The "Theory-Practice Gap": Turning Theory into Practice in a Pre-Service Teacher Education Program

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February 2009

Abstract

This thesis investigates the theory-practice gap using the exemplar of teacher education. The research is situated in a pre-service teacher education program that explicitly seeks to bridge the theory-practice gap so that it produces "learning managers" who can negotiate the contemporary knowledge society in ways different to those of their predecessors. The empirical work reported in this thesis describes and interprets the experiences of pre-service and beginning teachers in turning theory into practice. In order to accomplish this outcome, the thesis draws on Mead's theory of emergence and symbolic interactionism to provide a theoretical perspective for meaning-making in social situations. Data for the study were collected through interviews and focus groups involving a sample of first-year graduate teachers of an Australian pre-service teacher education program.

The main finding of this thesis is that the theory-practice gap in pre-service teacher education under present institutional arrangements is an inevitable phenomenon arising as individuals undergo the process of emergence from pre-service to graduate and then beginning teachers. The study shows that despite the efforts of the program developers, environmental, social and cultural conditions in teacher education processes and structures and in schools inhibit the trainee and novitiate teacher from exercising agency to effect change in traditional classroom practices. Thus, the gap between theory and practice is co-produced and sustained in the model that characterises contemporary pre-service teacher education in the perspectives of lecturers, teachers and administrators.

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Acknowledgments

To my principal supervisor, Professor Richard Smith, I owe an enormous debt of gratitude. From the start, he has shown unwavering faith in my ability to accomplish this task while I have remained in awe of his brilliance and immeasurable knowledge. Despite a frenetic workload, Richard has always made time to meet with me and to provide guidance, support and encouragement. For this, I thank him sincerely.

Dr Deborah Peach, as my associate supervisor, spent eighteen months advising and supporting me as I struggled to find conceptual clarity at the start of this research. I thank Deborah for her insightful comments, her ongoing interest in this work and her enduring friendship. I also wish to thank my friend and colleague, Dr Christina Davidson, for her dedicated supervision during the past two years and for raising the bar so high. It has been a privilege to work alongside such a fine intellect.

My thanks go also to Dr Mark Sinclair for reminding me that moments of disequilibrium are a natural part of writing a PhD and for resurrecting me when they hit. I thank Mark for his friendship, his constant encouragement and for never doubting my ability to finish this work.

A number of present and past members of CQU's Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Education have been generous in their support of my work during the past three years. In particular, I thank Professor Bruce Knight, Jenny Frazer, Sandi Weedon, Kristian Walker, Judy Wright and Rebecca Lentell. I also thank the following library staff for being supportive and extremely patient despite my requests for scarce resources and my right-brained approach to EndNote: Jenny Doak, Chelsea Harper, Vicki Roberts, Libbie Blanchard and Kate Houston. For advising me on formatting styles, I thank Philippa Sturgess and Pat Warnock.

I also wish to acknowledge the generosity of the participants in this study in giving their time and sharing with me some of their professional experiences. My thanks go as well to the Director of Catholic Education and school principals who gave permission for me to proceed with the empirical research of this study.

I would not have completed this thesis without the constant personal support of my sister, Associate Professor Pamela Allen, who has prevented me from floundering in hard times. Pam is the best friend a person could have. I also thank my dear mother, Jean Allen, for taking such a strong interest in my work and for being there for my boys on many of the occasions when I locked myself away in the study.

Finally, to my three sons I offer my thanks and all my love. First, I wish to thank my oldest son, James, for being so proud of my academic achievements on the path to undertaking this degree. Second, my thanks go to my two younger sons, Christopher and

Nicholas, for bearing with my ravings and for trying, as young adolescents, to make some sort of sense of what this thesis is all about. More importantly, I thank them for understanding the enormity of the task and for trusting that, one day, it would all be over.

Candidate's declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief, the work presented in this thesis is completely original except where due reference is made in the text. This material has not previously been submitted, in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other university.

Jeanne Maree Allen
February 18, 2009

Selected publications and presentations related to this work

2007

Allen, J. M. (2007, September 05-08). *Valuing practice over theory: How beginning teachers re-orient their practice in the transition from the university to the workplace.* Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Conference, London.

Allen, J. M., & Butler-Mader, C. (2007, April 09-13). *A fundamental partnership: The experiences of practising teachers as lecturers in a pre-service teacher education program.* Paper presented at the Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Allen, J. M., & Peach, D. (2007). Exploring connections between the in-field and on-campus components of a preservice teacher education program: A student perspective. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education, 8*(1), 23-36.

Allen, J. M., & Peach, D. (2007, June 26-29). *Exploring connections between the in-field and on-campus components of a preservice teacher education program: A student perspective.* Paper presented at the World Conference on Cooperative Education, Singapore.

2006

Allen, J. M. (2006). Teacher socialization in the workplace: Some perspectives from the literature. In B. Walker-Gibbs & B. A. Knight (Eds.), *Re-visioning research and knowledge for the 21st century* (pp. 101-115). Teneriffe, Qld: Post Pressed.

2005

Allen, J. M., & Peach, D. (2005, Dec. 04-07). *How ready are you? A preliminary investigation into the workplace readiness of final-year education students at a regional university.* Paper presented at the International Conference on Post-Compulsory Education and Training, Gold Coast, Qld.

Butler-Mader, C., **Allen**, J. M., & Campbell, J. (2005, Sept. 18-20). *Partnerships in action: What's in it for us?* Paper presented at the International Conference on Pedagogies and Learning, Toowoomba, Qld.

Chapter One

Introduction to the study

Introduction

This research is concerned with what happens in the "gap" between theory and practice in teacher education. Although teacher education programs aim to provide knowledge and skills that prepare graduates for the workplace, the literature attests to the general lack of preparedness or workplace readiness of beginning teachers (Neville, Sherman, & Cohen, 2005). This thesis investigates the theory-practice gap through studying the experiences of a sample of first-year graduates from a contemporary pre-service teacher education program that was created as a deliberate attempt to bridge the divide between theory and practice (Smith & Moore, 2006).

Background to the study

An assumption implicit in pre-service programs across a variety of contexts is that the knowledge and practices taught within them will enable professional practice in the workplace. The widely discerned problem lies in the fact that there is often a huge disparity between the theory of the pre-service program and workplace practice (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). A spate of studies attests to this disparity in teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Neville et al., 2005). Calderhead and Robson (1991, p. 1) observe that the expectation is that pre-service teachers' exposure to and participation in the two environments of the teacher education program and the "practicum" school will enable

them to "build a coherent, enlightened, integrated body of knowledge that will inform, and in turn be informed by, classroom practice." However although this expectation is clear, the literature suggests that there is only, at best, a tenuous relationship between the theoretical knowledge of teachers and their developing practice during their pre-service and initial teaching years (Good et al., 2006; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2001).

In Australia and internationally, teacher educators have been called to account for what is seen as a failure to create education programs that strike a balance between theoretical knowledge and practical pedagogical expertise (Bates, 2002; Neville et al., 2005; Smith, 2000). Considerable dissatisfaction has been identified on the part of key stakeholders (industry, school principals, experienced teachers, parents and students) regarding the quality and relevance of pre-service teacher education and the workplace ready status of new teachers (Victorian Education and Training Committee [VETC], 2005). This perceived failure to prepare teachers adequately for the reality of the workplace is driving the need for a reformed model of pre-service teacher preparation (Australian Council of Deans of Education [ACDE], 2005; Cochran-Smith, 2005; Donnelly, 2004), with recommendations including a stronger focus on practical classroom teaching and a move away from educational theory (New South Wales Government [NSW Govt], 2001).

The Bachelor of Learning Management (BLM) is a teacher preparation program that was created in response to this perceived need for program reform and aims to represent "a point of departure for rejuvenating and transforming teacher education and training" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 9). It stands in contrast to the dominant model of teacher

preparation program that focuses on "*what* students know, rather than *how* they use that knowledge" (Seltzer & Bentley, 1999, p. 9). The program, which was introduced into a regional Australian university in 2001 to replace the conventional Bachelor of Education (BEd), has as its primary concepts *workplace ready graduates* and *futures oriented educators* who are empowered with a sense of social and educational change (Smith, Lynch, & Mienczakowski, 2003).

The program focuses on pedagogy rather than learning theory, with pedagogical strategies rather than curriculum development forming the core intent of the program. It is a move towards a new model of teacher education and a paradigm shift away from traditional pre-service teacher education programs based on the assumption that theoretical underpinnings, provided through on-campus course work, will be automatically translated by pre-service and beginning teachers into meaningful pedagogical discourse in the classroom or learning site (Korthagen, 2001; Smith, 2000; Tom, 1997). The BLM approach relies emphatically on partnership arrangements with employers and schools. This is a concept that implies that employers and schools are genuinely partners who are involved in the conception of ideas and policies (Smith, 2004). In short, the creation of the BLM signifies an attempt to "consciously and directly" bridge the divide between theory and practice so often associated with teacher education programs (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 20).

