the same result could be achieved by setting a traditional assignment. However, the use of case analysis as a means of generating the learning of professional knowledge does have some advantages over the setting of an essay topic which seeks to evoke the same learning. For example, in responding to a case, the student teachers were given more responsibility for identifying and defining the issues and problems to be addressed. Moreover, the fact that those issues and problems could be seen within the realistic context of a story not only provided added interest but also allowed the reader to feel more involvement and commitment.

This emphasis on professional knowledge, together with their own lack of practical experience, seems to have caused the participants to approach case analysis as an
academic exercise in which they tended to intellectualise about the issues raised by the case. Furthermore, this type of approach did not confine itself to issues related to professional knowledge but affected the way in which the student teachers framed other knowledge, especially in their critique of interpersonal relationships and in questioning the actions of the protagonists in the case. Whilst it will be argued, later, that such a tendency to concentrate on the actions of others could hamper the growth of intrapersonal knowledge, it could have a place in the development of practical reasoning skills.

The above comments all refer to the analysis of case stories written by others. As might be expected, the student teachers showed less tendency to refer to relevant theory and policy when discussing their own case stories. Although one of the participants, Sandra, did appear to carry into her own story some of the professional knowledge she had gained through her very thorough treatment of the pre-practicum case analysis exercise, Malcolm, on the other hand, did not seem to have any such transfer of knowledge. Although he had read widely in the areas of discipline and class management in connection with the case analysis, he seemed to overlook this knowledge when writing his own story and reflecting upon the problems, in those same areas, that he faced during practicum.

The intellectual exercise of responding to cases and reaching conclusions based upon professional knowledge would seem to serve a useful purpose in supporting the academic program at the university. Its value in preparing the student teachers for their first practicum is less obvious although there seem to have been some
indirect benefits. The evidence would suggest that, if the study of cases is to be used as part of a teacher education program, there is a need to closely monitor the ways in which cases are selected and used and these issues will be discussed later. It is also important to ensure that the development of professional knowledge is not permitted to dominate case-based learning, at the expense of interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge.

INTERPERSONAL KNOWLEDGE

The case stories used for analysis, as well as those written by the students themselves, were all rich in descriptions of the interpersonal relationships that so strongly affect the work of teachers. Moreover, the importance of interpersonal knowledge was reinforced by the ways in which the case exercises were used. The present research has indicated that an important feature of the case methods was the modelling of effective methods of collaboration and cooperative learning. The participants in this study seemed to appreciate the opportunity to work with others in their peer group to discuss cases.

Before the practicum, when responding to the various cases written by experienced teachers, the student teachers often formed small groups to consider a particular case. This permitted them to listen to one another’s views about the issues involved and to share the work of seeking out information about policies, theory and research. During the writing stage of the case authorship exercise, the collaboration took a different form. The writers had an opportunity to talk, on a
weekly basis, to a small group about the issues and incidents in their cases and about the progress they were making. Such opportunities for collaboration are important, not only because they enrich the case-based learning experience but also because they model a particular way in which teachers can overcome the isolation of the classroom and attempt to make sense of their experiences.

It is possible to conceive of ways in which collaboration in the use of cases might be extended and become even more meaningful and some examples will be considered later. Whatever form it takes, however, collaboration promises to benefit the participants by allowing them to test their ideas in a public forum. This would enable them to consider approaches that they might otherwise have overlooked. It could also cause them to challenge or justify their own pre-existing beliefs and attitudes. One very clear lesson to be learned from the present study is that the ways in which the participants responded to cases and wrote their own case stories were strongly influenced by personal factors. This aspect will now be considered.

INTRAPERSONAL KNOWLEDGE

If case methods are to make a real difference in teacher education or in the professional development of teachers it needs to be in the way that personal issues are confronted and examined for this is the area most neglected by traditional approaches. As has already been observed, personal beliefs and attitudes, no doubt attributable to past experience, sometimes inhibited the ability of those student
teachers in the present study to learn from case analysis or case writing.

Because confronting one's own beliefs and attitudes can sometimes be a painful experience, there seems to exist, especially among novice teachers, what might be termed the "third person syndrome". By this is meant a tendency to concentrate more on other people's actions than on one's own. This could be seen both in the case analysis and case authorship exercises of some of the participants in the current research. Of course, it is not necessarily wrong to critically examine the actions of other people. To some extent this was a requirement of the case analysis exercise. However, there comes a point where this can become a means of avoiding more personal issues that need to be confronted.

The basic difficulty, particularly for the authors of case stories, seems to be in distancing themselves from their own practice. As has been reported, two of the student teachers in the present study showed signs of being able to do this. The challenge is to find ways of helping those for whom such distancing does not come naturally, perhaps by the use of such strategies as modelling (Bransford, Brown et al. 1999; Cooper 1999) and scaffolding (Bransford, Brown et al. 1999; O'Donnell 1999).

From the foregoing discussion about the three forms of knowledge, it can be seen that the student teachers' practical reasoning and construction of knowledge were influenced by their use of academic research to intellectualise about important issues, by collaboration and by relating issues to their own personal beliefs. Of
these three influences, the third is more difficult to define and less open to scrutiny than the others since personal thoughts and processes tend to be hidden, sometimes even from the student teachers themselves. It is also possible that guidelines and procedural devices can be used to enhance the effectiveness of intellectual and collaborative activities whereas such interventions, for both practical and ethical reasons, are less likely to be used with respect to personal thought processes. The difficulty is compounded by the fact that all three processes appear to integrate to form each individual’s ways of knowing. The result is that the task of the teacher educator, in developing a pedagogy of case-based learning, is very difficult. Some possible ways of dealing with the issues that have been raised will now be discussed.

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES TO CASE-BASED LEARNING

In the Introduction and in Chapters One and Two, certain assumptions were made about teaching. These assumptions were concerned with teachers’ work, knowledge and the role of teacher education programs. Those assumptions will not be repeated here but they will continue to inform the following discussion about pedagogical approaches to case-based learning. So too will the belief, supported by the data collected in the present study, that case methods have the power to support and enhance the construction of teachers’ PPK.

As has already been stated, there was an observable link between the use of case methods and PPK for the participants in the study. Both the case analysis exercise
and the case authorship exercise appeared to provide the student teachers in the M.Teach program with valuable learning experiences at a time when they were taking their first steps from being university students to becoming classroom teachers. However, it is possible to conceive of ways in which case methods might contribute even more to the professional development of the student teachers. The suggestions and recommendations that follow can be linked to the three learning processes - intellectual, collaborative and personal - referred to above. This is done because of a perceived imbalance between these three processes.

The use of cases in Phase Two of the M.Teach program proved most successful in developing the intellectual skills of the participants. In responding to the cases the student teachers developed considerable professional knowledge about important educational issues. However, the data gathered raised some questions about the choice and use of these particular cases at that time.

It would seem reasonable to suggest that the purpose of the case component in a learning program should determine the types of cases, in terms of content and format, that are used as well as the time, during the program, when they are introduced. One purpose of the case analysis component of the M.Teach program observed in the study was to act as a preparation for the student teachers’ first practicum. However, the cases were not deliberately selected because of their relevance to beginning teachers and, for this reason, the participants in the study did not find them particularly relevant.

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The cases, written especially for the program by practising teachers, certainly presented some valuable insights into the practical aspects of teaching but they may have served a more useful purpose if they had been placed at other points in the course to support the academic program of the university. For example, a number of the cases could have been used to support teaching about educational provisions for the individual needs of students. Some could have been introduced when discussing equity issues and others would have been relevant to the consideration of the ways in which family, social and political issues affect education. In the pre-practicum period it may have been more appropriate to use cases written by novice teachers describing the problems that they faced early in their careers.

Apart from any concern about the suitability of the subject matter in the cases, as a preparation for practicum, another aspect which needs careful consideration is the format of the cases themselves. Some of the student teachers expressed concern about lack of detail in some of the cases. Whilst the use of open-ended cases may provide a useful exercise in practical reasoning for more experienced teachers, the efficacy of using them with novices needs to be questioned. Such cases might be introduced at a later stage in the program when the student teachers have had some practical classroom experience.

Another comment that may be made about the case analysis exercise concerns the form of assessment used. The course requirement for the student teachers to submit a 4,000 word response to one of the fifteen cases used during Phase two had two obvious consequences. Firstly, the participants spent some weeks
concentrating on this assignment with the result that they could remember little of any of the other cases. Secondly, although it may not have been the intention of the examiners, the case analysis exercise did seem to elicit a strongly intellectual response which placed an emphasis on professional knowledge. It is possible that both of these problems might be overcome by basing assessment on shorter responses to a number of cases, perhaps in the form of tutorial papers, and by giving some credit for participation in group work.

In the case authorship exercise, there seems to have been much less tendency to intellectualise about issues. Most of the participants seemed to find it difficult, when facing problems that they found disturbing, to find the time or to be sufficiently objective to search for solutions in the relevant literature. There would seem to be some value, therefore, in educational research that explores the possibility of encouraging case authors to look at their own stories in the light of relevant professional knowledge. One way of doing this might be through discussing their case stories with others. The collaborative aspects of case usage will now be considered.

In the case methods that were the subject of the present study, considerable value was placed on collaborative activities by both the student teachers and the teacher educators. Nevertheless, in view of the comments made, above, about the tendency for individual intellectual pursuits to take a dominant role, it may be appropriate to provide more structure for peer group collaboration, using such activities as commentary writing (Cherednichenko, Gay et al. 1998) and scripted cooperation
This is especially so with case authorship. For example, there could be value in a more intentional sharing of case stories. As mentioned above, the cases were discussed in small groups during the writing stage. Perhaps, after the cases have been completed, the student teachers could exchange their stories with trusted friends for critical comment. This could even take the form of some system of peer appraisal.

One opportunity for collaboration that seems to have been overlooked was collaboration between the student teachers and the cooperating teachers with whom they were working. None of the participants in the study had talked to the teachers about the fact that they were writing a case story. Neither does it appear that any information about the case authorship exercise was provided by the university to the schools.

This would seem to imply that the exercise was seen more as an assignment which belonged at the university than as an integral part of the practicum experience. It might also reflect certain assumptions about the role of the cooperating teachers. If their supervisory role is seen to overshadow their mentor role it is understandable that students may be reluctant to share some of their feelings about their case story. There may be some merit, therefore, in strengthening the mentor role of the cooperating teacher (Linnell 1998). Then, as part of the mentor-student relationship, teachers might welcome an opportunity to share in or, at least, be
aware of the case writing activity.

Another possible collaborative activity, that might be worthy of trial, is a case writing workshop where novices and experienced teachers could practise case writing techniques and share their stories. The novices would benefit from the insights offered by the experienced teachers who, in turn, might find this a valuable professional development exercise. Activities such as this might serve the dual purpose of developing interpersonal skills and, also, helping individuals to clarify and examine their own personal beliefs and assumptions.

It is in the area of personal development that case methods and, indeed, most other teaching methods face their greatest challenge. In the student teachers’ case exercises, that were analysed as part of this study, it was the personal element that seemed most intractable. A good example of this was in the case story written by Trevor. This was a well constructed story, based on a great deal of reflection, which seemed to help the author clarify a good deal of professional and interpersonal knowledge. However, when the results of his teaching methods and his relationships with students conflicted with his personal expectations, he seemed to be reluctant to accept this or to search for new strategies that may be more effective.

There is a need for teacher educators to explore a variety of ways in which student teachers might be encouraged to examine their own assumptions and strongly held beliefs. It has been said that “...until teachers can effectively use reflection to
understand what they do and why they do it, their ability to understand students and colleagues may be curtailed” (Collinson 1996a, p. 73). The example given above indicates that reflection may not always be enough. As was previously mentioned, some people have more difficulty than others in distancing themselves from their own practice. This implies the need, in a teacher education program, to provide a variety of modelling and scaffolding strategies to enhance learning.

Some of the collegial activities mentioned earlier might be useful in this regard. In addition, there is a need to know more about how different types of people go about confronting and revising strongly held beliefs. Whilst it may be possible to build into a teacher education program opportunities for student teachers to reflect upon and examine their own beliefs in a non-threatening environment, this may not necessarily be helpful to all of them.

Another exercise that might be useful is the re-visiting of case analyses and case stories by the writers after a period of time. For example, the case analysed before the practicum may be seen in a different light two months later, after the practicum experience. Mention has been made of the apparent similarity between the choices of a case for analysis and the original case story. This may not be a regular occurrence but, if it were found to be so, it might be a useful exercise for the student teachers, with appropriate guidance, to examine the two cases to help them uncover some of their own assumptions and beliefs. Furthermore, the original case story, rich with the experiences of the first practicum, might stimulate much fruitful reflection by the same novice teacher after the second practicum.
A number of suggestions have been made about the ways cases might be used to assist novices in the construction of their own PPK. The truth is, of course, that research into both the nature of PPK and the pedagogy of case methods in teacher education is seriously lacking. One thing that does seem to be clear, however, is that the way in which teacher educators use case methods must be compatible with their own underlying assumptions and desired outcomes. The teacher education program on which the present research study was based, represented an innovative attempt to achieve such compatibility and provides a useful base on which to conduct further research into case-based approaches to teacher education.

In conclusion, it must be said that the PPK of teachers, being that characteristic that makes each teacher a unique practitioner, is too complex and variable for us ever to know it accurately or prescribe rules for its construction. At the same time it is too important to ignore and we must do more than acknowledge its existence. The use of case methods promises to be one way in which to encourage members of the teaching profession to seek to understand what PPK means for them, personally, in keeping with Feldman's claim that: "A teacher needs to learn how to be a person of practical wisdom" (Feldman 1992, p. 12).
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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

INTERVIEW I

1. This is your first practicum in the M. Teach. course but have you had any previous teaching experience of any kind?

2. (If yes) In what ways has that experience prepared you for this practicum?