Aim of the study

The generic concept in this study is the theory-practice gap. I seek to exemplify this concept through teacher education. Specifically, I attempt to gain an understanding of the

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theory-practice experiences of participants of a teacher education program that was created in order to bridge the theory-practice divide. Accordingly, the central research question of this thesis is: *How do teachers experience turning theory into practice during training and initial employment?* This question will be explored further after the review of the literature and development of a theoretical framework in Chapters Two and Three. The aim of this study is thus to contribute to an understanding of the theory-practice gap in professional programs in general and in teacher education in particular.

Significance of the study

This research is deemed significant for a number of reasons. First, it contributes to the body of research concerned with the ways in which pre-service and beginning teachers turn theory into practice. As will be identified in Chapter Two, the theory-practice gap is well documented in the literature but the weight of research to date has been on demonstrating the existence of the gap and on suggesting ways to bridge it. This study adds a new perspective in taking as its context a teacher education program designed to overcome the theory-practice gap and examining what participants of the program experience as they engage with theoretical concepts and their practical application.

Second, this thesis contributes an understanding of the links between pre-service teachers' learning and their practices in the classroom, both during their training and as beginning teachers. This is an area in which there is a discerned need for more empirical evidence (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Neville et al., 2005). Indeed, the extant literature demonstrates that there has been little research done in this field (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Viadero, 2005; Wilson et al., 2001), in part because the research emphasis for the past

few decades has been on teachers' knowledge and beliefs and thinking and learning in communities (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005). In order to gauge the efficacy of pre-service teacher education programs in enabling teacher effectiveness and ultimately in improving student outcomes, it is essential that research is first carried out regarding the links between teachers' pre-service preparation and their classroom practices (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Department of Education Science and Technology [DEST], 2002).

Third, there is insufficient empirical research associated with the experiences and perceptions of teachers as they transition from the pre-service program into the workplace (Cochran-Smith, 2005). Korthagen, Loughran and Russell (2006, p. 20) advance a strong argument for authorising teachers' voices, noting that, "ironically, all over the world, candidates' voices are rarely used to ascertain whether their teacher education program achieves its goals." A contribution of my research is that it seeks to hear voices of candidates who have completed their teacher education programs in order to better understand the social reality of turning theory into practice. That is, this research explores and communicates the meaning-making perspectives of graduates' experiences of the theory-practice gap in the context of teacher education.

A fourth significant feature of this study is in its contribution to theory. As will be explained in Chapter Three, I borrow and extend constructs from Mead's (1934) theory of emergence to conceptualise this study and thus to shape my interpretation of participants' experiences of theory and practice. To my knowledge, Mead's theory has not previously been used in theory-practice research or indeed in any studies of teacher

education. Further, I align this theory with the methodological approach of my study by utilising symbolic interactionism as a theoretical underpinning for the latter. Symbolic interactionism, although developed substantially since[1], forms part of Mead's theory of emergence.

Limitations of the study

Notwithstanding the significance of the study, I acknowledge some limitations. The research study was limited in its scope in that it focused on the experiences of a sample of first-year BLM graduates from two campuses of a regional university. The sample size was limited because of availability of potential participants and it was incumbent on me to gather rich data from each participant. Consequently, I do not claim that the findings of the research are representative of the entire Australian pre-service teacher education population. Nevertheless, as Coffey and Atkinson (1996) point out, the delineation of the particular within a study of this nature is informed by an understanding of more general forms and processes and, therefore, it is appropriate to make generalisations that remain grounded empirically in the local.

An associated limitation is that the participant sample includes only graduates teaching in Catholic schools. As outlined in Chapter Four, the Catholic Education system employs more BLM graduates than any other employing agency and therefore was able to provide a valid sample. I acknowledge, however, that there may well be different socialising influences or preconditions at work in other systems, such as state and independent

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[1] Mead's work in this area was popularised by his student, Herbert Blumer, who first coined the term *symbolic interactionism* in 1937 (Woods, 1992).

schools. A study of graduates working within these systems and the workplace influences under which they teach remains to be done.

A third limitation of the study is that I did not examine the pre-existing conditions, such as levels of anticipatory socialisation and individual attitudes and beliefs about teaching, which participants held when they entered the program. Nor did I explore the extent to which the BLM was instrumental in changing or confirming these preconditions. These are matters for a fuller longitudinal study.

Outline of this research

This thesis is organised under seven chapters. Chapter One sets the scene for the study through establishing its scope and significance. Limitations of the thesis are included. The chapter also identifies the research problem, states the aim of the research and provides an overview of what lies ahead in the following chapters.

Chapter Two presents a review of the literature related to the research problem. Comprised of three sections, the review examines, first, the literature surrounding teacher culture and socialisation; second, historical and contemporary issues associated with pre-service teacher education; and, third, the theory-practice gap and its implications for individuals transitioning from pre-service to novitiate teachers. At the end of the chapter, I provide a synthesis of the reviewed literature, from which I draw five conclusions. These conclusions summarise the principal arguments in the literature and identify the gaps that are to be filled by this study.

In Chapter Three, I set out a theoretical model for understanding the experiences of a sample of BLM graduates in turning theory into practice. Following Mead's (1934) theory of emergence, I construct a framework that draws on the concepts identified in the problem to build an explanation that will accommodate the data presented and discussed in Chapter Five. Mead's theory of emergence was selected as a basis for the study's theoretical framework as it provides a way to focus on the gap between theory and practice. The fundamental understanding involved in Mead's theory and hence in this study is that when a living form of some kind interacts with its environment, some new object is likely to emerge. This study sees the interaction of the individual (the living form) and his/her pre-service teacher education program (the environment) as giving rise to a graduate teacher (an emergent). I describe in this chapter the categories of factors that determine the nature of the graduate teacher and the major mechanisms that condition his/her actions during the process of emergence.

Chapter Four justifies and describes the methodological approach used to interrogate the research question and theoretical framework. The chapter is divided into two sections. In the first section, I establish why a qualitative methodology using symbolic interactionism as a theoretical underpinning is appropriate for investigating the theoretical problem set out in Chapter Three. I also justify this approach as consistent and integrated with the theory. In the second section, I set out the research design and the overall structure of the research plan. This section commences with a description of the sample and justification of its size as well as an explanation of contextual features of the data collection area. I then provide a justification for the use of the semi-structured interview and focus group

discussion as the principal data gathering techniques in the study. I also describe and justify drawing upon a set of theory-practice guidelines from the management field to frame and inform the composition of my interview questions. This is followed by an explanation of the analytic method and its appropriateness for this study and a detailed account of how I applied this analytic method. A discussion of consistency and trustworthiness, ethical considerations and the role of the researcher conclude this chapter.

In Chapter Five, I present, discuss and analyse the data collected in the study. Unlike in some traditions, the theoretical underpinning of symbolic interactionism does not propose ways to proceed with data analysis[2]. Therefore, data analysis in this study is guided by principles that I judge to be consistent with the symbolic interactionist perspective, namely, those espoused by Coffey and Atkinson (1996) and Miles and Huberman (1994). My approach in Chapter Five is to present and analyse the data under three conceptual themes, discussing each one in turn, and drawing upon relevant literature. I conclude by summarising the main empirical findings of the study before proposing a theoretical interpretation of the data in Chapter Six.

Using the theoretical framework described previously, Chapter Six illustrates Mead's position on human agency and social structure using the research on the reflexive

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[2] The tradition has been widely criticised for this (see, for example, Meltzer, 1959, 1972; Thiele, 2005). Blumer's view is that the researcher should look upon human group life as a vast interpretative process in which people, singly and collectively, direct themselves by defining the objects, events, and situations that they encounter and that "any scheme designed to analyze human group life in its general character has to fit this process of interpretation" (Blumer, 1956, p. 687).

adjustments of pre-service/beginning teachers to environmental conditions reported in Chapter Five. The discussion is organised around two major concepts: the nature of the interaction within the pre-service program in light of pre-existing environmental and individual conditions, and the nature of the interaction under pre-existing conditions in the new school. A synthesis of the data interpretation at the end of the chapter enables me to propose answers to the research question in its theoretical terms.

Chapter Seven concludes the study through drawing together the research findings and showing that the aim of the thesis has been successfully achieved. This chapter demonstrates how the thesis contributes to the advancement of knowledge on several accounts. Finally, I provide suggestions for further research.

Chapter Two

Review of the Literature

Introduction

It will be recalled that the aim of this study is to contribute to an understanding of the theory-practice gap in professional programs in general and in teacher education in particular. Specifically, I attempt to gain an understanding of the experiences of participants of a teacher education program that was created in order to bridge the theory-practice divide. The purpose of this review is to identify and analyse the major concepts for this study.

Conceptualisation of the review

In the last chapter, I showed how the link between pre-service programs and professional practice is hedged with uncertainty. In this chapter, I review relevant literature around this theme. There are three categories of literature relevant to the problem of this thesis. I base this proposition on the following presuppositions, namely that these three categories allow me to locate my study in its appropriate sociocultural and historical context, to examine the complexities involved in bridging theory and practice in professional programs and to provide a foundation upon which to build my own research. I have labelled these main broad areas of research "teacher culture and socialisation," "pre-service teacher education" and "turning theory into practice." I now justify the inclusion of each in turn.

Teacher culture and socialisation have been shown to wield a strong influence on teachers' capability to turn theory into practice (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). The influence begins from student teachers' first entry into the classroom during in-field experience (Smith, 2000) and continues to be a powerful, and often inexorable, force as they begin teaching and progress through their professional careers (Korthagen, 2001). This theme is of particular relevance to this research that studies the experiences of individuals who have progressed through pre-service education into teaching.

Since the professionalisation of teaching in the 1960s, a significant amount of research has been carried out about the nature and intent of pre-service teacher education. The second section of this review provides a discussion of pertinent literature in this area and identifies some of the perceived strengths and weaknesses of teacher education. It also examines characteristics of pre-service programs, with reference to emerging trends and projected future directions, as discussed in the literature. A discussion about the call for reform of the industry is included, with an emphasis on the Australian literature. This section of the literature review provides an historical and contemporary context for my research.

The superordinate concept in this study is the theory-practice gap. Therefore, the third section of this review examines the literature about the differentiation of knowledge and the "loose and imperfect relationship" between theory and practice (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, p. 25) that is commonly associated with most "front-end" programs that involve a

long university period and then entry into the workforce. In particular, this section discusses the theory-practice gap as it relates to pre-service teacher education. I interpret this discussion to mean that the literature I have chosen is central to understanding the thesis problem. I now turn to an analysis of that literature.

Teacher culture and socialisation

Education is a conservative social institution; it serves to transmit the dominant culture, not to renew it (Giddens, 1994; Hartwell, 1996; Smith & Lynch, 2006a). This is not surprising given the reactionary mores that inhere in contemporary society:

> Even in oppressive or meaningless situations, most of us thrive to maintain the given social order. For some reason, we value stability; when the community is disturbed, we take part in bringing it back to the "fixed" order. Even those whose lives seem heavy with frustration join in the battle: from all sides the dissident is told that the law must be obeyed, the constitution must be honoured, the family, school, and courts must be respected. (D. A. Hansen, 1976, p. 17)

Hartwell (1996, p. 1) contends, "it takes about 100 years for scientific theories and ideas to affect the content, processes, and structure of schooling." He alludes to the accelerating pace of change in modern society and concludes that:

> The 20th century has produced a radical shift in scientific concepts of nature, reality, and epistemology: relativity theory, quantum mechanics, the discovery of DNA and, since mid-century, the development of theories of chaos and

complexity. While the popular concept of reality in the 20th century has been mechanical, the metaphor for the 21st century is likely to be organic. Public schools have not yet reflected this shift. (Hartwell, 1996, p. 1)

Thus, the school environments in which teachers interact during their pre-service and beginning years uphold traditional practices that are resistant to change (Hartwell, 1996).

As will be discussed in the sections below, socialisation of prospective and practising teachers plays a key role in ensuring the continued transmittal of the cultural heritage (Smith & Moore, 2006). This has occurred because of the historical grounding of teacher preparation in notions of educational psychology, sociology of education, child development and the practicum experience (Smith & Moore, 2006). As a consequence:

Teacher training has developed a "culture" all of its own, where this "culture" has shaped and socialised pre-service teachers into a particular mould in order for them to "fit" or glide seamlessly into an already entrenched organisational workplace culture where specific norms, beliefs and expectations provided specific guidelines as to who and what practices identified the "good" teacher. This process of socialisation, which began with pre-service teacher training, ensured that the art and mindset of teacher practice continued relatively unchanged down through generations of teachers. (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 9)

Korthagen (2001) concurs, observing that studies on teacher development demonstrate that it is very difficult for an individual to effect change or influence established patterns in schools.

The term "socialisation" and the understanding associated with the term in teacher education research can be traced back to the 1930s to researchers such as Waller (1932), Dollard (1939) and Park (1939). Teacher socialisation has been defined as "the process of change by which individuals become members of the teaching profession and then progressively take on more mature roles … within the profession" (Lacey, 1995, p. 616). Zeichner and Gore (1990) identify a range of competing explanations of teacher socialisation that have emanated from different intellectual traditions (functionalist, interpretive and critical) since Lortie's (1975) seminal work on the sociology of teaching, *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Lortie (1975, p. 61) describes socialisation as "a subjective process … something that happens to people as they move through a series of structured experiences and internalise the subculture of the group."

In 1990, Zeichner and Gore synthesised previous literature on teacher socialisation, within which they identified three recurrent themes, namely: influences on teacher socialisation prior to formal teacher education; the socialising role of pre-service teacher education; and socialisation in the workplace. These themes are used to shape the following discussion.

Influences on teacher socialisation prior to formal teacher education

Teacher socialisation literature has paid significant attention to the *anticipatory socialisation* of teachers, that is, the influences on teacher attitudes and learning that predate entry into pre-service teacher education. Zeichner and Gore (1990, p. 332) attribute this phenomenon to:

> the widely accepted view that students come to any learning situation with previously constructed ideas, knowledge and beliefs, and with certain capabilities acquired through prior experience that affect the ways in which they interpret and make use of new information.

Findings from an Australian study of students' social origins by D. S. Anderson and Western (1970) support this view. These researchers also report that beginning teacher education students are more conservative on a number of social issues than students in other professional faculties, such as medicine, law and engineering.

Lortie (1975) claims that pre-service teachers' predispositions stand at the core of becoming a teacher and that these predispositions exert a much stronger socialising influence on the pre-service teacher than either pre-service teacher education programs or subsequent socialisation into the workplace. The professional preparation of teachers starts early in life and their entire school experience contributes to their work socialisation (Lortie, 1975). Elsewhere in the literature, pre-service teachers' prior conceptions have been shown to contribute significantly to determining how they frame

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and organise their future learning, including learning how to teach (Darling-Hammond, 2006b; Hiebert, Morris, Berk, & Jansen, 2007; Kennedy, 1999b; Lacey, 1995; Loewenberg Ball & Cohen, 1999; Russell & Bullock, 2007). Ethell (1997), drawing upon research by Anderson (1989) and Clark (1988), highlights the strength of the prior conceptions that beginning teachers bring with them to pre-service teacher education. They bring "preconceptions and beliefs about teaching and teachers which are implicit in nature and resistant to the influence of on-campus teacher education courses" (Ethell, 1997, p. 4). Similarly, Knowles and Holt-Reynolds (1991, p. 103) argue that pre-service teachers' prior experiences are powerful socialising instructors and that pre-service teachers "cannot be *talked out* of what they know and believe about schools." Poulou (2007) concurs in highlighting the significance of the concerns and personal theories that prospective teachers bring to their training, which they then integrate into their teaching decisions.

Loewenberg Ball and Cohen (1999) and Smith (2000) identify the anticipatory socialisation of teachers as a barrier to achieving change in schools. Pre-service teacher education "offers a weak antidote to the powerful socialisation into teaching that occurs in teachers' own prior experience as students" (Loewenberg Ball & Cohen, 1999, p. 5). Teacher behaviour is determined as much by the life history and related experiences of an individual as by the organisational context in which he/she works (Kelchtermans & Vandenberghe, 1994). Adopting a similar view, Cuban (1993) and Sirotnik (2001) attribute the persistence of certain types of pedagogy over long periods of time to the failure of school reform initiatives, staff professional development or pre-service teacher

education programs to fundamentally alter the predispositions of teachers. Indeed, these shortcomings have "reinforced the conservatism of practice, with its didactic approaches to teaching and facts-and-skills conceptions of knowledge" (Loewenberg Ball & Cohen, 1999, p. 5) prevalent in contemporary classrooms (D. H. Hargreaves, 1998; Wise, 2002).

The importance of the beliefs about self and others held by beginning teachers prior to their entry into pre-service programs is widely documented in the literature (Hayes, Capel, Katene, & Cook, 2008; Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Segall, 2002). Pajares (1992, pp. 325-326), for example, presents the following five findings: teacher beliefs are formed early and tend to self-perpetuate, persevering even against contradictions caused by reason, time, schooling or experience; knowledge and beliefs are inextricably intertwined, but the potent affective, evaluative, and episodic nature of beliefs makes them a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted; belief change during adulthood is a relatively rare phenomenon, the most common cause being a conversion from one authority to another or a gestalt shift; individuals' beliefs play a critical role in defining behaviour and organising knowledge and information; and beliefs about teaching are well established by the time a student reaches university.