3. What do you expect to find most rewarding about practicum?

4. What do you expect to find most challenging about practicum?

5. In what ways, if any, have these expectations been influenced by the use of case studies in the M. Teach program?

6. How would you summarise the qualities of an effective teacher?

7. What are the main goals that you wish to achieve by the end of this first practicum?
INTERVIEW II

1. You are now about halfway through your first practicum. Reflecting on your experiences so far, to what extent do you feel you were prepared for the practicum?

2. Can you think of ways in which you might have been better prepared?

3. From your observations of your class teacher and other experienced teachers, to what extent do they seem to rely on practical knowledge gained from their own past experiences? Can you think of any examples?

4. From what you have seen and experiences so far, what do you consider to be the main problems encountered by teachers during the course of their working day?

5. To what extent did the case studies used at the University prepare you for the complexities of classroom teaching and interaction with students?

6. Have you begun to think of any incidents during practicum which might form the basis for a case study of your own?

7. What have you found most rewarding about your time in a school?

8. What have you found most challenging?

9. Based on your practicum experience what do you believe to be the most important qualities of a good teacher"

10. Apart from the preparation and delivery of lessons, Which of your activities (both inside and outside the classroom) would you rate as most important in helping you adjust to your work as a teacher?

11. What are the main goals that you would like to achieve between now and the end of practicum?
INTERVIEW IIa  
(Interview of student teacher who deferred candidature during practicum)

1. Soon after our last interview, you commenced practicum at a High School but then decided to defer your candidature for a year. Reflecting on your practicum experience, to what extent do you feel you were prepared for the practicum?

2. Can you think of ways in which you might have been better prepared?

3. From your observations of your class teacher and other experienced teachers, to what extent do they seem to rely on practical knowledge gained from their own past experiences? Can you think of any examples?

4. From what you have seen and experiences so far, what do you consider to be the main problems encountered by teachers during the course of their working day?

5. To what extent did the case studies used at the University prepare you for the complexities of classroom teaching and interaction with students?

6. What did you find most rewarding about your time in a school?

7. What did you find most challenging?

8. Based on your practicum experience what do you believe to be the most important qualities of a good teacher?

9. Apart from the preparation and delivery of lessons, which of your activities (both inside and outside the classroom) would you rate as most important in helping you adjust to your work as a teacher?

10. When you return to the M.Teach program, to what extent will you be influenced by the previous year's experiences?

11. Study the list of Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers provided. Do you consider that your work in studying and/or authoring cases was relevant to developing any of these attributes.
INTERVIEW III

1. You have just finished writing a case study based on your practicum experience. Could you give a brief summary of the issues raised in your story?

2. Did you find this a difficult exercise?

3. How much were you helped in this exercise by the cases, prepared by practising teachers, which you used in Phase Two of the course?

4. How much personal involvement did you have in the story that you presented?

5. Did you find that the act of writing the story, so that it could be shared with others, caused you to reassess your own perceptions of the incidents that you were reporting? If so, in what way?

6. To what extent, if any, did you discuss the case with your cooperating teacher during practicum? If you did, was this a help?

7. How important to you was feed-back from peers, during the writing of the story, and in what ways?

8. Study the list of "Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers" provided. Do you consider that your work in studying and/or authoring cases was relevant to developing any of these attributes.

9. During your practicum experience, were you aware of any tendency for teachers to make use of narrative in discussing their classroom practice with you or their colleagues (eg, in the staff room). If so, did it happen often and, if it did, was it a widespread practice or restricted to a small group of teachers?

10. Have the study of cases and the writing of your case story suggested to you any areas of teaching practice that you would like to explore further, perhaps through some action research project at a future time?
APPENDIX B

SAMPLE TRANSCRIPTS OF INTERVIEWS

The following are sample transcripts of interviews conducted with student teachers in the Master of Teaching (M. Teach) program at the University of Sydney in 1996 as part of a research study on the use of case methods and the construction of professional practical Knowledge (PPK). Six student teachers participated in the study, which included three semi-structured interviews (see Appendix A).

The samples included here are the transcripts of all interviews conducted with three of the six participants. These three student teachers, who are known by the pseudonyms of Bronwyn, Kevin and Rebekah, were chosen because they differed considerably in personality and background as well as in their practicum experiences. Bronwyn was finding that her transition from artist to art teacher in a secondary school was somewhat traumatic. Kevin, on the other hand, appeared to find the practicum experience rewarding and was steadily developing confidence.

Rebekah was a special case in that she suspended her candidacy part way through the study as the result of an unfortunate practicum experience which caused her to admit that she had been "hopelessly idealistic" (IIa/R, 206) in her expectations. Because of her early withdrawal, Rebekah completed only one interview (I) in common with the others. Some months later she consented to participate in a second interview (IIa), which included a mixture of questions from interviews one and two as well as reference to her own particular situation.

As mentioned above, the interviews were semi-structured. A set of questions, to be asked of all participants, was initially prepared but these were supplemented, during the interview sessions with individual respondents, with additional questions as the need arose in order to clarify points or to elicit more information. In the transcript, the planned questions are shown in bold type and supplementary questions in plain type.

One question in the final interview (III-8, IIa-11) asked for a written response from the participants. They were given a copy of the list of “Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers” contained in a statement by the NSW Ministerial Advisory Council on Teacher Education and the Quality of Teaching (MACTEQT, 1995) and asked to mark those attributes that they felt would be best promoted by the use of case methods. When this task was completed, the interview continued with some supplementary questions to elicit further information about the reasons for choosing (or not choosing) some of the attributes.

This transcript was taken from audio recordings made at the time of the interviews. On occasions, the sound quality was poor. As a result, there are some words or small groups of words missing at places during the transcript. However, where
such omissions occur they do not seriously interfere with the meaning of the text. Such omissions are indicated by a series of dots (...) in the text.
The interview with each participant begins on a new page. The notation in the top right-hand corner of each page identifies the interview number and participant. Hence I/B refers to Interview 1 with Bronwyn. The lines of each separate participant's interview are numbered consecutively throughout and line numbering recommences with each new interview.
INTERVIEW I
BRONWYN

Interviewer: This is your first practicum in the M. Teach. course but have you had any previous teaching experience of any kind?

Bronwyn: Not at all, not in school context apart from, um, accompanying a group of students who were doing an exhibition for ....sorry

Interviewer: That's o.k..... Where did you accompany them to?

Bronwyn: An excursion to Luna Park and then they went on a camp and I was at the camp for two days and, um, I was there to help out with technical things in sculpture. Mainly I was just there to sort of answer questions and provide films and things. I wasn't actually teaching lessons. I was just solving problems.

Interviewer: And haven't you been doing some teaching to adult learners in art too.?

Bronwyn: Yes, at the College of Fine Arts which is a similar sort of situation in a way because, um, the people working on their work, they sort of determine themselves what they are doing and I just circulate around the room and talk to them and suggest things and help them with technical problems.

Interviewer: **In what ways has that experience prepared you for this practicum?**

Bronwyn: Yes, I guess I'm very aware of wanting to respond to the kids individual needs and, um, I'm sort of quite aware that, hopefully the kids will steer the lesson in the direction they want to go but I also realise now that a lot of planning goes into, ah, the topics and things that you introduce to even get the ball rolling.

Interviewer: **What do you expect to find most rewarding about practicum?**

Bronwyn: ...getting some experience teaching would be the most rewarding aspect and also getting to know whether the job is for me or not because you can never learn that from theory, um, an also...relate well to the kids...that might be rewarding as well..

Interviewer: **What do you expect to find most challenging about practicum?**

Bronwyn: ...expect to find discipline a problem because I find it hard to discipline or organise myself so, let alone do it for others. That was my biggest worry but, this being a private school where discipline is generated right through from primary school, that was less of a problem than just basic lesson planning.

Interviewer: **In what ways, if any, have these expectations been influenced by the use of case studies in the M. Teach program?**

Bronwyn: Just looking at case studies was valuable. I don't know if the particular case that I picked would be that suitable for this school because I chose, um, aboriginality and, um, the case study "Norma" and, um, it's not that relevant here because it's quite a privileged school, a private school and a lot of resources and a high level of literacy and quite a high level of gifted students and giftedness is
really emphasised in the curriculum and stuff. I feel that, in terms of discipline, um, I am being let in the shallow end of the pool rather than being chucked in the deep end this time but it's got different challenges in terms of presenting stuff that's really interesting and challenging for them in Year 7....

Interviewer: How would you summarise the qualities of an effective teacher?
Bronwyn: Ah, flexibility, being organised as well, knowing your subject, being able to ask good questions that lead the kids in the right direction, you know, if you get them to think by themselves, sort of, in a socratic way...

Interviewer: What are the main goals that you wish to achieve by the end of this first practicum?
Bronwyn: My main goal is just surviving without cracking up, um, not being too nervous, try not to get too stressed out, but also finding the relevant and interesting subject matter to present to the kids.......

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INTERVIEW II
BRONWYN

Interviewer: You are now about halfway through your first practicum. Reflecting on your experiences so far, to what extent do you feel you were prepared for the practicum?

Bronwyn: I was well prepared in terms of hypothetical things that could go wrong for the different sorts of schools I might encounter, but I feel that I was a bit under prepared in terms of lesson planning We had some lessons set aside in Study Two for lesson planning but I came out of those lessons without fully understanding just what it is you are supposed to put into lesson planning. I'm still learning, I guess, because the approaches to Art lessons can be very different and varied and you can use lots of different media so, I'm still working it out.

Interviewer: Can you think of ways in which you might have been better prepared?

Bronwyn: Yes. More emphasis on explaining the fine differences between aims and objectives because I wasn't really certain as to what the difference between those two things is so that's kind of made it awkward for me in terms of my lesson plans because I seemed to, and also did not, actually know what I was talking about.

Interviewer: From your observations of your class teacher and other experienced teachers, to what extent do they seem to rely on practical knowledge gained from their own past experiences?

Can you think of any examples?

Bronwyn: Yes, K., my supervising teacher - was previously at Cranbrook Boys and, um, so she carries through from her experience that iron discipline that she's found to work well in a boys school. She just doesn't let anything actually arise. She, sort of, makes it clear from the start that she'll just go and switch the light on in the dark room and destroy everyone's work if they don't co-operate and stuff, so, um, they don't mess around with her at all and, um, but I just find that a little bit over the top for a school where the girls are mostly compliant anyway. She seems to often warn me to do things in a really kind of wary way that's maybe more applicable to a boys' school but not so much here.

Interviewer: Do you find that teachers here tend to relate back to things that have happened in the past...?

Bronwyn: Yes, my supervisor from uni asks a lot and she doesn't just criticise me at face value. She also talks a lot about situations and how I would fare in a different class, in a different school with a different sort of social class, um, which I think is a little bit unfair because I think that it's important to adapt to the situation you are in and if I find that there isn't a discipline problem and I pitch the lesson accordingly then that should mean that I've succeeded...

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Interviewer: From what you have seen and experiences so far, what do you consider to be the main problems encountered by teachers during the course of their working day?

Bronwyn: Maintaining energy to, sort of, treat each lesson as a new experience because, after a while, teachers can tend to get a bit slack in lesson planning. I've just discovered that to be really important, um, in terms of sort of collecting your thoughts and focusing when you actually go into the classroom. It's hard for somebody who's been doing it for years and years to just still maintain the focus and not just sort of......

Interviewer: To what extent did the case studies used at the University prepare you for the complexities of classroom teaching and interaction with students?

Bronwyn: Um, the case studies, um, in my case I picked Norma, which was the aboriginal student who had a falling out with her casual teacher - but the case didn't really relate to my situation here because I was to do with somebody with literacy problems in an underprivileged school, whereas here there are no such problems but... the experience of the casual teacher there was quite similar to mine...I came in here fairly under-books. It was probably through my own fault for not reading the Handbook but just, um, in terms of a lot of the administration and stuff in the school itself just totally mystified me and, um, I just felt that I was a little bit underbriefed there.

Interviewer: Have you begun to think of any incidents during practicum which might form the basis for a case study of your own?

Bronwyn: Yes, I have now and I'm doing a class, um, I'm teaching a unit called metamorphosis and I thought I might draw parallels between the idea of metamorphosis in art and my starting out as a teacher and the metamorphosis that I'm going through from an artist to an art teacher because they are very much different beings and different disciplines and different sort of ways of communicating, um, that might be the basis for my case study. I would use that class as a kind of model.

Interviewer: What have you found most rewarding about your time in a school?

Bronwyn: The most rewarding things, as I expected, were the relationships with children because I had a few of them respond really positively to me and ask me questions about ... a prac teacher and whether I'll actually continue teaching and they've said encouraging things to me. I don't know whether that's a flash in the pan because I'm new, a new face, but I found that really good.

Interviewer: What have you found most challenging?

Bronwyn: The most challenging has been learning to write lesson plans and, actually, learn skills and, actually, ascertaining whether what I am teaching is actually coming across to the students.
Interviewer: **Based on your practicum experience what do you believe to be the most important qualities of a good teacher?**

Bronwyn: The most important quality is to be able to think, what do you call it? - "think on your toes", yeh, on your feet and, um, maintain your focus, maintain the interest in the subject, um, paying attention to details such as, um, how people are seated round the room and not just go in with a paralysed brain, but notice it and correct it and not get obsessed by content of what you want to be teaching but, also, the environment.  