Echoing these findings, Segall (2002) purports that one of the biggest challenges confronting teacher educators is to alter the deeply-held, acculturated views of teaching and learning that prospective teachers bring to their pre-service education. The onus is on

teacher educators to provide opportunities for students to explore and make explicit their unexamined assumptions and beliefs (Darling-Hammond, 2006b).

Richardson (1996) also suggests that prior beliefs about teaching, formed through personal experience, schooling and instruction and formal knowledge, are resistant to change. The effects of teacher education on prospective teachers' attitudes, beliefs and behaviour have been shown to be meagre (Lunenberg et al., 2007). A longitudinal study conducted by Nias (1986) in the 1980s reveals that teachers continue to be informed by their pre-training life experiences after training and as much as nine years of teaching experience. Drawing upon work by Munby and Russell (1994), Wideen, Mayer-Smith and Moon (1998) state that such findings could be very concerning for teacher educators whose work in pre-service teacher education is often based upon changing the beliefs and attitudes of prospective teachers. On the contrary, R.E. Hansen (1995) argues that the influences of pre-training experience and beliefs on teacher socialisation diminish progressively as pre-service teachers advance through teacher preparation and into the workforce. He further asserts that flexible and well-delivered teacher education programs can enable students to examine and possibly change their values, beliefs, and attitudes about teaching. Nonetheless, as Fullan (1991, p. 296) cautions, the relationship between prior beliefs and program experiences is "crucial, complex, and not straightforward."

There are a number of major explanations in the literature to explain pre-service influences on teacher socialisation. Feiman-Nemser (1983) discusses what she considers

to be three of the most prevalent explanations of these influences, which can be summarised as:

1. An evolutionary theory that emphasises the role of basic and spontaneous pedagogical tendencies to account for some of the reasons for teachers' professional behaviour. According to this view, there are certain predispositions that are present in all individuals, to varying degrees, and that are brought by pre-service teachers to teacher education.

2. A psychoanalytic explanation that teacher socialisation is affected to a large extent by the type and quality of relationships that teachers had during their formative years with important adults, such as parents and teachers. According to this explanation, becoming a teacher is, to a degree, a process (unconscious or deliberate) of striving to become like the significant others in one's childhood or to replicate childhood relationships. Therefore, the types of teachers that education students become are governed by the effects of this childhood influence on their personalities.

3. A view that emphasises the influence of the thousands of hours that teachers spent as students in contact with and observing the practice of classroom teachers. Young people see teachers at work much more than any other occupational group and amass countless impressions and beliefs about life in classrooms during their

school experience. Accordingly, prospective teachers bring to teacher education internalised models of teaching that are activated when they become teachers.

Findings presented in contemporary education literature lend significant support to the second and third of these influences (Knowles, 1992; Lacey, 1995). This can be attributed to researcher interest in examining the effects of anticipatory socialisation and ways of altering the predispositions of individuals entering pre-service teacher education programs (Kagan, 1992a). I turn now to the second part of this section of the review.

The socialising role of pre-service teacher education

In examining the socialising role of the professional component of teacher education programs, a distinction is generally always made between on-campus and field-based experiences (Bullough, 1997; Nimmo & Smith, 1994; Schempp & Graber, 1992; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Following this trend, Zeichner and Gore (1990) identify three major features of pre-service teacher programs that can potentially exert influence on the socialisation of teachers: general education and academic specialisation courses, completed outside schools, departments and colleges of education; methods and foundations courses, usually completed within education units; and field-based experiences, usually completed in elementary and secondary school classrooms. The following discussion focuses on the second and third of these features because of their relevance to this study.

Work published over a decade ago by Howey (1996) alerted the readership to the insubstantial empirical evidence associated with teacher socialisation in pre-service

programs. Earlier, Zeichner and Gore (1990, p. 334) had observed that a major problem with most of the research focusing on the role of pre-training influences on teacher socialisation was that "they have focused almost exclusively on the individual characteristics, conceptions, skills, and dispositions that students bring to teacher education programs and have ignored the collective aspects of socialisation into teaching." According to Howey (1996), the ability of pre-service programs to positively and convincingly socialise future teachers has long been questioned. Part of the difficulty attached to teacher socialisation is "rooted in the long-standing tension between general professional preparation and the specific needs and norms of the organization in which teachers eventually work" (Howey, 1996, p. 164). Johnston and Wetherill (2002) report that many students fail to recognise the connections between their coursework learning and the actualities of classroom teaching. Questions have been raised elsewhere in the literature about the efficacy of teacher education programs in counterbalancing prospective teachers' socialisation into established school practice and culture (Bransford, Derry, Berliner, & Hammerness, 2005; Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Howey, 1996; Loughran, Brown, & Doecke, 2001). For example, Smith and Moore (2006, p. 17) propose that conventional models of teacher preparation:

domesticate student teachers into a rather effective hegemonic culture of teaching [where] the new teacher, once in schools, is incorporated rapidly into the dominant patterns of pedagogical and curriculum practices of the past, within periods as short as three years.

The literature reveals the diversity of beliefs, thoughts and ideals which student teachers bring to their professional education, the power and persistence of these preconceptions, and the ways in which they influence learning from teacher education programs (Furlong & Maynard, 1995). Early research by Denscombe (1980) concludes that pre-service education programs generally tend to reinforce the already existing attitudes and beliefs of prospective teachers. Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1986, p. 255) claim that unless teacher education programs establish ways of examining prior and current assumptions and beliefs, "teacher candidates are likely to maintain conventional beliefs and incorporate new information or puzzling experiences into old frameworks." In short, programs are viewed by many as having limited ability to change the cumulative effects of students' anticipatory socialisation (Kagan, 1992a, 1992b; Tilemma, 1995; Weinstein, 1989; Zeichner & Gore, 1990) and thus do not appear to engage students in conceptual change (Kagan, 1992a).

Brouwer and Korthagen (2005, p. 154) claim that relatively little is known about the degree to which the specific strategies and arrangements of teacher education programs can make a difference in teacher socialisation, yet point out that the literature in this area "emphasizes the dominant influence of the school context on teacher behavior, discouraging the modernization of teaching." According to these commentators, it is difficult for individual teachers to influence established practice in schools and the notion that educational change can be effected through teacher socialisation during pre-service education remains somewhat idealistic. Similar reservations are expressed by Zeichner and Gore (1990, p. 343):

Studies that have focused on the institutional and cultural levels of analysis have clearly shown … that various ideological and material conditions within teacher education institutions, schools, and societies serve to establish limits on the range of options available to both teacher education students and teacher educators.

Liston and Zeichner (1991) pursue a similar theme in observing that most pre-service programs are narrowly focused and give scant attention to the social, political, and cultural context of schooling. Galluzzo (1995, p. 554) supports this view, claiming that the majority of programs do not foster a clear and consistent understanding of what teaching is and that "this allows students to proceed through their programs confirming what they already believed teaching to be and rejecting or ignoring those concepts and practices which are inconsistent with their preconceived notions of teaching." These observations align with Pfeffer and Sutton's (2000) view that before developing an understanding of *how* the job is done, it is important to internalise a set of basic principles that are constant and fundamental about *why* the job is done.

The literature also shows, however, that strengthening opportunities for pre-service teachers to integrate practical experience with theoretical study can counterbalance the *practice shock* during their subsequent entry into school practice (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Ducharme & Ducharme, 1996). A considerable body of research shows that pre-service teacher education has a significant impact on beginning teachers' pedagogical skills and their philosophies of teaching (Carter, Carre, & Bennett, 1993; Committee for

the Review of Teaching and Teacher Education, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2000a; Iredale, 1996). Howey (1996), for example, asserts that coherent pre-service programs can have positive and purposeful influences on teacher socialisation. The coherence of pre-service programs is manifest through the type of pedagogy that informs the program and that is modelled for and engaged in by pre-service teachers (Howey, 1996; Loughran, 1996).