Interviewer: **Apart from the preparation and delivery of lessons, Which of your activities (both inside and outside the classroom) would you rate as most important in helping you adjust to your work as a teacher?**

Bronwyn: Staff room interaction with fellow prac teachers I found to be very encouraging and rewarding. The library staff - I found them very supportive in terms of finding resources for lessons, and also they were very efficient at videoing things from television that were useful as resources in lessons and, um, library staff and, um, other teachers...Oh, yeh, the Art staff relationships as well....one of the staff...almost like a subversive element...

Interviewer: **What are the main goals that you would like to achieve between now and the end of practicum?**

Bronwyn: I would like to actually impress my university supervisor by giving a few lessons where I actually take notice of the things that she has critcised me for and, yeh, I'd like to actually leave the prac on better terms with my uni supervisor.
INTERVIEW III
BRONWYN

Interviewer: You have just finished writing a case study based on your practicum experience. Could you give a brief summary of the issues raised in your story?

Bronwyn: General issues were to do with motivation. I had a student who, though she professed to enjoying my classes, later on in a series of lessons started to play up and muck up and behave badly and, um, she sort of, I kept her in for a lunchtime detention and then she confided in me that she didn't really see the purpose of art and she wanted to be a lawyer anyway. She was in Year 7 and, um, so I had to sort of have a bit of a motivational talk with her.

Interviewer: Did you find this a difficult exercise?

Bronwyn: Not too bad. I like the format that it was in - the fact that we didn't have to keep it in the bounds of an essay made it easier for me. It might have made it harder for some of the students but, um, and it helped to clarify some of the things I had been thinking about after prac anyway.

Interviewer: How much were you helped in this exercise by the cases, prepared by practising teachers, which you used in Phase Two of the course?

Bronwyn: Um, ar... I guess they were a loose guideline but I tried to make mine...kind of not as concrete as some of the other case studies. It jumps around in time a lot.

Interviewer: How much personal involvement did you have in the story that you presented?

Bronwyn: Lots. I talked about a lot of feelings I was having and the changes I was undergoing, sort of with the outside incidents, well, about fifty-fifty. The student who was having the crisis about whether she thought art was relevant sparked that off...

Interviewer: So it caused you to question a lot of things.

Interviewer: Did you find that the act of writing the story, so that it could be shared with others, caused you to reassess your own perceptions of the incidents that you were reporting? If so, in what way?

Bronwyn: Yeh, they definitely did - it made me realise that in some ways I was very introspective the whole time and, in some ways a lot of the things that I was telling the girl were a bit hard for her to comprehend because it was coming a lot from my own, sort of, inner world, so, in that way I think it helped me to sort of realise that I've got to, as a teacher, communicate more at a concrete level rather than, especially with a year seven kid, rather than try and be too sophisticated.

Interviewer: To what extent, if any, did you discuss the case with your cooperating teacher during practicum? If you did, was this a help?

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Bronwyn: Not so much with, er, oh, right, yeh, I did, er, yeh, I had a lot of input from my cooperating teacher. She was the one that helped me decide that she actually needed a detention. It wasn't that apparent to me as a beginner. It didn't seem that obvious that... and also, of course, I hadn't actually seen what she did. She threw a plastic insect across the room and that was behind my back so I didn't even know that it was happening.

Interviewer: As far as the case story, the writing of the story, did you actually talk to the teacher about the fact that you were writing this into a story?

Bronwyn: No, she never... after I left that place I haven't communicated to her since then.

Interviewer: But she was a help to you in clarifying your ideas about particular incidents?

Bronwyn: Yes, in retrospect.

Interviewer: **How important to you was feed-back from peers, during the writing of the story, and in what ways?**

Bronwyn: I sort of pretty much had made up my mind how it was going to go, so the feedback just kind of reconfirmed that for me and it was encouraging because I wanted to use a metaphor and I mentioned that in class and they encouraged it, so that was important, I guess.

Interviewer: **Study the list of “Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers” provided. Do you consider that your work in studying and/or authoring cases was relevant to developing any of these attributes.**

*Clarifying questions after completion of survey*

Interviewer: In The Ethics of Teaching, I notice you've marked all except one of those. The one you didn't check was "understand the responsibilities and obligations of belonging to the profession of teaching". Now I think you said, when you were doing this exercise that you did get help with that from Study Two rather than from the Study One...

Bronwyn: Yes

Interviewer: ...case studies. In the area of The Content of Teaching, I notice you've marked the section that deals with "developing skills and adapting teaching to suit individual learning needs and that includes people such as girls, gifted and talented students, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders and so on. Would this be the cases that we studied in Phase Two that you were thinking of that would help in that area?

Bronwyn: Do you mean the previous prac teachers case studies?

Interviewer: ...the teachers studies. Some of those were about individual students

Bronwyn: Yeh, um, I've just ticked the ones that I remember most particularly...
Interviewer: In writing your own study, it was a factor there too. Was it because you were dealing with a particular individual with particular needs?

Bronwyn: Yes, I was doing that Aboriginal case study so, yeh, I definitely had to tick that one.

Interviewer: Now, I notice you’ve marked here "able to incorporate the teaching of literacy and numeracy skills regardless of subject of age group being taught." In what ways was that affected by case study?

Bronwyn: Ah, well, literacy was very important in the aboriginal context.

Interviewer: ...and you studied the case of Norma, didn't you?

Bronwyn: ...that was the study that I did, yeh, so, er, that was an important issue that I was looking into for that and that often begins at primary level where they are actually learning to read.

Interviewer: You also checked the one about "learning information resources" and about "developing competencies in recognising and valuing the experiences students bring from their lives outside the classroom... Once again, I suppose that would relate to your practicum experience as well as the cases that you studied?

Bronwyn: Yes.

Interviewer: In "The Practice of Teaching" you've checked every section there which is interesting, so...you've mentioned the one there about using English to communicate clearly and effectively...

Bronwyn: All the case studies have quite a strong slant towards NESB students...

Interviewer: ...and also to communication...

Bronwyn: yes, so...

Interviewer: The study that you wrote for your Phase Two exercise, "Norma", it was not only a study of an aboriginal but also on communication, too....

Bronwyn: ....mm...

Interviewer: "use of language" to communicate, "recognition and acceptance of variants of English"...

Bronwyn: Yeh, that was also very important in that case....the learning environment was very important in my case study. I did a couple of paragraphs on that....

Interviewer: In section (f) "able to improve learning outcomes for students", you particularly noted the one "collaborative and cooperative learning". Did that come across to you through the case studies that we looked at or...

Bronwyn: Well, Study One in general started off with introducing cooperative learning...

Interviewer: Phase One, yes and there were some triggers in there that were similar to the case studies...

Bronwyn: Yeh, and also when we did our case studies we collaborated on those so it's been going on all the way through...
Interviewer: So, it was in the way that you dealt with the case studies as well as the material in the case studies themselves...

Bronwyn: Mmm

Interviewer: In section (g) in this section...you've marked "modifying and engaging students", effective structuring of learning tasks" and "increasing learners own sense of responsibility". Some of these other things that you haven't marked - you feel at this stage they're not closely affected by the case studies?

Bronwyn: I think I was more thinking directly of my own prac story, in answering that question, and it was to do with motivation.

Interviewer: "can undertake classroom roles additional to that of teacher as transmitter of information such as facilitator, director, conferencer, organisier, writer and resource person". In what ways do you think case studies are relevant to that particular attribute?

Bronwyn: Ah, some of the case studies required communication across the staff or, specially cases like when a student would need extra, um, literacy tuition or outside class time.....

Interviewer: "reflect critically on their teaching practice...". I guess that's what the aim of the whole exercise was in the case study...to encourage reflection. Do you feel it was successful there?

Bronwyn: Yes, it helped to make my reflection a bit more sort of concrete and not so, what shall I say? In some ways it made me get a better perspective on things rather than just being overwhelmed by the emotions.

Interviewer: "believe in and be able to justify the value of what we teach"?

Bronwyn: That impinged directly on my case story because the girl was questioning the value of the topic and so I was right up against that and at the time I didn't know, really. I just sort of said some fairly, sort of, ironic things or slightly sarcastic things.

Interviewer: "base programs on observation and assessment of individual students' competencies and progress". Is that some thing, again, related to what you were doing in your own case study or does it relate to, sort of, the others that you studied?

Bronwyn: Um, the earlier ones, I think.

Interviewer: Section 4, "Interactions with Families and the Community", you've just marked one of these which was "recognise the home as the foundation of learning and its continuing significance in students' development".

Bronwyn: Both the normal case study and the case story illustrated that, um, the girl coming from an aboriginal background, her experiences coloured by that, and the same with the girl who wanted to be a lawyer and thought she was too smart to do art, just coming from a sort of arrogance...

Interviewer: The other two parts of this section that you didn't check: "consult appropriately with other professionals and families concerning the
academic, social, emotional and physical needs of their students" and, also, "recognising their part in the collective responsibility..."

I don't really feel that case studies...

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Interviewer: You don't feel that case studies had much to say about those?

Bronwyn: Well, I don't think I was able to, um, start working as a teacher in that regard as a...you know communicating directly with parents and things. No, I felt that I was just scraping the surface really and, um...

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Interviewer: Did the cases studies that you studied, by other teachers, give any background to that sort of area, though, even though you may not feel you were able to do it yourself?

Bronwyn: Yeh, well, I think that comes under section (a) though, the home environment definitely colours the student's experience but I don't really feel the case studies gave me any sort of foundation in actually communicating with parents or, um, communicating with the wider community.

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Interviewer: In the final section, "Professionalism and Professional Development" you ticked ...four out of the five..."appreciate the collegial nature of teachers' work...". Would that be from, once again, from the processes that we used here in dealing with the cases or from what you read in the cases of what other teachers do?

Bronwyn: It's personal experience because one of them was actually based on the prac experience. I was able to communicate with other members of an Art Staffroom but it also came through in the case studies in a more indirect way.

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Interviewer: "understanding the roles of specialist teachers in schools...".

Which cases can you think of there.

Bronwyn: Well, the Norma case study. I think it was Norma or was it the other aboriginal one where there's a special teacher...

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Interviewer: It was an aide, I think in this case, who happened to be away on the day that it all happened. Was that the one?

Bronwyn: Yeh, and he was later able to sort of mediate between the casual teacher and the student...

Interviewer: Any of the other cases that you can remember, that involved specialists?

Bronwyn: Um...

Interviewer: "have a developing knowledge of the framework of law, regulations and policies..."

Bronwyn: Um, the case studies touched on that, ah...

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Interviewer: Was this because part of the process we used involved looking for relevant policy documents?

Bronwyn: ...um...I'm turning into a blank now...

Interviewer: We used that generic model, where part of your response to each case study was looking into policy documents...

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Bronwyn: Yes, looking into policies was part of the case studies...
Interviewer: "have knowledge of current education, social and environmental issues that affect teachers' work". So now much did the cases that you studied bring out this aspect?

Bronwyn: Um, because of the diversity of the cases and the fact that they covered quite a range of different problems, yeh, had a strong learning...it was definitely the Australian teaching scene and Australian environment so, um, and they were quite likely stories..."

Interviewer: During your practicum experience, were you aware of any tendency for teachers to make use of narrative in discussing their classroom practice with you or their colleagues (eg, in the staff room). If so, did it happen often and, if it did, was it a widespread practice or restricted to a small group of teachers?

Bronwyn: Yes, would use a bit of anecdotal, kind of, illustration...

Interviewer: What was the context - was it when they were feeling hassled by something that had happened, or pleased with something that had gone on in their room.....?

Bronwyn: Maybe I think when she was trying to correct me and make me realise that I am probably too vulnerable... she would tell me some story about what had happened to her..

Interviewer: What about other people in the staff room? Overhearing conversations, say, between colleagues? Did they tend to use that particular mode of discourse, where they talked about what had been happening in their rooms or talked about individual students?) I felt that it was heading in that direction but, as a newcomer, I wasn't really confided in that much.

Interviewer: Did you feel it happened often?

Bronwyn: I'm sure it's a big part of life in the staff room, telling stories about kids.

Interviewer: Would you say it was widespread practice among teachers or restricted to a small group of teachers?

Bronwyn: I'd say that it'd be fairly intense in the individual subject area staff rooms and then, if a student was presenting as a problem across the board, then I reckon there would be inter-subject area talk. They'd try and work it out between themselves what was the matter with this kid.

Interviewer: Have the study of cases and the writing of your case story suggested to you any areas of teaching practice that you would like to explore further, perhaps through some action research project at a future time?

Bronwyn: I think I would probably find it valuable learning how to communicate with kids at different stages of development a bit more. I think we had an introduction to that, a few lectures on it and stuff, but I don't think I've really understood it properly yet. Like, if you have all that theoretical language but I think it's an interactional thing and I have to actually interact with a lot of young
kids before I understand how to pitch things to them. I don't know if that can be done in a course like this.

Interviewer: Is it something you could look at, off your own bat, through observation in classrooms?

Bronwyn: Yes definitely.
INTERVIEW I
KEVIN

Interviewer: This is your first practicum in the M. Teach. course but have you had any previous teaching experience of any kind?
Kevin: I've had tutoring experience. I've tutored biology.
Interviewer: One to one?
Kevin: Yes, one to one, that's it. I've also taught, when I was a high school student I tutored other students, say groups of students, various parts of the course, say in Maths and Biology, those sorts of things, you know - up to 5 students at a time - but they weren't really students, they were just fellow classmates I was working on things with, explaining.

Interviewer: In what ways has that experience prepared you for this practicum?
Kevin: Um, oh well, some degree of familiarity so it's not entirely.....I have some idea of what to expect and also I've worked in holidays. I worked at a vacation care centre looking after primary school age kids so, I have some sort of familiarity with the environment that children create.

Interviewer: What do you expect to find most rewarding about practicum?
Kevin: Rewarding? No idea. I'll just take it as it comes. I don't know what will be regarding at all because I've never taught in a school environment before so. I try not to go into any situation with expectations.

Interviewer: What do you expect to find most challenging about practicum? Or does the same apply?
Kevin: Yes, pretty much. I don't know yet.
Interviewer: In what ways, if any, have these expectations been influenced by the use of case studies in the M. Teach program?
Kevin: My expectations aren't too high or low but they haven't been really changed to any extent. I've found out some more detail about the way, say, the bureaucratic aspect of school life operates. I found out detail about educational theory but beyond that, they haven't really changed my thinking to too great an extent, or challenged.

Interviewer: How would you summarise the qualities of an effective teacher?
The qualities of an effective teacher? Well, an effective teacher is someone who is able to teach and make sure that their students have actually learnt something, if they're going to be effective, whether that makes them a good teacher I don't know. I think a good teacher, from the constructivist viewpoint, is someone who facilitates learning and helps students learn on their own terms, not just the teacher's. I think that can be incredibly effective, not just in the short term.....

Interviewer: What are the main goals that you wish to achieve by the end of this first practicum?
Kevin: To be a good, or to be on the road towards being a good teacher.
INTERVIEW II
KEVIN

Interviewer: Reflecting on your experiences in your first practicum, to what extent do you feel you were prepared for the practicum?

Kevin: Well, I seemed prepared enough. I mean, I had to spend more time writing lesson notes during prac....apart from that I had knowledge...what I wanted to teach...

Interviewer: Can you think of ways in which you might have been better prepared?

Kevin: Perhaps a little more classroom on management because those things on classroom management which I did utilise were usually, sort of, intuitive, or I was given tips throughout the practicum which I then tried out and used. That would have been good and also, also maybe a little bit more in the way of forms of lesson notes, even though I know there isn't a recipe...but having a variety of lesson notes and ways of implementing them...and also ways in which to implement a unit of work......

Interviewer: From your observations of your class teacher and other experienced teachers, to what extent do they seem to rely on practical knowledge gained from their own past experiences? Can you think of any examples?

Kevin: Well, to a great extent, but it depends what you mean by practical experiences...anyone can have personal practical experiences...all the teachers - they didn't really rely on notes to any extent. It was all in the head. So I guess they were relying on practical experience to that extent. One example: the cooperating teacher, when she was teaching art, did a great deal on art appreciation.....which shows her knowledge and love of fine arts. So I guess that she was using her experience to an extent when it came to art lessons.

Interviewer: I think I was sort of meaning in the area of method, of ways of doing things in the classroom, ways of approaching things...Did you hear of teachers referring back to past experience as a justification for the way they do things now?

Kevin: No, each of the teachers didn't so much rely upon the authority of precedence. Rather they seemed to weigh up each situation, you know, according to its merits...if they were relying on precedence then it was implicit in something which they were talking about.

Interviewer: From what you have seen and experiences so far, what do you consider to be the main problems encountered by teachers during the course of their working day?

Kevin: Disruptions from all sources. Say, in the school day they would have a band playing so they would take students out of class so students could have music lessons or other disruptions...during the school day ....hard because there was so much you are expected to teach your students in a short time. That'd be one of the things for
Interviewer: **To what extent did the case studies used at the University prepare you for the complexities of classroom teaching and interaction with students?**

Kevin: They were good. I don't really remember drawing on case studies to any great extent when faced with a problem at school, partially because I wasn't really faced with any problems. kids were extremely well behaved. everything went smoothly, so I didn't think about the case studies too much, because all of the case studies dealt with problems but just thinking about case studies, they were good because they dealt with problems which had much broader applications and they dealt in a very practical way, in a particular way, which helped you think about these issues.

Interviewer: **Do you feel they got you into a mode of thinking that helped you to reflect on what was going on in your own teaching?**

Kevin: I wouldn't say they got me in a mode of thinking. I don't think the experience I went through with case studies was sufficient to instill that...

Interviewer: **Have you begun to think of any incidents during practicum which might form the basis for a case study of your own?**

Kevin: I'm looking at the broad area of classroom work practices throughout the day rather than an individual student. individual students provide examples to focus on but, when it came to students, none of the students were so extreme that they might need my attention in an individual case study.

Interviewer: So your story will involve students but they won't be the focus of your attention?

Kevin: What I am more interested in and what I found one of the greatest problems I had was being a classroom teacher. not like being a tutor (which is) easier because you can spend up to two hours... in a classroom it's very different so that's what I'm going to look at in my cases study.

Interviewer: **What have you found most rewarding about your time in a school?**

Kevin: I'd say my interactions with people there, that was good, especially the students - and teachers, to a lesser extent - but also, having been in a school... immediate benefit... you could see how it made sense... you could see how teachers... and all the time I'm thinking how to put ideas... into words... that make sense... activities that made sense... that's good...

Interviewer: **What have you found most challenging?**

Kevin: Most challenging? One would be consistently making activities, general activities, that would keep the class interested... that was one... at first it was easy because there were lots of activities to
use....but by third week and fourth week you find yourself repeating some activities...in different guises.......and also, in the classroom, some lessons were good but other lessons, because of the nature of ... were a bit more difficult...

Interviewer: Based on your practicum experience what do you believe to be the most important qualities of a good teacher?

Kevin: I'd say a professional attitude towards their job, a fair amount of intellectual integrity about what they are going to teach and how they're going to teach it, creativity in teaching and also being a good ...

Interviewer: Apart from the preparation and delivery of lessons, Which of your activities (both inside and outside the classroom) would you rate as most important in helping you adjust to your work as a teacher?

Kevin: Well, that's difficult to answer....but you do have to have some knowledge of ....research.... but also a stable home life so...activities were centred around those two things, activities outside the classroom and, also, reading and research, they're the essential...

Interviewer: They had an influence on the way you taught?

Kevin: Oh, definitely.

Interviewer: What about any things you did, say around the school, say in your interaction with other teachers or students, where there any particular things there that you felt were helpful..........?

Kevin: They were just generally helpful...don't have any difficulties at all.....nice environment to work in.....

Interviewer: What are the main goals that you would like to achieve between now and the end of practicum?

Kevin: What the students learn. My first few lessons were more on how well had I .............but as time went on, that was less of a challenge....sure, do that as well but actually see that the students actually learnt something..........
INTERVIEW III
KEVIN

Interviewer: You have just finished writing a case study based on your practicum experience. Could you give a brief summary of the issues raised in your story?

Kevin: O.K., unlike some of the other case studies, I didn't look at just one student or just one class but, instead, just looked at issues concerning a primary school - classroom sizes, classroom...how was time allocated.

Interviewer: Did you find this a difficult exercise?
Kevin: Not especially, no.

Interviewer: How much were you helped in this exercise by the cases, prepared by practising teachers, which you used in Phase Two of the course?

Kevin: A fair amount, even though most of the cases were different...

Interviewer: They were mostly specific issues?
Kevin: Yeh, it was good to have some...

Interviewer: How much personal involvement did you have in the story that you presented?

Kevin: Very little.

Interviewer: Was your wish to look into that area prompted by things that happened to you personally during practicum?

Kevin: No, not so much things that happened to me personally but just things that I thought about while I was there.......

Interviewer: ....and saw happening around you?
Kevin: Yeh, I wasn't deeply traumatised by anything that happened.

Interviewer: Did you find that the act of writing the story, so that it could be shared with others, caused you to reassess your own perceptions of the incidents that you were reporting? If so, in what way?

Kevin: Well, to a certain extent. The act of writing makes you re-assess and reorganise your thoughts for everything pretty much but apart from that general rule, not really.

Interviewer: To what extent, if any, did you discuss the case with your cooperating teacher during practicum? If you did, was this a help?

Kevin: Not at all.

Interviewer: You actually decided on the actual topic after practicum?
Kevin: After.

Interviewer: How important to you was feedback from peers, during the writing of the story, and in what ways?

Kevin: Important? Yes. It helped to ensure that you were on the right track, as it were, that what you were writing about wasn't entirely unimportant, especially......other cases we'd had previously....dealing with visual incidents....I suppose I was deviating somewhat. It was good to have...from which to take....
Interviewer: Study the list of "Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers" provided. Do you consider that your work in studying and/or authoring cases was relevant to developing any of these attributes.

Clarifying questions after completion of survey

Interviewer: Now in the list of "Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers" that I gave you a few minutes ago and that you've marked, could you just let me have a look at that now and we'll just have a look through the sections and perhaps I can just ask you some questions about some of the responses you made. In the first section - this is the Ethics of Teaching you've marked every section as being a case where you felt that case studies are relevant except (b) which says "recognise and appreciate the values held by individual students, by families, by groups of students and by the school's community, including how those values vary and how they relate to teachers' values..." and so on. Now, you really don't think there was any relevance there at all between the case studies we looked at...

Kevin: .. .there was some relevance, just...not the same as (a), (c), (d), (e)...

Interviewer: In the second section, the Content of Teaching, you noted three different areas "...understanding of how students develop and how they learn", "...developing skills in adapting their teaching to suit individual learning," and "awareness and capacity to use new information technologies..." The first one you mentioned there - an understanding of how students develop and how they learn - how was that, how did you feel the case studies helped with that one?

Kevin: Well, what I did was I looked at how a student was learning and how students failed to learn and strategies for the teacher to use to make sure that the student learned effectively.

Interviewer: Can you think of any particular case that we looked at...?

Kevin: Well it was a while ago. I can't think...I don't know the name...there was one a boy may have gone down to a..IM class...I thought of that one straight away.

Interviewer: In the third section, the Practice of Teaching, you've marked three particular ones here..."developing competencies in the recognition, appreciation and acceptance of variants of English?". How do you think case studies had an impact on that particular....

Kevin: Oh, some of the ones I dealt with....there was Norma, the aboriginal girl, and also ones looking at TESOL...Vladimir...

Interviewer: The other two you picked there were (d) and (f) "incorporate the stated principle of anti-bias..." and "improve learning outcomes of students by implementing an increasingly wide range of teaching approaches...". You didn't feel that (e) was of importance there with case studies? "establish and maintain a learning environment..."?

Kevin: None of them comes to mind...of course, I mean, everything was
touched upon in some way or another.

Interviewer: ...I'm interested in that (I) there, "show developing competencies in program planning and maintenance of adequate records". How did the case studies relate to that one?

Kevin: Well, in terms of program planning, if you're going to... introduce a new style of learning different types of work you have to look at a good program....it didn't touch on the specific mechanics of programming but it did, in a way relate to the idea of programming. More precisely the one part of that (I) was the adequate records, say, in terms of student behaviour where it applies to their classroom behaviour.

Interviewer: So, were you prompted to think of that by some of the case studies? Do you think that they implied that perhaps there weren't adequate records kept?

Kevin: That was...we discussed that issue - the keeping of notes...

Interviewer: ...and that was important to understanding the case...

"Interaction with Families and Community" - you've marked two out of the three there. In the last one - "Professionalism and Professional Development" - you've marked three, not the first two. You felt there was no relevance then, say, to participating in professional development activities or the collegial nature of teachers' work. That didn't come out of the cases?

Kevin: I wouldn't say so.

Interviewer: During your practicum experience, were you aware of any tendency for teachers to make use of narrative in discussing their classroom practice with you or their colleagues (eg, in the staff room). If so, did it happen often and, if it did, was it a widespread practice or restricted to a small group of teachers? Well, depending how you define narrative, of course...

Kevin: ...relating stories about...

Interviewer: .....almost exclusively....

Kevin: ...a lot of it...

Interviewer: ...yes...

Kevin: So it happened often, amongst a lot of people?

Interviewer: Extremely frequent. Any questions I asked the teacher, the answers usually took place.....

Interviewer: ...within the context of something that had happened?

Kevin: .....yes...

Interviewer: ...and so it's very important to teachers to relate what's happening to what's happened in the past.......the second part of the question is virtually answered then....as to whether it happened often and whether it was a widespread practice or just a small group of teachers. Do you think most teachers fall back on...

Kevin: ...generally speaking....

Interviewer: Perhaps the thing to look at, then, is in what ways they used it. I
mean, it's one thing to be able to answer every question with a little anecdote of something that happened the way before and why you think the way you do but do you think teachers go further than that and actually use their past experiences to creatively reflect on what their approach is going to be or do they just adopt the attitude that this happened, you know, four years ago - this incident occurred so I would never try anything different?

Kevin: I wouldn't say that. They did use anecdotes to explain their actions...towards some things...I don't know how they actually went about using the experiences...

Interviewer: I think what I am trying to say is how self critical do you think teachers tend to be about their own narratives and...

Kevin: I don't know if there's a huge lot of self-criticism...

Interviewer: Have the study of cases and the writing of your case story suggested to you any areas of teaching practice that you would like to explore further, perhaps through some action research project at a future time?

Kevin: Um...school-teacher relations, community-school relations....

Interviewer: ...that was something that just sort of jumped out at you?

Kevin: ....out of the case studies...

Interviewer: ...out of the case studies?