As evidenced in findings by Riksaasen (2001), the influence of the pre-service program is not always positive. He argues that an insidious and often counterproductive influence on teacher socialisation is exerted through the conservative teaching practices of teacher educators, characteristic of many pre-service programs. Likewise, Lunenberg et al. (2007) question the competence of teacher educators to serve as role models for their students in championing new visions of learning. Myers (2002, p. 131) lends strong support to this view, describing the approach to teaching adopted by many teacher educators as constant reliance on "telling, showing, and guided practice." This approach:

> assumes that learning to teach is a rather static process by which more experienced and better read teacher educators tell their teachers-in-training what good teaching is, show them how to do it and guide them as they try to do it themselves. It presumes that the "stuff" of teaching is a rather stable, already known general set of principles and skills that are to be handed down from one generation of artisans to another. (Myers, 2002, p. 131)

In order to strengthen the socialising influence on teachers by their pre-service preparation, Myers (2002) advocates a reconceptualisation of teacher preparation in terms of teaching the students and not the curriculum. Findings by Stofflett and Stoddart (1994, p. 45) indicate that there is a direct relationship between student learning and teacher learning and that "students who learn didactically become teachers who teach didactically." They propose that the introduction of new practices into pre-service programs could contribute towards prospective teachers becoming socialised into new ways of thinking about education. In this view, modelling of best practice by teacher educators enables their students to shape their own practice accordingly.

Goodlad (1990, p. 59), in a major study of teacher preparation programs, suggests that positive teacher socialisation can be fostered through thoughtful program design, characterised by "a socialisation process through which candidates transcend their self-oriented student preoccupations to become more other-oriented in identifying with a culture of learning." Socialisation involves taking on certain moral, ethical and cultural norms over time, but how long and what it takes to absorb these norms is not known because "we have not tried to find out" (Goodlad, 1990, p. 59). Martinez (1992, p. 60) posits that the impact of pre-service programs on teacher socialisation should be considered problematic "rather than taken for granted as reactionary, liberalising, a wasteland or a wash-out." She argues that no simple linear relationship exists between teacher education and beginning teacher practices and that the impact of teacher education practices should exist along with many other personal, social and institutional factors in a complex, interconnected network. Graber (1998) adopts a similar position,

arguing that there are elements of teacher education that appear to have a strong influence on program graduates and that graduate shortcomings in terms of, for example, the implementation of pedagogical principles are due more to inadequate operational knowledge than to a lack of core values about good pedagogy.

According to Goodlad (1990), a number of goals that are essential to teacher development and positive socialisation are best, and perhaps only, achieved in programs where students are structured into groups or short-term cohort arrangements over periods of time. These goals include: promoting interpersonal development; planning as a team for instruction; engaging in cooperative learning activities; rotating assignments as teachers and learners in microteaching or teaching clinic arrangements; pursuing collaborative action research projects; forming political action committees to address specific issues on campus or in the community; helping one another develop portfolios; and providing feedback collectively to faculty about the multiple effects of programs (Goodlad, 1990). These groupings and collaborations promote positive teacher socialisation through the sharing of interpretations and beliefs by the students (Goodlad, 1990). The importance of peer grouping and collaborative learning as positive socialising factors in pre-service teacher education is documented elsewhere in the literature (Fernandez, 2002; Johnston & Wetherill, 2002; Slavin, 1995).

The literature also shows that professional relationships formed during training can have a strong socialising influence on pre-service teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 1983; Lacey, 1995; Loughran & Russell, 1997; Riksaasen, 2001; Su, 1992; Walkington, 2005). For

example, in a study of twenty-nine teacher preparation institutions, Su (1992) demonstrates that the influence of the relationships that students build with professionals, both during their in-field experience and at university, is a key feature in teacher socialisation. These relationships include those developed with supervising teachers and other staff members during field experiences, and lecturers and tutors at university.

The extent to which pre-service teachers' field or practicum experiences contribute to socialisation into teaching is also problematic (Nimmo & Smith, 1994). Although the salience of these experiences probably heightens their impact upon the pre-service teacher (Ganser, 1996), Nimmo and Smith (1994) argue the importance of recognising that practicum experiences can be hugely diverse and the degree of support and types of demands placed on the pre-service teacher extremely varied. Accordingly, they conclude that the usefulness of field experience as a powerful socialising influence is limited by its idiosyncratic nature. Kagan (1992b, p. 150) agrees that field experiences "appear to be structured idiosyncratically according to the kind of relationship that develops between a novice and a seasoned teacher who acts as host." These views are strongly supported in the literature (Boud, 2001; Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994; Ewing, Grieshaber, & McArdle, 2006; Gore, 1991; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; Metcalf, 1991; Smith & Moore, 2006; Zeichner, 1992; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Criticisms of the field experience include its "residue of past practices and external regulations [that] limit contemporary options" (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994, p. 50); its poorly defined purposes (Ganser, 1996); its weak relationship to the rest of teacher education programs (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990);

and poor procedures for selecting and weak or non-existent training given to mentor teachers and university supervisors (Glickman & Bey, 1990; Metcalf, 1991).

The literature also shows that students are socialised in different ways through the pre-teaching educational experience. Studies by K. L. Anderson (1988) and Astin (c2001), for example, identify several factors that mediate the socialising impact of teacher education programs. These include a student's age, gender, race, ability, socio-economic background, religion and degree of active participation in tertiary institutional life. Zeichner and Gore (1990) conclude that at least some of the difference that exists in socialising experiences for pre-service teachers is a result of the variations between the institutional environments of universities and teacher preparation colleges. I now review literature about the impact of workplace socialisation on beginning teachers.

Socialisation in the workplace

Occupational socialisation in schools has been shown to have a considerable influence on the development of graduates' in-service competence (Anagnostopoulos, Smith, & Basmadjian, 2007; Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Roehrig, Pressley, & Talotta, 2002). Johnston and Wetherill (2002) argue that socialisation into the particular school organisation is of great significance in the identity formation of most teachers. This is because, firstly, the practising teacher is "more intensely and extensively initiated into the norms and practices of the school than typically occurs at the pre-service level [and], second, within the school, the carriers of the local culture and traditions are immediately and inescapably present" (Johnston & Wetherill, 2002, p. 24). The beginning teacher's

sense of self can be affected by how students, other adults, and significant others react as he or she struggles to become a professional (Longmore, 1998; Roehrig et al., 2002).

Andy Hargreaves (1995, p. 80) refers to socialisation as the result of reasoned and reasonable responses to the demands of the workplace, asserting that "as social learners, teachers actively interpret, make sense of, and adjust to the requirements of their conditions of work place upon them." Taking a more sober view, L. W. Anderson (1995, p. 606) labels professional socialisation a "necessary evil," claiming that there are two problems associated with the phenomenon. First, socialisation "errs on the side of the institution rather than the individual" (L. W. Anderson, 1995, p. 606). That is, teachers may feel tensions between their own needs and desires and those of the school or school district in which they are employed. These tensions are often exacerbated in beginning teachers as they transition from student to teacher. Once in the new school, their employers expect them to perform professionally and competently when in fact, as novitiates, they often feel quite insecure as "*knowers*" (Leshem, 2008, p. 208).

A second and related problem is that socialisation favours the status quo. Beginning teachers, often insecure and lacking in confidence, are vulnerable (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002; Pugach, 1992) and reluctant to "teach against the grain" (Cochran-Smith, 1991, p. 279). Further, as Sachs and Smith (1988, p. 425) argue, "teacher culture is characterised by uniformity rather than pluralism and … the social conditions of schooling produce teacher discourse which in turn helps to reproduce school discourse." Loughran et al. (2001) also acknowledge the effects of socialisation upon beginning

teachers' practice, and note that the innovative and creative teaching practices that prospective teachers may have developed during their time in pre-service teacher education may be severely weakened by the demands associated with coping as a full-time teacher. As they navigate the university and school settings and enter teaching, beginning teachers gravitate towards the practices and values present in K-12 classrooms, often dismissing those promoted by the university as overly theoretical (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2007; Cherian, 2007).

As the term implies, socialisation is based upon the current social structure, a structure that generally privileges tradition (L. W. Anderson, 1995). As a consequence, the presence of socialising conditions often makes attempts at innovation and change very difficult (Lacey, 1995). This latter point is of particular importance to this study as the role of occupational socialisation in schools has been shown to counteract efforts of teacher educators at educating innovative teachers (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Lacey, 1995).

There are three major groupings of workplace socialisation influences commonly acknowledged in the literature, namely, school students; the ecology of the classroom; and colleagues and institutional characteristics of schools. I now discuss each in turn.

Student influences

In his seminal work in 1975, Lortie forwarded the view that school students are an important agent in the workplace socialisation of teachers. This view has been widely supported in the literature since. Zeichner and Gore (1990, p. 339) conclude that it is

inevitable that students play an important role in teacher socialisation, given the typical isolation of teachers from their colleagues and administrators and given the "transitory and invisible nature of the learning process." They contend that it is their students more than colleagues or school leaders who validate the teacher's efforts. The influence of students ranges from effects on the general teaching style and pattern of language adopted by teachers in the classroom to the type and frequency of specific pedagogical practices used by teachers. Nimmo and Smith (1994) show socialisation to be a circular process, teachers being socialised knowingly and unknowingly and in large measure by students and by organisational and societal norms. Socialisation has also been shown to be a reciprocal process as teachers' perceptions of students' characteristics, attitudes, behaviour and expectations influence the nature of teacher development (Nimmo & Smith, 1994).