Kevin: ...yes...and also relationships between students and teachers....just how well the teacher can communicate with a student, not just in terms of conveying factual information...but also in terms of how they've understood what students are saying to them, and students have understood what has been said...
INTERVIEW 1

REBEKAH

Interviewer: This is your first practicum in the M. Teach. course but have you had any previous teaching experience of any kind?

Rebekah: I've been involved in something called Beach Mission and that involves teaching teenagers and running programs for them in the holiday break. I taught them as regards to Christianity ....I've also been involved with an ISCF group at Glebe High last year. That involved small group discussions so I guess you could classify that as micro-teaching in a sense. Only other experience with peers - leading discussions, etc...

Interviewer: In what ways has that experience prepared you for this practicum?

Rebekah: Dealing with young teens at Beach Mission - 12 to 18 year - helped me to see where they are coming from and to ...relate to them ..I'd say, more than anything, leading Bible studies and things like that have really helped me because it is based on a collaborative learning model because it's a group based discussion......has given me a lot of confidence.....

Interviewer: What do you expect to find most rewarding about practicum?

Rebekah: ...having students spark me off with ideas in ways of approaching things because I feel a little that I am fairly academic in my outlook because I am used to such higher order thinking skills and discussion and evaluation which is far removed from the way it is manifest in a school and so I really need to reduce it down in a sense and reach where they're at......the best way for that to happen is for me to toss something out to them and for them to respond and to show me which way to go, so I think I'm really excited about listening to whatever ideas are motivated and I'm just very keen to tune into the way in which they respond to things because I think it will be quite creative and innovative......

Interviewer: What do you expect to find most challenging about practicum?

Rebekah: Well, I would have to say that one that does loom on my horizon is the idea of classroom management but that's not the only thing. I think I'm quite concerned about how do you help students to get from point A to B so, if you have a particular learning outcome, knowing what things will bring them along that path...and knowing...see, I want to walk away from prac knowing that they've gained something, they haven't just had a breath of fresh air...

Interviewer: In what ways, if any, have these expectations been influenced by the use of case studies in the M. Teach program?

Rebekah: One aspect I find a bit frustrating is I wasn't able to go into more depth on more of the case studies...but from the ones I looked at, I think it's really hit home to me the reality of peer-peer, peer-teacher and teacher-teacher relationships ...the dynamics of them...I think
I'm less naive about the complexities of the interactions and the various agents that work upon those interactions...so, I think that's a really helpful thing and just to understand that the student is the product of a variety of things working simultaneously, so, you know, the teacher-student dynamic, the subject dynamic, the other peer dynamic, the class dynamic, you know, the school dynamic, the socioeconomic dynamic...all those things are coming through to me which I think is really good to learn at this early stage.

Interviewer: **How would you summarise the qualities of an effective teacher?**

Rebekah: ...first of all organised. I think they need to be thoroughly acquainted with the syllabus document. They have to be acquainted with the school policies and how to tailor their syllabus or, you know, the emerging curriculum within those frameworks...but, most importantly, I think, the teacher has to see what the needs of the students are and has to be able to be flexible and insightful and has to have an understanding of the backgrounds and the influences that can either facilitate or hinder the learning experience so I think a teacher would have to have a handle on all those things and I also think, for that reason, that I couldn't hope to be a really efficient teacher until I had been out in the classroom for a few years.

Interviewer: **What are the main goals that you wish to achieve by the end of this first practicum?**

Rebekah: The first one is survival but that's not my top priority......being able to relate in a way that makes the classroom safe and secure and a comfortable environment in which to interact freely. I think if I can help to foster a classroom situation where risks can be taken, a situation that can help facilitate various methods of working whether that be group work, research, individual study, peer group....I think I would like to be clear and be a really good sounding board for students and I would like to be able to stimulate them....and...provide things for them to really take further.
INTERVIEW IIa

REBEKAH

Interviewer: Soon after our last interview, you commenced practicum at a High School but then decided to defer your candidature for a year. Reflecting on your practicum experience, to what extent do you feel you were prepared for the practicum?

Rebekah: One thing I found was, once I got into the classroom I looked down and I saw, for example in a year seven class, I saw thirty kids all sitting there sort of looking at you and waiting for your next move...I don't know. It was quite an experience thinking here are thirty kids I, somehow, had to be able to instruct in some way and have them respond in some way...and I found...I did a lot of reading, I did all the course work I was given, I went and did extra reading and did a lot of thinking on all the aspects of the program, probably more than in my previous degree.......but I got there and I found there are a whole lot of other issues that came up that I hadn't really thought much about and the things that I did know, that I had learnt in the program, I felt like I was only really scratching the surface.....I had lessons on lesson planning and teaching and learning styles and different levels of proficiency that kids are at but I really felt that the complexity of the situation was something that didn't really hit me until I got to the school;

Interviewer: So, are you saying that things don't look the same in real life as they do on paper?

Rebekah: Well, I guess you don't have as much time to reflect and consider when you're at school. You're much more on the spot.....

Interviewer: So, you weren't really prepared for what you found in the real live classroom from all the work you put into it?

Rebekah: Yes, I sort of felt that despite all the work I had put into it somehow just felt I hadn't learnt enough about the teaching and learning..interactions..

Interviewer: Can you think of ways in which you might have been better prepared?

Rebekah: The thing that struck me when I was at the prac school was I was working with other prac students who came from NSW and they came from 4 year Bachelor of Education program and at that time I'd been in the course for less than a year.....that I'd been exposed to teaching and learning and epistemology, theory and methodology and while some parts of the course overlapped with what I had done previously in my Arts degree, I found that it was such a short term exposure ....in some ways I felt they had had more time to sit at ease with the concept......I felt that I was on a bit of an information overload..

Interviewer: They had probably had other practicums, had they, early in their course?
Rebekah: I guess so. I didn't really ask them.

Interviewer: So what sort of things did you feel were missing from your preparation, that might have been available to them?

Rebekah: I think just a long term exposure and more opportunities to think through the ideas at a deeper level although I did work hard to work on the material that I was given. It was all still very new and all a little bit bewildering.

Interviewer: From your observations of your class teacher and other experienced teachers, to what extent do they seem to rely on practical knowledge gained from their own past experiences? Can you think of any examples?

Rebekah: One thing about being a prac student is, when you get to the school, a lot of the teachers whom you do come into contact with often say something about the education of beginning teaching process and a lot of them actually related to me in some form or another that you don't really learn anything at university and you only really put the runs on the board once you are actually in the classroom. I think, to an extent, that is true. Your theory will be refined by classroom experience and practice but they seemed quite cynical about the whole thing...I found that a little bit disheartening but, for them themselves, I wasn't really impressed with any of the classes that I saw. There wasn't a lot of actual teaching that was going on. It was just reading aloud in class or watching a video and when they did have things that interacted with those stimuli, maybe I caught them on bad days but they didn't seem to have prepared much and, even in one of the classes I observed and took notes for, the kids were complaining about the questions they were asked after the video because the teacher basically watched the show and then wrote the questions while she was watching it and then asked the kids at the end so they didn't know what she was going to ask. I did mark a range of the type of questions they were asked and most of them were just factual or recall, fiddly bits of knowledge that wouldn't have really furthered their understanding of Shakespeare, as the case was, so I didn't see a great deal there to encourage me, although, I did see one year 7 class when book reviews were being done and the teacher of that class was able to bring the students out and to get them to think more reflectively on what they had read...I found that she knew the students well, personally, so she knew how to talk to them. She knew what kinds of questions to ask.....made me think it's really important to know the kids as much as you can.

Interviewer: So, coming back to the question about whether teachers rely on practical knowledge, you didn't feel there was anything...?

Rebekah: I didn't feel they relied on much else!

Interviewer: Practical knowledge about what, though, about how children learn or about how you control a class?
Rebekah: It seemed more to be methods of control, like, I got a whole feeling throughout the school that the morale of the teachers and the administration was quite low and that there was this feeling that they were just about to lose the battle of control in the school, like they seemed to be pulling out all stops as I said, like a last ditch effort to retain some kind of control and I found that the teachers were quite cynical and quite pragmatic and quite short-term in their thinking as well... and I was only there and observing for just over a week.

Interviewer: From what you have seen and experiences so far, what do you consider to be the main problems encountered by teachers during the course of their working day?

Rebekah: Diversity of roles that teachers have to play - have to spend time...researching resources...the office politics was quite interesting so there...stresses and...power...cliques within...there were a lot of excursions...there was quite a breakdown in the administration linking up with the teaching staff as well, so there were problems, you know, there were things that should have run more smoothly...teachers seem to be on the go the whole time, like even in the lunch hour if you're not talking over a class you've just had you're out in the playground. I just found that it was go, go, go the whole time...it seems like they have to make a lot of on-the-spot decisions...

Interviewer: To what extent did the case studies used at the University prepare you for the complexities of classroom teaching and interaction with students?

Rebekah: I think, because I did focus, in the main, on one particular case study - although we did spend time reviewing the other case studies - I think it might have been good to do...a series of...minor case studies. These were pretty big and, all of us being trained in our assessment mode of studying tended to focus on the one that we had to do really well, although we did read the others...but I think what we...need to do...perhaps we could have a series of smaller case studies which...touch on the same areas, sort of like a tutorial paper so that we could get a broader exposure and a bit more depth...

Interviewer: What did you find most rewarding about your time in a school? The most rewarding thing I guess I saw was...in one of the classes that I did teach, we were doing a poster and we were exploring the idea of mystery and I put the class in a series of groups and it was a Year 7 class and they weren't used to group work and I found that they worked noisily but they worked well and the teacher was quite surprised at their level of concentration on the task that they were doing and at the end the results were quite interesting and some were quite humorous and perceptive so I felt like I'd helped in some
way, even in just that lesson, the kids to express themselves in a different way... The other thing was, I was just in one of the common rooms where the staff are and one of the kids was in there talking about the debate they were doing with another school that was coming and she asked me a few questions about the courses that she had to choose for year 11 and we just talked on a one-to-one level and I just thought that it was really good that we could just sit down and talk informally and that there was that respect and rapport there. It gave me an opportunity to show that I was interested in the student, so, you know, just small things like that.

Interviewer: **What did you find most challenging?**

Rebekah: I found the biggest thing about prac wasn't the actual kids or the lesson planning or lack of resources - there was a huge lack of resources that made the whole thing a lot more stressful - but the biggest thing I found was actually the teachers. I found....I was coming to the school and there were sort of personal factors in my life that I was trying to deal with and, as well as that, I wasn't physically well - quite drained physically - and so I really needed support and encouragement and I got to the school and I was met with bitterness and cynicism and suspicion...and basically, with the other prac students there, it had settled into a "them and us" scenario and so I found the hardest thing was knowing what to say to the teachers I was with, just working out what the politics were. I found that, basically, I had to keep my head down and mouth shut if I wanted to steer clear of any major problems in the staffroom and I found that the most stressful actually.

Interviewer: **Based on your practicum experience what do you believe to be the most important qualities of a good teacher?**

Rebekah: I think I glimpsed this in one of the teachers I was working with, and that was, despite the difficulty of the situation that teachers are placed in, with, you know, kids that are becoming more and more disillusioned in society and in the school system and teachers being harassed at every point with numerous demands...and lack of resources and a lack of, it appeared to me, professional development, I think not losing that desire to further the interests of your students and desiring to give them a language that they can...or help them develop their language so that they can.....basically be liberated...not prone to forms of oppression and suppression in a society that does tend to work on the aristocracy of merit and all those sort of things........to be pragmatic and to be realistic but not to lose those ideals and not to lose that first love....because I found all of the teachers were just hanging in there...it was just day-to-day survival and that's not the kind of teacher I want to be.

Interviewer: **Apart from the preparation and delivery of lessons, Which of your activities (both inside and outside the classroom) would**
you rate as most important in helping you adjust to your work as a teacher?

Rebekah: Getting involved in as many aspects of school life as possible...for example, talking to the administrative staff and finding out the ins and outs of the photo-copiers, you know, all the riddles of that...like going along to roll call and ....observing aspects of the life as possible, so I went and spoke to other staff members in other sections of the school and spoke at length with the Librarian and had a look around....I was out in the playground, I went to school sport and tried to catch a glimpse of school life there, so I think all those things really helped but I didn't feel...I still feel I haven't made the transition from being a student to being a teacher and I think it'll probably come with more time spent in the classroom and...having responsibility

Interviewer: When you return to the M.Teach program, to what extent will you be influenced by the previous year's experiences?

Rebekah: I think the thing about my deferring...I deferred after the first week and a bit and I think I deferred at a time when I could feel good about what I had done at the time, so I felt like I hadn't failed. I just felt that a combination of circumstances led to it being impractical and almost impossible to stay there and to get something positive out of it and to be successful on prac, so I think this year I don't have some of those mitigating circumstances and I guess I've had more time to consider the reality of school life because I think I was, like most pre-service teachers, hopelessly idealistic and unrealistic, so I think I'll be a whole lot more practical, without being cynical. One thing that has helped, I have been working with youth on a weekly basis, in a teaching capacity and that has helped me to think along the same lines... that teenagers are thinking and so I think ....I will be a whole lot less shocked by what I see....I think I'll be a whole lot more realistic

Interviewer: Study the list of "Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers" provided. Do you consider that your work in studying and/or authoring cases

Clarifying questions after completion of survey

Interviewer: Thank you, Rebekah, for preparing that...Did anything go through your mind while you were checking these attributes, any particular feelings about the value of case study in a teacher education program?