Brouwer and Korthagen (2005) analysed the findings of a number of relevant research studies to report that the idealistic images that many pre-service teachers have of teaching on entering teacher preparation are shattered once they are confronted with the realities of classroom practice. Edward and Mary Ducharme (1996) agree, claiming that after many years of watching teachers and participating in the routines and rituals of school life, beginning teachers believe they understand what their job entails. However, when they do assume the role of authority in the classroom, teaching is not at all what they had previously conceptualised it to be. Brouwer and Korthagen (2005) observe that occupational socialisation begins well before the uptake of graduate teaching duties, commencing as soon as pre-service teachers move to their practical experiences in the

field. During and immediately after their pre-service preparation, teachers experience "a distinct attitude shift that entails an adjustment to teaching practices existing in schools" (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005, p. 154).

In a review of the literature on learning to teach, Wideen et al. (1998) conclude that beginning teachers often battle to gain control and experience feelings of powerlessness, frustration and anger. Their entry into the profession is characterised more by a struggle for survival than by learning through experience (Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007; Liston, Whitcomb, & Borko, 2006; Wideen et al., 1998). Similar findings are reported in a 2002 DEST report which comments that "an unsustainably high proportion of beginning teachers report significant difficulty [and] for them, 'reality shock' is very real, with results that may last from a few weeks to the whole of the first year, or longer" (DEST, 2002, p. 19). Liston et al. (2006) add further that whether the transition into the new school is easy or painful, survival remains a prominent theme for the beginning months, as new teachers resolve discipline and management problems. The intensity of the survival stage abates, often by the middle of the first year, to a focus on curriculum, teaching practices, and eventually student learning. Some studies show that graduate teachers are thus more likely to draw on their pre-service program more in their second than first year (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Grossman, 2008). However, the progression towards mastery or expertise is not achieved until some time in the fourth year of teaching or beyond (Liston et al., 2006).

Kelchtermans and Ballet (2002, p. 105) refer to the "praxis shock" which they define as "teachers' confrontation with the realities and responsibilities of being a classroom teacher that puts their beliefs and ideas about teaching to the test, challenges some of them, and confirms others." Liston et al. (2006, p. 352) offer three common explanations of the sources of beginning teachers' struggles:

> First, new teachers say the theoretical grounding learned in teacher preparation does not equip them sufficiently for the demands of daily classroom life; second, they wrestle with the emotional intensity of teaching; and third, they often teach in workplaces that are not adequately organized to support their learning.

These findings are endorsed in a 2007 Australian Government report into teacher education, *Top of the class*, which reported findings that "20-40% of beginning teachers [feel] ill-prepared across a range of dimensions" (Hartsuyker, 2007, p. 8). Similar findings have been documented in the United States, where difficulties in the beginning years of teaching have been shown to have implications for both practice and policy, particularly in light of the financial cost of teacher turnover estimated as being US$2.6 billion annually (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2004).

Beginning teachers are still integrating and consolidating their knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning into their daily practice and lack "the wisdom of experience" developed by more experienced and veteran teachers (Liston et al., 2006, p. 352). They frequently underestimate the complexity of teaching and express frustration

when they observe the difference between the standards required of teachers and their own teaching (de la Torre Cruz & Casanova Arias, 2007; Leshem, 2008). Even in cases where the complex and multi-dimensional nature of teaching is dealt with in preparation courses, it is only when beginning teachers encounter these aspects of their work "in the real world of teaching" that many fully understand the meaning of the enormity of the job and the pressure of accountability (Leshem, 2008, p. 209). As novices, they are highly vulnerable to criticism, to self-doubt and to feelings of failure (Clement, 1999; Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002), being reminded at every turn "in various and powerful ways of what [they] cannot do or [do] not understand" (Bullough & Knowles, 1991, p. 122). Further, if the teacher's beliefs and attitudes are different from those favoured in the school culture, there is the potential for problems to occur (Roehrig et al., 2002). Feeling ill-prepared by their pre-service teacher educators, beginning teachers often turn to their workplace colleagues as realistic and knowledgeable role models, as the people who know how to teach (Wideen et al., 1998). Accordingly, there is often a "washing out effect" of insights gained during pre-service preparation (Cole & Knowles, 1993, p. 473), with teachers experiencing a distinct attitudinal shift, generally resulting in an adjustment to traditional means of teaching (Korthagen et al., 2006; Lunenberg et al., 2007). This often involves the devaluing of theory and the need for reflective practice (Cole, 1997).

Conversely, there is evidence that a loss of idealism is not an inevitable result of the transition into teaching and that new models of teacher education programs are producing more resilient graduates (Johnston & Wetherill, 2002). Taking an interactionist approach to teacher transition into the workplace, some researchers (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002;

Kuzmic, 1994; Rust, 1994) conceive of teacher socialisation as an interactive and interpretative process between the novice teacher and the students with whom he/she interacts in the workplace. In this type of mutual interaction, "socialisation means that the beginning teacher is influenced by the context, but at the same time in his/her turn affects the structures in which s/he is socialised" (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002, p. 106). This view rejects the notion of novices as passive receptors of contextual norms or of presented content but rather as interactionists who remake them in some way (Bullough & Knowles, 1991).

Ecology of the classroom

Zeichner and Gore (1990) identify various factors related to the material conditions and social organisation of the classroom as important influences on teachers' work. These factors include levels of resources, teacher-student ratios, and available time. The demands on teachers posed by classroom arrangements "establish limits on the range of teacher behaviors that can be successful in particular settings and show that successful teachers must learn a set of coping strategies appropriate to particular settings" (Zeichner & Gore, 1990, p. 339). Andy Hargreaves (1988, p. 219) supports these findings, asserting that teachers' actions are closely aligned to environmental circumstances:

> Teachers do not just decide to deploy particular skills because of their recognized professional worth and value, or because of their own confidence and competence in operating them. Rather, they make judgements about the fit between particular skills, constraints, demands, and opportunities of the material environment of the

classroom; about the appropriateness of particular styles or techniques for present circumstances.

Similarly, Brouwer and Korthagen (2005) posit that styles of teaching are not the product of pedagogic choice so much as a response to the working environment within which teachers find themselves. Immersed in the school culture, beginning teachers develop new knowledge in the way of theories and beliefs and new behaviour as a result of their experiences in classroom practice (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005). Elaborating further, Riksaasen (2001) argues that there is a hidden dimension in the work of teaching which imposes strong constraints on innovative practice, and which largely accounts for teacher resistance to change. The main conservative element in teacher practice was defined in seminal work by Denscombe (1982, p. 260) as a "conscious, active response to a work situation that imposes severe practical constraints on the degree to which teachers can break from tradition." This argument is supported by Cuban's (1993) conclusion that the organisational structure of the district, school, and classroom shapes teachers' dominant instructional practices, which vary little over time and which remain predominantly teacher-centred. He explains that, due to organisational pressures of the school and district upon the classroom and constraints within the classroom such as high student numbers, limited physical space and classroom management issues, "the practical pedagogy of teacher-centred instruction continues to dominate schooling" (Cuban, 1993, p. 253).

Conversely, earlier work by Zeichner and Tabachnick (1985, p. 2) shows "a resilience

and firmness of beginning teachers under pressures to change." These researchers conducted a study of pedagogical strategies used by beginning teachers in pursuit of innovative teaching practice during early employment. The results of the study suggest that teachers are able to pursue innovative methods despite substantial difficulty in doing so. The study also showed that, within the confines of the classroom, teachers have significant freedom and are able to use pedagogies and maintain subsystems that conflict with the expectations of the school. These findings have been supported in the literature since, notably by Graber (1998).

The analysis of socialisation cannot, however, remain at the level of the classroom, because the ecological conditions therein are the product of policy decisions, administrative actions, and other influences that operate at levels beyond the operations of the classroom (Zeichner & Gore, 1990).

Colleagues and institutional characteristics

The literature presents differing views about the role that colleagues and leaders play in teacher socialisation. This can be seen to emanate from the generally similar conditions and common circumstances under which teachers within a particular school work (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). David Hargreaves (2000, p. 223) contends that beginning teachers benefit significantly from informal socialisation among experienced teachers in contexts "where there exists a professional common-sense knowledge that is not codified but works as a basis for professional use and for dialogue with colleagues."

Andy Hargreaves (1995, p. 85) also believes that colleagues have a significant influence on the socialisation of their peers, stating that "changes in beliefs, values, and attitudes among the teaching force may … be contingent upon prior or parallel changes in teachers' relations with their colleagues." He identifies four forms of collegial teacher culture: individualism, balkanisation, collaborative culture, and contrived collegiality. Individualism is characterised by teacher isolation in an insulated classroom with little interaction, support or feedback from peers, the dominant cultural form for most teachers. Balkanisation is characterised by the division and fragmentation of the teaching staff into separate and competing subgroups, which makes it difficult to establish common school goals and beliefs. Collaborative cultures among teachers are those where peer relationships "express principles of help, support, advice, planning, reflection, and feedback as joint enterprises" (A. Hargreaves, 1995, pp. 85-86). Collaborative school cultures are widely advocated but, according to Hargreaves (1995), remain a relatively rare cultural reality for teachers. Contrived collegiality describes a form of collaboration that is imposed by management and is evidenced in such measures as compulsory team planning and mandatory peer coaching. In Hargreaves' (1995) view, this form of collaboration is invidious and generates feelings of powerlessness and entrapment.

The literature also reveals that there is some debate as to the importance of the socialising role of colleagues upon beginning teachers. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993) argue that the daily rhythms of schools typically provide little time for novitiate teachers to talk, reflect and share ideas with colleagues. Further, they receive minimal adult feedback on their worth, value and competence as teachers and can find it difficult to develop the self-

confidence that they need to sustain professional growth (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993). Also referring to the isolation of teachers from their peers, Sachs and Smith (1988) argue that the professional and bureaucratic expectation is that they will achieve an appropriate degree of competency on their own. What is more, according to Sachs and Smith (1988, p. 427), the isolation of teachers in classrooms "reinforces their personal habits, thoughts, sentiments and predispositions to act." Nimmo and Smith (1994), in attesting to the individualistic nature of teaching, purport that the physical separation of teachers into self-contained classrooms can lead not only to physical isolation from colleagues but also to professional, psychological and social isolation, which means that the degree to which teachers are able to develop shared professional knowledge and values is considerably lessened. Lortie (1975, p. 72) refers to the "cellular organization" of schools whereby teachers are isolated and insulated from one another's work for most of the working day. In many school environments, asking questions and showing uncertainty are considered inappropriate behaviours for all but the very inexperienced teachers, and even neophytes are afforded only a brief period of time during which they may ask questions (Richardson-Koehler, 1988). Going public with questions, admitting to failure, seeking help from colleagues, and opening up one's classroom to others go against the norms of acceptable teaching behaviour (Lytle & Fecho, 1991).

Kelchtermans and Ballet (2002), however, note that in spite of their relative isolation in the classroom, teachers tend to be subjected to the scrutiny of colleagues, principals, parents and others in the school community. They argue that there is a high degree of visibility in teachers' professional activities (through interactions with students in the

playground, behaviour management outside of the classroom, artefacts such as homework assignments, test reports and creative work that students take home) and that this further increases the vulnerability felt by beginning teachers. The judgment or recognition by significant others can play a central role in teacher development (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002). Goddard, Hoy and Woolfolk Hoy (2004) proffer a similar argument when they observe that although the work of teaching is to an extent sheltered from influence situated beyond the classroom, the social influence of organisational culture reaches the classroom nonetheless through its influence on teachers' thoughts and beliefs.

Early research evidence shows that teachers generally receive very little advice or direct assistance from school administrators and that they are able to isolate themselves from school directives and sanctions when they wish to do so (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985). Zeichner and Gore (1990, p. 340) conclude that school leaders or "teachers' superordinates" do not contribute substantially to teacher socialisation and that "it is more through the structural imperatives of the job than through the influence of individual administrators that teaching perspectives are developed and maintained over time." Blase (1986) argues that the influence of colleagues, school administrators and parents in the socialisation process is of far less significance than the powerful socialisation effect that students have on teachers while, more recently, Sergiovanni (1996) observes that teachers are influenced by their own beliefs and those of their peers more so than by management strategies.

Conversely, Rowe (2004), having reviewed empirical studies of school and teacher effectiveness in Australia during the last twenty-five years, concludes that both administrative and social organisation features of schools play an important role, positively and negatively, in teacher development and socialisation. In a study of the experiences of new teachers, Long (2004) found that although some teachers were given support from administrators, others felt that there was little encouragement for their endeavours to explore and experiment as teachers. Some administrators worked against the new teachers' attempts to implement innovative practices, particularly in schools where specific programs and practices were mandated. In these cases, administrators were shown to have a negative socialising influence on new teachers, especially when mandated programs were antithetical to what the beginning teachers knew to be consistent with sound theory and practice (Long, 2004). Similarly, Sachs (2001) points out that in cases where teachers do act autonomously, they often find their behaviour is sanctioned by their administrative authorities.

However, new and emerging models of school management generally recast the role of school administrators as overseers of distributed leadership within their schools. As a consequence, different dynamics are emerging in the socialising impact of administrators on beginning teachers. With the devolution of Australian schools from the 1990s onwards towards self-management (Caldwell, 1993; Caldwell & Spinks, 1998; Cranston, 2000), school leaders have had to broaden their role to include, among other features, an emphasis on teacher leadership (O'Donoghue & Dimmock, 1998). For example, one contemporary view, which involves the concept of *Parallel Leadership* (Crowther, Hann,

& Andrews, 2002; Crowther, Hann, & McMaster, 2001, 2002), is described as "a form of distributed leadership that recognises definitive teacher leadership roles and posits a particular form of relatedness between teacher leaders and their principals" (Crowther, Hann, & Andrews, 2002, p. 10). In parallel leadership theory, it is asserted that where teacher leadership is flourishing there is substantive reform taking place (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). The concept acknowledges the rightful place of teachers as leaders, while supporting the role of the principal "engaging in collective action" with teachers (Crowther, Hann, & Andrews, 2002, p. 11). In this type of model, leadership is no longer considered to be the responsibility of any one individual or team but that of a committed group of teachers who have a sense of belonging and a deep commitment to whole-school success (Crowther, Hann, & Andrews, 2002). Wherever this concept prevails in schools, the influence of peers, colleagues and administrators does have a significant influence in the socialisation process due to the very nature of collective action (Crowther, Hann, & Andrews, 2002).

The potentially strong socialising role of the principal also emerges from recent research on teacher induction and professional development. The Project on the Next Generation of Teachers, led by Johnson and colleagues (2004), outlines features of schools that best support teacher learning, which include strong leadership by the principal. Effective principals are those who possess, among other characteristics, instructional leadership capacity and the ability to develop personal relationships with new teachers; give new teachers appropriate and reasonable teaching loads; provide sufficient resources to support student learning; have reasonable and consistent policies and infrastructure; and

use teachers' time well (Johnson et al., 2004). Also crucial to teachers' development is administrative support of an integrated professional culture, described by Johnson et al. (2004, p. 159) as one in which:

> There are no separate camps of veterans and novices; instead, new teachers have ongoing opportunities to benefit from the knowledge and expertise of their experienced colleague. … Mentoring is organized to benefit both the novice and the experienced teachers, and structures are in place that further facilitate teacher interaction and reinforce interdependence.

These findings are also supported in Gratch's (2001) study of beginning teachers which demonstrates the strong socialising influence exerted by colleagues and administrators in general and the principal in particular. I now turn to the next section of this review in which I examine the literature about relevant aspects of pre-service teacher education.

Pre-service teacher education

This section contains four parts. It begins with a discussion of research surrounding pre-service teacher education, identifying some of its perceived strengths and weaknesses. The second part is about characteristics of pre-service teacher education programs, with reference to current trends and future directions, as discussed in the literature. The focus then shifts to the Australian context. The third part entails a brief account of the history of pre-service teacher education in this country, and from this emanates the fourth part, a discussion about the call for reform of the industry, with an emphasis on the Australian literature.

Recent and emerging Australian and international research on educational effectiveness highlights the considerable importance of the teacher-level effect on student outcomes. In a meta-analysis of the extant research on the impact of schooling on student achievement, Marzano (2000) concludes that a reasonable estimate of the relative effects of teachers versus schools is two to one. The unique effects of individual teachers were judged to consist of "the effective use of specific instructional strategies, effective curriculum design, and effective classroom management" (Marzano, 2000, p. 66). The quality of teaching and learning provision has been shown to have by far the most salient influence on student outcomes, regardless of students' gender or backgrounds (Rowe, 2003). As noted by Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005, p. 1), "it is now widely agreed that teachers are among the most, if not the most, significant factors in children's learning and the linchpins in educational reforms of all kinds" (see, for example, Hattie, 2003; Marzano, 2000; Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001; Miller, 2003; OECD, 2005).

Darling-Hammond (2000a) identifies that much of the research on teacher effect also demonstrates the importance of teacher education for the acquisition of knowledge and skills that, when used in classroom practice, improve the calibre of instruction and the success of student learning. While falling outside the scope of this literature review, the teacher effectiveness literature provides an important backdrop to the discussion that follows.