Rebekah: I think the good thing about a case study is that it looks at a situation holistically and is able to touch on a variety of aspects of the teaching and learning endeavour. I think what it does is it puts a due emphasis on the actual situation of the student, or the factors that are playing on them as a student for them not to be getting as much out of the teaching and learning environment as they can but
what I liked about the case studies that we were presented with last year was the fact that it...didn't shirk the need to look at theory but it really tried to weld that and the practice of particular situations and brought those two together in a way which I think should be...picked up....I mean it's used in law, it's used in other forms of education...I think it's the way forward if teachers are to actually not be content with the status quo, just blame a failure, you know, it's just the system and move on but things like case studies really raise your awareness as to particular issues...and...particular kids and so, to my mind that has to be...a valuable thing.

Interviewer: Can you think of any ways that we might improve the delivery of the case study mode at the section of the course - ways that it could be made more relevant?

Rebekah: I don't know. I guess you could introduce the concept of the case study a bit earlier on because a lot of people, especially those from non-humanities backgrounds, find it a bit bewildering to start with...and I think if you continued...maybe if you had a progression of case studies according to the developing awareness of what it is to be a teacher...so, say, if you started off looking at curriculum and then moved on to other aspects and....you sort of tackle things in waves....and maybe it could link in with the subject areas as well so, for example, you've got an outcome there about literacy and the teacher knowing that they may be a bi-lingual model or..at the same time they want to retain the integrity and value of coming from a different language speaking background...maybe those sort of things can be sort of, you know, linked into other aspects of the course because I guess the more you use the case study approach the more areas you'll end up covering and the better you'll be at using that particular apparatus....developing awareness of theory and practice.
APPENDIX C

"DESIRABLE ATTRIBUTES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS" SURVEY

On the following pages is a copy of "Desirable Attributes of Beginning Teachers" (MACQTEC, 1995) together with a preface as presented to the participants in the research project. In addition, this copy has been annotated to show, after each item, the responses, as follows:

The student teachers who checked each item are identified by initials, as follows:
  B - Bronwyn
  K - Kevin
  M - Malcolm
  R - Rebekah
  S - Sandra
  T - Trevor

An asterisk (*) following an initial indicates that the person concerned believed that the link between case methods and that particular attribute was very strong.

Numbers ( ) show total reposes for each item.
“DESIRABLE ATTRIBUTES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS”

Listed below are those attributes which were considered most desirable for beginning teachers by the NSW Ministerial Advisory Council on Teacher Education and the Quality of Teaching (1995).

During Phases Two and Three of the M. Teach program, you have been involved in the study of cases and in case authorship. Please read through the list of Desirable Attributes and consider the extent to which your development of any of these attributes may have been assisted by the use of case study.

Highlight any Attributes for which you feel that, for you, the use of case studies may have been relevant.

Place a tick beside any highlighted Attributes for which you feel your use of cases and, or case authorship was highly relevant.

1. THE ETHICS OF TEACHING
All beginning teachers should be able to demonstrate that they:
   a) act to foster each student’s positive self-esteem, well-being, competence and unique potential;
      B K M R* S*
      (5)
   b) recognise and appreciate the values held by individual students, by families, by groups of students and by the school’s community; including how those values vary and how they relate to teachers’ values and the work of the school;
      B M R* T
      (4)
   c) are alert to the consequences of their own behaviour and encourage students to develop the same awareness;
      B K M S T
      (5)
   d) believe that all their students have the capacity to learn and should be treated justly and equitably;
      B K M R S* T
      (6)
   e) understand the responsibilities and obligations of belonging to the profession of teaching.
      K M S
      (3)

2. THE CONTENT OF TEACHING
All beginning teachers should be able to demonstrate that they:
   a) have an understanding of how students develop and how they learn;
      K M
      (2)
   b) have a strong and developing knowledge and understanding of what they
have to teach and how the subject matter changes over time;
M (1)
c) have an understanding of learning and teaching as preparation of students for lifelong learning and for developing and upgrading skills areas in a range of occupational categories including vocational employment opportunities;
M (1)
d) show developing skills in adapting their teaching to suit the individual learning needs of all their students in the context in which they are teaching, noting the special needs of:
- girls
- gifted and talented students
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students
- students with disabilities, learning difficulties or behaviour disorders
- students from low socio-economic backgrounds
- students from background languages other than English
- students living in isolated areas
- students from a range of cultural backgrounds
- students in crisis;
B K M R S* T (6)
e) are able to incorporate the teaching of literacy and numeracy skills regardless of the subject or age group being taught;
B M R T (4)
f) have developed knowledge about the purpose, nature and uses of a wide variety of assessment strategies;
M R S (3)
g) have developing knowledge and understanding of the nature, sources and applications of learning and information resources;
B (1)
h) are aware of and show developing capacity in the use of new information technologies in educational contexts:
K M R (3)
i) have developing competencies in recognising and valuing the experiences students bring from their lives outside the classroom, such as linguistic and cultural differences.
B M R* S T (5)
3. **THE PRACTICE OF TEACHING**

All beginning teachers should be able to demonstrate that they:

a) use the English language to communicate clearly and effectively, both orally and in writing, in the range of roles and contexts occurring within the classroom and the school community;

B M R

(3)

b) are aware that their own use of language is a model for bilingual and multilingual students which may not be available in other domains in students' lives;

B M R T

(4)

c) are developing competencies in the recognition, appreciation and acceptance of variants of English;

B K M R

(4)

d) incorporate the stated principle of anti-bias approaches in their curriculum development and implementation;

B K M R S

(5)

e) can establish and maintain a learning environment which is:

- interesting and challenging
- safe and supportive
- orderly and purposeful
- positive and enjoyable
- fostering independence, responsibility and creativity
- open to effective resolution of conflict;

B M R S*

(4)

f) are able to improve learning outcomes for all students by implementing an increasingly wide range of teaching approaches and strategies that provide alternatives to transmission teaching and reflect contemporary, mainstream theory and practice. The following are examples of practice and do not constitute a definitive list:

- developmentally appropriate practice
- varying patterns of classroom interaction
- collaborative and cooperative learning
- communicative approaches to language learning
- differentiated curriculum materials
- drama method (enactments, role plays, simulated gaming)
- negotiated learning and peer assessment
- teaching practices that cater for different learning styles
- techniques of integration to bring areas of curriculum together
- activity based methods including play;

B K M R* S*

(5)
are developing increasing competence in the following fundamental instructional elements and processes:

- motivating and engaging students
- effective structuring of learning tasks
- establishing expectations for students that are clear, challenging and achievable
- monitoring and assessing students consistently
- providing genuine feedback to students and families on progress
- increasing learners' own sense of responsibility for learning and monitoring of learning
- evaluating the appropriateness, effectiveness and efficiency of their teaching programs
- using and evaluating appropriate resources;

B M R* (3)

Can undertake classroom roles additional to that of the teacher as transmitter of information such as facilitator, director, conferencer, organiser, writer and resource person;

B M (2)

are working as part of a community team and with appropriate support and guidance, developing the necessary skills to work effectively in the team with their colleagues and communicate clearly with students and their families:

- the broad intentions of unit or segment of learning
- an outline of the content of that unit or segment
- what work is expected of the student and what activities promote learning
- how the progress/development of students is to be assessed and the relationship between assessment and the teaching/learning program
- students' progress
- the relevance of resources;

M R S (3)

reflect critically on their teaching practice and seek feedback;

B K M S* T (5)

believe in and be able to justify the value of what they teach;

B K M S* (4)

show developing competencies in program planning and maintenance of adequate records;

K M (2)

base programs on observation and assessment of individual students'
competencies and progress.

B K M R S

(5)

4. INTERACTION WITH FAMILIES AND THE COMMUNITY
All beginning teachers should be able to demonstrate that they:

a) recognise the home as the foundation of learning and its continuing
   significance in students' development;
   B M R S T
   (5)

b) consult appropriately with other professionals and families concerning the
   academic, social, emotional and physical needs of their students;
   K S
   (2)

c) recognise their part in the collective responsibility for the ongoing
   development of the school and its development with the wider community.
   K M
   (2)

5. PROFESSIONALISM AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
All beginning teachers should be able to demonstrate that they:

a) participate in a range of professional development activities as part of their
   continuing professional development;
   M
   (1)

b) appreciate the collegial nature of teachers' work by being able to work
   effectively as members of a team;
   B M R S
   (4)

c) understand the roles of specialist teachers in the school;
   B K M R S T
   (6)

d) have a developing knowledge of the framework of law, regulations and
   policies that affect teachers' work;
   B K M R* S* T
   (6)

e) have knowledge of current education, social and environmental issues that
   affect teachers' work.
   B K M S
   (4)
APPENDIX D
“NORMA”
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SETTING
A fairly small, co-educational, inner-city, high school whose only unusual characteristic is a relatively large number of Aboriginal students. Because these students number about 1 in 10 in a school population of 500 it boasts a support unit, the purpose of which is to provide information and assistance in all matters affecting the education and welfare of the Aboriginal students in the school community. Attached to this unit are two aides, a male and a female, who are themselves Aborigines. Norma is a particular concern of the man, Geoff, who has established excellent rapport with her and is largely responsible for the success she is beginning to experience in her special program and in classroom integration.

CHARACTERS
Geoff: The male aide attached to the unit who is highly regarded by staff and all students for his sensitive and successful work.

Norma: A fourteen-year-old Aboriginal girl in year 8. Norma is an accepted member of the community, living in a stable family and with no known problems, apart from the learning difficulties described. Norma's reading ability is about the same as an average six year old's. She was a virtual non-reader until Geoff and the STLD (Special Teacher, Learning Difficulties) designed a program to assist her and persuaded her to participate in it. This proved very difficult as she had all the usual resistance of the adolescent who has met with repeated failure in attempts at learning to read. Norma has one session a day with Geoff, working on the reading program designed by the STLD, but she attends classes in the mainstream at other times. Geoff has also negotiated with her classroom teachers so that they are aware of Norma's difficulties and have undertaken to ensure that Norma feels comfortable and unembarrassed in "normal" lessons.

Julia: A recently qualified, young, Anglo-Celtic English teacher who is beginning her teaching career as a "casual". This incident occurs on her first visit to this school. She has been called in at the last minute to replace a teacher who has suddenly been taken ill. The job is to last at least three weeks.

SCENE: Julia was timetabled to take Norma's unstreamed year 8 class for English first period. The lesson began at 9. Julia had arrived at 8.30 and been given her timetable, a program, a pile of texts and an "Introduction to Our School" document by the HOD who then had to leave her to deal with other administrative matters.

Julia, who had been an excellent student teacher, has come armed with multiple copies
of a number of short extracts and a series of activities based upon them which she knows should be suitable for the class in question. This preparation is a precautionary measure as casual teachers usually do not have time to acquaint themselves with programs before they are required to take their first lesson.

The lesson begins well. The class members are amused by the extracts and interested in the activities. Selected students are reading short passages aloud and then participating in a number of brief game activities. Norma is the third student whom Julia asks to read aloud. Norma refuses. Julia, conscious that her authority is at stake with this new group, insists. Norma refuses again and Julia persists. Finally Norma throws the offending sheet on the floor, shouting, "I'm not reading anything for you, you f---white bitch!" and storms out of the room.

Geoff and his colleague, Joan, were absent that morning at a short in-service course but they return at lunch time to find a sobbing Norma and an equally distraught Julia waiting for them. Julia has been advised to consult Geoff by the HOD whom she had not been able to speak to until the lunch hour began.

REFLECTION
1. Outline the immediate problem as you see it.
2. List the other problems/questions which this incident raises.
3. How should the immediate problem be handled, and by whom?
4. Explore the ways in which your list of problems/questions might be addressed in order to eliminate or lessen their harmful effects.

ACTUAL IMMEDIATE SOLUTION
(to be shown to students only after they have addressed the four points above) Geoff provided Norma with coffee and promised to talk to Julia. He then explained Norma's situation to Julia, pointing out the permanent staff had undertaken not to embarrass her. He acknowledged that she had no way of knowing about the particular situation and apologised for this but pointed out that the unit and its function were explained in the information document she had been given. Julia was horrified at her unintended insensitivity.

Geoff then explained to Norma that Julia was new to the school and had not meant to embarrass her. He brought the two together and Julia immediately apologised for what she had done. Norma was happy to accept Julia's apology and would have left it at that. Geoff, however prompted her, reminding her that she should perhaps also offer an apology. Norma's response was, "Oh yeah, .....I'm sorry I called you 'white', Miss."

FURTHER REFLECTION
1. Did your suggested handling of the situation anticipate the form of Norma's
apology?
2. What further questions are raised?

READING
All documents related to relevant issues.
These are several real life examples of how teachers respond to change agents in every day teaching situations.

As we look back at our year of teaching, the school agenda seems to be driven by change agents of crisis, chaos, communication, innovation, time, curriculum and community.

We find it difficult to decide whether our decisions and the school's on how to prioritise all that is important in education were the correct decisions. The AGENDA for education '1996 has just arrived in our school and as we read through these we try to put our school and our classes and the decisions we have made for them in some perspective.

AGENDA '96

* Teaching traditional values
* in safe and happy schools;
* aiming for excellence
* in high-tech classrooms; and
* providing a fair go for all.

1. Education and Technology
As the time for end of year report writing 1995 drew near, teachers at our school are deciding to use desk top publishing on computers rather than hand written reports. This is causing many problems because many of us have a lack of basic computer skills or technical knowledge about formatting and printing documents. Nobody on the staff predicted the frustration and anxiety we are feeling as we face the normal pressures of end of year school commitments. Though the anxiety level is threatening to engulf us, we need to solve these problems now that we have embarked on this steep learning curve. Already the time is too late to return to the handwritten formats. This situation is involving the problems of communicating amongst ourselves to gain help, new knowledge and support, while maintaining a sense of calm across the school as the general excitement of end of year events begins to erupt.

We need to be aware of the community we are involved with, teachers, parents and children and their response to this new form of reporting. The time factor is scaring
us all as we realise the steep learning curve we have embarked on. There is a great deal of crisis management required as those staff with some or a lot of computer knowledge need to spend time and energy to support and help those who are finding it all very difficult. The teachers also need to walk into their classes each morning fresh and ready to inspire young students, try and complete the curriculum learning outcomes they have set for themselves and their students, complete, their own reports within the time limit as well as try to innovate where problems become too difficult to solve. Our students don't seem to understand the enormity of the task we have set ourselves! They just want to celebrate Christmas with streamer making, tree decorating, Christmas concert preparation etc.

The result is that all teachers have gained new technology skills whether in simple computing or trouble shooting the formatting and printing problems.

2 Reflecting over a Year of Teaching
As we begin entering the data on computers about individual curriculum areas for individual children, we find ourselves reflecting on a year of teaching and learning. We begin to discuss amongst ourselves major school decisions we have made for various reasons over a year, decisions we made as a grade and within our own class.

These issues and the writing of the reports led us to reflect on the dm we have given and the content we have covered in each curriculum area. Such questions raised were:

- Have we addressed such issues as multiculturalism, gender, LOTE, aboriginal studies etc?
- Have we incorporated the values and attitudes, skills, knowledge and outcomes for each KLA?
- Do the priorities we accepted for our school disadvantage or advantage some students, all students, some KLA's all KLA'S?
- On what information have we made these choices and can we still justify our decisions?
- Do we believe our students' results in each curriculum area reflect our skill as a teacher or do we view these results as a professional?
- What has influenced our decision making, the "Big Picture" (priorities) of the Education Department, the politics of education, individual curriculum areas or the context of our individual school community?

As we evaluate our teaching programs a kindergarten teacher reminds our grade that the child protection program has not yet been taught this year. It requires 17 lessons to cover the content in Kindergarten. With only a few school weeks left and other areas of school curriculum to be addressed and lots of discussion about what should be given preference in the time we have left, we decide to reduce the number of lessons to 4. We justify it by reasoning that in all KLA's some curriculum requirements
have not been taught. Some have been addressed by integrating across another KLA because of time and school organisational constraints. We agree that many of the literature books have overlapped this area or have been addressed in PDHPE lessons. But we all still wonder if these decisions are fair and reasonable.

The positives from all the communicating we did during report writing as we solved each others technology problems caused us to address a wide range of questions and issues.

3. Change Agent
Our school is in the Pilot Study to familiarise teachers with the Internet and develop skills to use it effectively in the classroom and in the key learning areas. This has caused tremendous anxiety amongst staff, many of whom are still becoming familiar with using computers in the classroom. Added to this problem is the fact that the Internet is often slow or drops out or doesn't seem to want to accept passwords. These are all technological problems that will slowly be sorted out but at present heightens the frustration when people are experiencing steep learning curves and significant changes to their teaching philosophy.

Some of the questions asked by staff at initial meetings were:

- "When do I find time to surf the Internet to gain familiarity and understand how I can use it in a classroom situation?"
- "What is useful to my class on the Internet?"
- "What are the skills I need to use it effectively with my class?"
- "What are the skills I need to teach children so that they can access the Internet and use it for educational purposes?"

Going through my mind at the meeting - how can I teach all that parents ask of me and organise and prepare my class for International Day, for the Musica Viva performance about to take place in the school, for the Space EXPO visiting the school very soon, fit in Choir, Fitness, Scripture, the Sydney Buses coming in to teach Road Safety, appear to be coping when Prac Teaching students walk into die school and ask to see my model program, talk to them about how I document my assessment of my children, remember to coordinate the visiting LOTE teachers so that they are aware of our programs and how their lesson will fit in each week, organise the term excursion and make sure the students all have the input necessary to ensure the excursion is educational and useful to them, collect money for all the performances etc about to take place in the school - and have a positive attitude to yet another priority in education, going on the Internet.

I then recall - the effort it took yesterday to appear calm and organised as I walked into the classroom as the children arrived in the room at the same time as the parent
helpers to help with maths interactive groups. I'd been on the phone at lunch time
desperately trying to contact the excursion sight for this term to ensure all was
organised and properly planned. I had not been able to get out the maths equipment
or the recording paper ready for the lesson.

The joy was that at the end of the lesson after the hectic beginning, the children came
to the circle to share their maths problem solving and each child had worked through
their activity and in their own way recorded their results. They were so pleased and
proud of their achievement and so was I.

TIME IS OUR CONSTANT PROBLEM
Do we believe that, however children use the Internet for games, resourcing,
contacting other people to develop relationships and access information,
entertainment, etc the experience will be beneficial and useful life skills for them?

or

Do we wait until teachers have discovered ways of improving skills of identifying,
collecting and critically analysing useful and appropriate information?

or

Do we do both - find ways of supporting teachers' frustrations and doubts and allow
children to explore for themselves as we move into the world of knowledge means
power?

REFERENCES
Creating a New Civilisation - The Politics of the Third Wave, Toffler, Alvin &
Heidi, Turner Publishing Incorporated

4. Simpsons/Culture of Kids/Water Rats/Building Bridges

Teachers are often heard bemoaning the fact that in these days of "Instant Everything"
it is difficult to maintain children's interest and attention for a period of @ exceeding
several minutes unless we present a "razza matazz' performance. Teachers suggest
that it is difficult to compete with modern technology and pop culture - this is brought
home to me this afternoon when I ask my class of six and seven year olds to remind
us all of what is on tonight. Actually, it is our school's "Meet the Teacher and Sausage
Sizzle night". However, the enthusiastic answer I receive from my class is, "Water
Rats!" - a new television show. I can't believe it!
Does television dominate their lives to such an extent that this is how they measure and organise their time? At this point I remember that sometimes the "world of school" and "the world of home" are incredibly far apart. As teachers we face the problem of narrowing this gap without compromising our teaching and learning.

I made a decision to go down this path of "narrowing the gap" last year with a different group of children.

By the end of the first term with a three/four composite I was finding it a constant battle to manage the behaviour of several children in the class. I was finding that their behaviour was having an effect on the social dynamics of the whole class and that many of my decisions about what I was going to teach and how it would be taught were based on these few children. I felt that at the beginning of second term I needed to use something with the class that would be highly stimulating and that would motivate them to work cooperatively with one another. I knew that in English I wanted to teach them about the structure of a narrative. I decided to do this by using "The Simpsons" because the media has an enormous impact on our lives, not least children's fives. It seemed appropriate to use a popular television show because of the familiarity with the content. My hope was that the children would be highly motivated to learn about narrative structure because they were learning through a medium they knew so well. I also hoped the fact that their knowledge about the Simpsons was shared would help them to work cooperatively.

The class couldn't believe it when the lights were switched off and "The Simpson's" overture began. There was absolute silence! - their attention was held for thirty minutes. This did not surprise me greatly. However I was surprised at their willingness after the show to work with a partner to sequence the events in this episode. It was not a one off event.

For several weeks I used the "The Simpsons" as the focus of our English work. During this time the students did various activities designed to help them become better writers of a narrative text. They worked individually or in pairs or small groups.

Through the KLA of English I was able to build a bridge to the children and make a connection with their home life. Through the use of "The Simpsons" the children began to work cooperatively making their behaviour easier to manage.

But, by achieving these goals through English had this KLA been compromised?

5(a). Dysfunctional Family

In my K/1 class I have a first grade boy, Charlie, with severe behaviour problems. The family has a history of problems and across the wider family that live in the community there are other difficult situations that affect the school and community.
This 6 year old is from a family of four boys. An older brother, Dean is in fourth grade. He has severe emotional problems and is involved in special counselling to determine whether placement would be helpful. He is very difficult to teach, withdrawn and angry and most of the time chooses not to be part of a class. His skills are poor because of his attitude even though he had a lot of extra help in his early years of schooling.

There is an added problem. Charlie has twin brothers in Kindergarten who are more settled than he is at present, but respond to his extreme and dangerous behaviour. Charlie is often uncontrollable in the class and violent towards other children and teachers. Other children’s personal safety is sometimes threatened so the executive made a decision that we could only contain him in the classroom when we had an aid or team teacher available. This put a lot of stress on the whole school structure and particularly the executive staff. If he needed to be removed from the classroom he was uncontrolable and needed to be physically restrained, another important school issue to be considered. He frequently runs home from school across several major busy roads.

My dilemma is his safety, the classroom students state of well being and safety, and the disruption to teaching time in class and also to the rest of the school. He can not be punished by being sent to a time out area because he doesn’t care about exclusion and he would never stay without being restrained.

We made a decision in second term that he was only allowed to stay at school until 1:00 am and then his mother had the responsibility of coming to pick him up. If he was allowed to stay over a playground time, teachers on duty and students were disruptted and often put at risk. This also encouraged many other difficult children to respond to his behaviour.

This procedure has helped the class environment and increased teaching &w but does not give Charlie much learning time or social interaction with his peers. A teacher's aide has been provided for several hours a week and in the beginning sometimes the one to one situation was successful but as time passed he became more and more difficult as he realised Kindergarten children had skills he as a first grade child did not have. He became more alienated from his peer group and his community and became SPECL4,L.

During fourth term he has been sent to a Special School for Behaviourally Disordered students. He is integrated back to the home school for one day a week where his behaviour during that day has deteriorated. His behaviour at the Special School has not improved.

Questions going round and round in my head:
What guidelines do teachers follow to make these difficult decisions? We do have the help of counselling teams but we are the people at the immediate sight who begin the process of change.

Is one child in great need given priority because of his disadvantaged situation?

Are 25 other class students given the right to learn by exclusion of one child because they are a majority?

How can one be fair to both this 6 year old child and the class when remembering the AGENDA'1996

* Teaching traditional values
* in safe and happy schools;
* aiming for excellence
* in high-tech classrooms; and
* providing a fair go for all.

5(b). School Year 1996
This year I have one of the twins of this same family, Tony, who has poor intellectual skills. The twins have been separated to give each one a chance to develop and mix with their peers. The second twin is more able and more settled. Tony is not quite as violent as Charlie but can be as disruptive. His behaviour escalated towards the end of last year when he had run home with Charlie on several occasions. He looks up to Charlie and believes he is smart and clever. He is copying his behaviour. I have talked to his mother to identify the problem and she tells me he just wants to go to Charlie's school. Charlie travels to school in a taxi, he is often suspended and has time at home with his Dad and tells exciting stories about his behaviour at his special school.

Our choices for Tony are limited. Do we try to keep him at his home school and compromise the well being and safety of a class in the hope that he will improve when he realises he won't be sent to his brother's school?

or

Do we escalate the situation to have him removed to the same school where we can almost predict the result?

Teaching and learning are what teachers are constantly thinking about - looking at my class of 5-6 year old children eager and excited to learn, explore and discover knowledge, I find it very difficult to make a decision. Kindergarten is a unique year to challenge and explore the wonder of our world. The class has eighteen kindergarten children and eight first grade children.
A young child is usually more responsive to develop a workable discipline structure with than an older child.

6. A Fair Go For All - Children getting extra time
As part of a Student Welfare initiative at our school, boys in years three and four were targeted to participate in an Anti-Violence Program.

The program was run for half an hour each week throughout term 2. To accommodate this group, it was necessary for timetables to be restructured as well as some staff members taking on some different roles.

However the program was seen as a priority for our school and changes were made.

My class was one of the classes involved in the program and the boys thoroughly enjoyed their involvement. Throughout the program several questions emerged.

The first question concerned gender issues - boys only were being removed from the normal class routine in small groups led by two teachers. Despite the fact that all boys were not involved in the program, it still had implications that made this situation appear unfair. They believed that the boys who often displayed bad behaviour were being rewarded by being given this extra attention and the opportunity to do something different. It seemed to be a case of making a decision based on the needs of a minority.

How could this situation be changed in future?

Could it be possible to allow the girls time using technology - an area often dominated by boys?

How can we measure such a program in the future?

At the conclusion of the program the staff agreed that the playground had become less violent.

I was finding it easier to manage the behaviour of the boys involved in the program from my class.

Could this success be attributed entirely to the program?

Is it the result of a number of factors such as P.S.S.A sport commencing, the anti-violence program and composite classes?

These are some of the questions that teachers in our school were agonising over.
• What KIA's as a school or class did we compromise?
• What made us choose the priorities that we did choose?
• What KLA's did we successfully integrate across?
• Did some integration compromise some specific KIA? e.g. Maths/English, Science/Technology/Maths etc.
• Did we choose books because of content rather than literary value?

**WHAT WERE OUR PRIORITIES IN TIMETABLEING?**

1) School based
2) Class based

Is there a good enough reason to make one KIA more relevant and a priority in our school such as i) PE - unfit children, Welfare needs - lack of social skills, Language - high number of LOTE students or low socioeconomic community?

Can we justify one KLA being given priority over a year of schooling?

How are such school decisions successfully communicated to our parent body when some parents don't recognise that the curriculum area being targeted in the school is a priority for their child's education?

If teachers in a school identify a curriculum area that needs priority in their classroom, how could this be negotiated across a grade or across the school? How can this priority be communicated effectively to the parents of the students in this class?

The equity issue for the teachers when considering the demography of the school population when giving priority to such areas as PD, PE, LOTE, ESL, ENGLISH?

• the equity issue when a decision is based on the needs of a majority of students but not all.

ii) the equity issue when a decision is based on the needs of a minority of students not a majority.
APPENDIX F
"MEET VLADIMIR: VLADIMIR UNFOLDS"
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PART ONE:

THE STORY
Meet Vladimir. He is 15-years-old. He has been in Australia only a month. He is in a class of 16 students at an Intensive English Centre. He has developed a fairly fluent (ie. easily understood, flowing) playground/social English which is of course limited to perhaps twenty or thirty phrases and expressions. These are fairly formulaic but he's learning to insert key verbs and nouns to increase their versatility. eg. "Give me pen/book/paper..." "I want to toilet/play/see..." "Me/my..."

So, in this class of English language learners Vladimir is doing fairly well at picking up communicative oral English skills. At this stage, after 3 weeks at the IEC, however, he is not as competent as other students in producing written English. In particular:

- his English script is difficult to decode
- his spelling is more non-standard than most of the other students

Generally, he is far more willing to take part in activities which involve movement and speaking/listening than in those which focus more on reading/writing.

He is often slow to start these written text based tasks and more frequently requires refocussing to these tasks than others in class. Home work which requires writing is not completed at least 50% of the time.

Vладимир is very outgoing. By 'normal' Western standards he is very attractive. Most of the students in the class seem to find him amusing. He speaks Russian; was born in a town 200km from Moscow. Two other students in the class, both male, also speak Russian. The rest of the class are roughly 50/50 male, female with a total of seven first languages.

The language 'content' of English lessons is based very much on simple survival English (numbers, days, simple requests, personal credentials etc.) and functional 'school' English ('school' vocabulary)
Questions for Consideration
1. Any ideas based on what you've read so far that may explain the discrepancy between his relative performances in written/spoken mode? (Does it require explaining?)
2. What are BICS and CALP?
3. In what ways is Vladimir an 'ideal' language learner?
4. Nominate five pieces of biographical data that you'd like to have about Vladimir.
   NB: This can possibly be provided.

PART TWO:

THE STORY
At the end of their initial 12 week program, the students in Vladimir's class either move on to the next program or are 'repeated' - maybe four weeks or eight weeks - by being placed in another class which is behind their class in the EEC program. There is also a special class in the IEC which students may be placed if - for whatever reason - they are not progressing well.

Ten weeks into the initial 12 week program, Vladimir has started exhibiting unwanted behaviour. Generally, he is starting to question the instructions from a number of teachers. He appears to do this rudely. He is a big strong boy and in little ways intimidates others, eg. holding their arms down, pushing past them roughly, snatching objects. Nothing really violent however. He seems to speak roughly to other students in Russian....

Three specific incidents:

- A girl says he used an obscene expression in her first language (Spanish) in your class. You heard nothing.
- He said 'I'll hit you after school' to a male student in the class after aminordispute about his bag being put on the floor - to enable the other student to sit down.
- Someone wrote F--- Y— with liquid paper on a desk. Circumstantial evidence suggests it was probably Vlad but there is no way of proving it.
SOME ADDITIONAL BIOGRAPHICAL DATA
Vladimir's parents are separated. She remains in Russia, Vlad lives with Dad. He likes sport a lot and is body-building at a gym somewhere in the city.

In class?
He is developing very well in spoken English. With you he is taking up a lot of time. Constantly needs to be told to sit down, get on with work, be quiet when you are talking.

Homework is hardly ever done now. Class work tends to be done on (non-hole punched) paper sheets. Little evidence that work is filed.

Other students are now able to write half a page of simple descriptive text but Vlad just never holds a pen long enough to attempt this. Spelling and handwriting remain problems. Vlad seems to feel neither are important - he says this.

At the end of class meeting (of the main English teachers who teach the class) it is decided that he will repeat four weeks of the program.

Two other students are similarly repeated because they are still extremely reticent/unable to produce target language utterances. Vlad's Russian speaking friends and the other students with whom he is friendly all move up to the next class.

Questions:
1. What needs to be addressed if repeating is to be a successful venture.
2. How might his and other students' writing be assessed.
3. How might the decision to "repeat Vladimir be evaluated?
4. What should Vlad's teacher do about those three incidents?
5. Why might the word "appear" be presented in italics?

WHAT FURTHER INFORMATION DO YOU NEED TO DISCUSS THESE QUESTIONS FULLY?

PART THREE:

THE STORY
Vladimir is now identified throughout the IEC as a difficult student. One-to-one, teachers find him charming. His 'good looks' are mentioned a lot. In the class and the playground however he is more and more frequently seen teasing, pushing,
intimidating other students.

His 'new' class is a very cohesive little group. There are a few students whose spoken English is better than Vladimir's. Vladimir tends to sit alone and is less inclined, apparently, to involve himself in class activities - even those which focus on oral/aural interaction.

He now falls foul of the IEC welfare/discipline procedures two or three times a week, for rudeness, swearing, lateness, non-compliance with instructions. Detentions ensue.

He is interviewed by the Head Teacher because of an allegation of a) 'sexual' remarks, to girls - in Spanish and b) swearing in the presence of a Teachers Aide Ethnic (TAE) in another language. The Head Teacher nominally accepts his defence in both cases that he believed he was saying something innocent. He is warned not to use other languages if he is in any doubt as to their meaning. Warned that father will be called up if he transgresses again in the area of harassment/rudeness.

The interview between Vlad and Head Teacher is facilitated by a Russian speaking TAE.

Vladimir appears to be making very little progress or effort in writing. He is now very fluent in BICS style conversation.

1. How should his classroom behaviour, (disruptive) be managed? Who should be involved?

2. Should other students be helped in knowing how to respond to Vladimir? If so.... how?

3. Would the Special class offer an avenue (maximum student: teacher ratio is 10:1, normally two teachers with 10 to 15 students. An open-ended programme. Students in there for wide range of reasons including behavioural/emotional).

4. 'Study skills'. What help is needed here? Can Vladimir be helped to get more organised?

5. Are there any special features of the Russian language which may be relevant here? How can you find out about this?

PART FOUR.-

THE STORY
You have a good read of Viadiniir's history card and read something you've never known about. He has a twin brother who lives with his mother.

You find out from the Russian speaking TAE that twins are usually kept together in class in Russia.

Viadiniir's father is called in because of further misbehaviour. He tells the Head Teacher that Vladimir was always difficult at school and that they have a lot of conflict at home.

Counsellor also talks to father and Vladimir. Counsellor believes there may be very angry, possibly violent, scenes at home.

Vladimir, by this time, has moved up to the next class. He wasn't placed in the Special class. It didn't seem appropriate because it was thought that he wouldn't blend well with the existing students.

Observed in the playground, it is clear that several female students spend quite a bit of time with Vladimir. Sometimes he embraces one of them and touches her legs.

By now Vladimir is attracting attention from the IEC's management and counsellor quite intensively. His classroom behaviour, (you teach him less frequently now), is up and down.

He is now extremely fluent in speaking on most non-academic matters.

By the time he leaves for High School after spending about 11 months at the IEC he is living in a government funded house for adolescents who, in the opinion of DOCS, are better off living apart from their parents/guardians.

A few months later he returns to the IEC for a visit. He says he enjoys High School a lot and reports are that he is doing OK and settling in.

WITH HINDSIGHT
• What were the factors impacting negatively on Vladimir on the day he first set foot in the IEC?

• What additional factors were added during his stay?

• Draw a poster which shows this diagrammatically and clusters variables around-
  Linguistic
  Emotional
  Cultural
  Social
  Settlement
(Entitle the poster "some factors which may impact negatively on newly arrived LBOTE students")

Which DSE policies are of most relevance here? Would they have helped the teacher in dealing with Vlad, in helping Vlad learn?

Was something not done that might have helped? Was something done that maybe shouldn't have been done?

What additional information on Russia, Russian language, recent history, culture, educational system etc. would be useful/relevant?
APPENDIX G
"THE GREAT I AM"
(Reproduced by permission of the Faculty of Education, University of Sydney)

Tom is an interesting student and one that you wished you had the wisdom of hindsight when you look back and see how you have dealt with him in the past.

5 Tom is quite an over-weight and intelligent boy. He has quite a large self-esteem problem when it suits him and has a habit of opening his mouth to make any stupid comments that he can possibly think of. It is because of this and his weight problem that gets him into more problems than one could possibly imagine.

10 Tom starts many of the arguments he is involved in, but uses his weight problem to advantage when reporting this to staff. In fact when reporting to staff Tom has never done anything to instigate the problem.

15 Tom also likes to challenge staff and it is not below him to turn a simple request to do some work or to move someone into a major international incident. It is often with teacher ending up with the egg on the face so to speak. This usually comes about by his stubbornness to do exactly the opposite to what he is asked in the face of any threats.

20 Tom has ended up suspended from school many times from incidents that would never have gone any further then the classroom with other students.

To illustrate this is an incident involving Tom and a PE class. As Tom with all other class members were asked to pack equipment away at the end of a PE lesson. A few students including Tom stood at the door and threw the equipment into the store (as some students will always do). They were all called back, but Tom refused to go. The PE teacher got those students, who threw gear to pick it up and place it in the store properly. He instructed them to leave Tom's gear there, and he would get him back to put his gear away.

25 When Tom was approached he flat out refused to go back. He said "He had not used the equipment and was not putting it away". It is true that Tom did not participate in the PE class but this had been tactically ignored by the teacher. It only helped to postpone the confrontation. When the teacher gave Tom the choice of doing as he asked or detention at lunch Tom replied that "the teacher was picking-on him and could go and get f ... d'. Of course, Tom was referred to me as a "Head Teacher".

30 Tom brought his stubbornness to me and finally to the Principal who he also told to get f'd. Thus from simple classroom instruction to suspension in two days.
APPENDIX H
“A DISRUPTIVE STUDENT. THERE’S NOTHING WRONG WITH ME!”
(Reproduced by permission of the Faculty of Education, University of Sydney)

Andrew has just completed his second year at a local high school. He is the youngest in the family of four boys, three of whom are adults. He is the product of an Anglo Saxon background, and is well known in the district for his extreme anti social behaviour. He has made a practice of rebelling against authority from an early age and goes out of his way to cause disruption both in school and in his neighbourhood.

In class, Andrew constantly swears loudly and disrupts lessons whenever possible. His attitude is that everyone else is out of step except him. He has an extreme dislike for women teachers and uses four letter words, mainly for the reaction that he will obtain and to see the class in complete disarray.

Andrew is an intelligent young man who has good practical skills, however his lack of desire to produce anything of value hampers his success in these venues. He goes out of his way to ignite and inflame situations within the classroom and goes as far as interfering with other students by laughing and making comments when they are being corrected. If the teacher then turns to correct him, he has achieved the desired reaction and disrupted the class even further. This type of behaviour makes the teacher’s discipline non existent. To give an example of how this student can disrupt...... On entering the classroom a confrontation has usually occurred. Andrew does not like to be told to stand in line with the rest of his class. He likes to be the centre of attention at all times. While in the classroom, he is usually the last to be seated and unpack his equipment. When marking the class roll, Andrew will answer present for any absent student The class awaits my reaction.

It’s time for the lesson to begin. In the TAS faculty the teachers usually give a short demonstration and then get their students to apply their practical skills. Andrew talks throughout the demonstration and makes asides causing laughter. There is a strong feeling within the class that they only have to wait for Andrew to make another disruptive comment. When doing computer studies, Andrew refuses to conform to any instruction and will only use a computer as a drawing aid. At present the arrangement is that he is allowed to continue doing this. This seems to have a pacifying effect on him.

He has been counselled for years, but to no avail. However, it is felt that his attitude has worsened. He has now enlisted a small group of students with him as the leader to cause difficulties in the playground and toilets. These students are of a similar ilk to Andrew and readily follow his lead. To our knowledge he doesn’t use drugs, but it is suspected that he may become a user or pusher in the future.
The counsellors, are of the opinion that he is a prospective A.D.D. sufferer. His parents are in complete agreement for him to attend Rivendell for assessment and modification processes. However, Andrew refuses to attend, saying that there is nothing wrong with him or his attitude and if there was he would attend to it himself.

Meanwhile his classes are in complete turmoil. His teachers spend their whole period disciplining Andrew and as the other students see him misbehaving, they in turn misbehave. As a consequence there is little or no teaching of any value occurring. At present he has incurred numerous four day suspensions and exclusions from class (he sits outside the Principal's office). He is obviously bored but the exclusion has little effect when classes are resumed. It would appear that the suspension means no more than a four day holiday and a means of getting out of class.

The school at present allows him to remove himself from the classroom if he feels that the situation is getting out of hand and to report immediately to the D.P.'s office. Unfortunately, Andrew is cunning enough to realise that this means he can misbehave as much as possible, and, toward the end of the period, (when he might be overstepping the mark and he can see that he might get into real trouble), he reports to the D.P., sometimes by just walking out of the room. By this time, however, the damage to the lesson has already occurred. His peers recognise that a problem exists, but are easily influenced by his strong personality, and are quite amenable to going along with his antics and devising a few of their own. The teacher is therefore confronted by two sets of problems.

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION.

- What is A.D.D.? How is it caused? Is medication available. What is its name? Are there any side effects from the medication? What are the benefits in using this medication?

- Should these children, when formally diagnosed, be refused mainstream education and instead, enrolled at Rivendell for continuous counselling and behaviour modification?

- Should teachers in mainstream education be required to tolerate constant verbal abuse in the form of swearing?

- How do you see yourself coping with this type of student?

- What strategies would you employ if you had Andrew plus another twenty nine students who were not paying attention?