What the research says

Research on teacher education emerged as a field in its own right and separate from research on teaching only during the last half-century. The evolution of a "sustained line of scholarship that examines the content, character, and impact of teacher education programs" (Wilson et al., 2001, p. 1) began in the 1960s and strengthened during the 1980s. This body of literature, however, has been widely criticised for its perceived limitations and weaknesses, which have been attributed by some to its newness as a research field (Ballou & Podgursky, 1998; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Kennedy, 1999a; Lagemann, 2000; Wilson et al., 2001). Smith (2008, p. 15) argues that "despite 30 years of research and development in our field, we remain a cottage industry." Similarly, Darling-Hammond (1996) maintains that, despite findings that the quality of teaching significantly affects student learning, the teaching profession is suffering from decades of neglect. Borko, Liston and Whitcomb (2007, p. 3) iterate some of the deficiencies in the body of empirical research on teacher education, noting that "critics decry its inconsistent quality and inability to respond convincingly to some of the field's most vexing problems." Grossman (2008) raises a similar argument and claims that the failure to generate appropriate empirical research has resulted in teacher educators being at risk of losing jurisdiction over the two key professional tasks of preparing new professionals and producing academic knowledge for the profession.

While there is now a solid body of literature that supports teacher education research, there is a paucity of research findings about teacher preparation for classroom practice (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Ingvarson, Beavis, Kleinhenz, & Elliott, 2004; Lucas, 1997;

Viadero, 2005; Wilson et al., 2001). This has evoked repeated calls for research into teacher preparation (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Education Commission of the States [ECS], 2003; Grossman, 2008; Ingvarson, Beavis, & Kleinhenz, 2004; Liston, Borko, & Whitcomb, 2008; Wilson et al., 2001) because "while the field does not lack exhortations about what teacher preparation *should* look like, there is much left to learn" (Wilson et al., 2001, p. 1). Rohl and Greaves (2004) concede that much of the research literature on effective pre-service teacher education is descriptive rather than empirical. Where general claims are made about initiatives and strategies for improved teacher education, they tend to relate to structural rather than to substantive issues, and depend on theoretical argument rather than empirical data (Louden et al., 2005; Rohl & Greaves, 2004). Rigorous empirical research on teacher education is complex and expensive to conduct (Borko, Liston, & Whitcomb, 2006) for reasons that are outlined by Cochran-Smith (2005, p. 303):

> To get from teacher education to impact on pupils' learning requires a chain of evidence with several critical links: empirical evidence demonstrating the link between teacher preparation programs and teacher candidates' learning, empirical evidence demonstrating the link between teacher candidates' learning and their practices in actual classrooms, and empirical evidence demonstrating the link between graduates' practices and what and how much their pupils learn. Individually, each of these links is complex and challenging to estimate. When they are combined, the challenges are multiplied.

After a four-year analysis of hundreds of studies on teacher education, a panel of scholars from the American Educational Research Association (AERA) concluded that there is very little empirical evidence to indicate that many of the most common practices in the field produce effective teachers (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005). There are calls for more, and better, research (ECS, 2003) in the area of teacher preparation and empirical evidence demonstrating the link between pre-service teachers' learning and their practices in the classroom (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005). Zeichner (2006, p. 4) shows that research has begun to identify the program characteristics of effective teacher education programs but argues that the scope of this research needs to be broadened: "we also need to conduct further research to better understand the kinds of programs, teacher education pedagogies, and curricular patterns that best prepare teachers for a broad range of desirable teacher and pupil outcomes."

Wilson et al. (2001, p. 12), in an extensive synthesis of the literature on the characteristics of effective teacher education, found that "there is no research that directly assesses what teachers learn in their pedagogical preparation and then evaluates the relationship of that pedagogical knowledge to student learning or teacher behavior." The literature also attests to the need to hear what teacher education students and beginning teachers say about their teacher preparation (Cook-Sather, 2002; Goodlad, 1990; Korthagen et al., 2006; Whitcomb, Borko & Liston, 2006). Korthagen et al. (2006, p. 20) point out that "ironically, all over the world, candidates' voices are rarely used to ascertain whether their teacher education program achieves its goals." This thesis goes some way in responding to this void in the literature through listening to voices that have hitherto been

submerged in examining the experiences of pre-service and beginning teachers in turning theory into practice.

Program characteristics and trends

This sub-section of the review is comprised of two parts. First, I discuss what the research literature provides in terms of program characteristics of pre-service teacher education. Second, I examine some of the current trends in the profession, as documented in the literature.

Program characteristics

The research literature suggests that there are several characteristics that make a difference in the design of pre-service teacher education programs. Darling-Hammond and Hammerness (2005, pp. 394-395) provide the following synthesis of these characteristics:

1. The *content* of teacher education is what is taught and how it is connected, including the extent to which candidates are helped to acquire a *cognitive map* of teaching that allows them to see relationships among the domains of teaching knowledge and connect useful theory to practices that support student learning.

2. The learning *process* is the extent to which the curriculum builds on and enables candidates' *readiness* and is grounded in the materials and tools of practice in ways that allow teachers' knowledge to be enacted in the classroom.

3. The learning *context* is the extent to which teacher learning is situated in contexts that allow the development of expert practice; such contexts include both subject

matter domains and a community of practitioners who share practices, dispositions, and a growing base of knowledge.

There are multiple arguments, however, about how to effectively organise and structure these components of programs. Wilson et al. (2001, p. i) observe that there are:

serious disagreements about what it means for teachers to be well qualified and about what it takes to prepare teachers well. Opinions and exhortations about these questions abound, and decisions about teacher preparation are made on a variety of bases.

A similar perspective is expressed by Lucas (1997) who, in addressing the question of teacher effectiveness, argues that clarity on the issue remains elusive while teacher educators themselves remain deeply divided in their views about the adequacy of the base upon which pre-service teacher education programs depend. In effect, "we don't agree about what skills and knowledge teachers need or how and when teachers should learn them" (Levine, 2006, p. 5). Thiess-Sprintall and Sprinthall (1987, as cited in Lucas, 1997) further concede that only rarely have pre-service teacher education programs been developed according to theoretically relevant criteria, let alone constructed on the basis of empirically valid data. Almost twenty years later, Haberman (2004, ¶ 6) strongly endorses this view in arguing that:

Teacher educators do not offer programs based on data. Like schoolfolk, their

programs reflect custom, tradition and the convenience of faculty. We in teacher education quack about the need for making policy based on evidence but we act in ways which are not only baseless but frequently in contradiction to the evidence.

The result is that teacher education has been subject to "almost any fad or fanciful idea which pops up from time to time" and that this has led to the emergence of "half-baked ideas and jejune proposals for reform" (Thiess-Sprintall, 1987, as cited in Lucas, 1997, pp. 37-38).

A recent study by Darling-Hammond (2006b) of seven highly successful and long-standing pre-service teacher education programs in the United States produced interesting findings about the preparation of knowledgeable and skilful teachers. The programs documented in the study demonstrate that it is possible to prepare teachers so they are ready to enter teaching equipped with knowledge and skills enabling them to serve diverse learners well and to learn continuously from their practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006b). The common elements in how the programs accomplish this are: *coherence*, based on a common, clear vision of good teaching grounded in an understanding of learning; *a strong core curriculum,* taught in the context of practice; *extensive, connected clinical experiences* that support the ideas and practices presented in coursework; *an inquiry approach* that connects theory and practice; *school-university partnerships* that develop common knowledge and shared beliefs among school- and university-based faculty; and *assessment based on professional standards* that evaluates teaching through demonstrations of critical skills and abilities (Darling-Hammond, 2006b, pp. 276-277).

However, there are a number of pragmatic and political issues to be confronted if pervasive reforms of teacher education are to make this type of teacher preparation the norm rather than the exception (Darling-Hammond, 2006b).

A 2005 Australian study on factors affecting the impact of teacher education courses on teacher preparedness found that "the variables related to *opportunity to learn during the pre-service course* … had the strongest and most consistent effects on the extent to which teachers felt adequately prepared to carry out their duties during their first year of teaching" (Ingvarson, Beavis, & Kleinhenz, 2005, p. 18). The *opportunity to learn* refers to the form and substance of learning experiences in pre-service teacher education programs. (The scales used in this study drew on the work of a range of researchers, such as Hawley and Valli, 1999, Wilson and Floden, 2003, Kennedy, 1998, and Sykes, 2002). Ingvarson et al.'s (2005) study sample was comprised of second-year teachers. The effects of the *opportunity to learn* variables were independent of the background characteristics of the teacher, their student teaching experience during their pre-service program and the school in which they taught in their first year of teaching. Further, these features of teacher education were shown to have consistently stronger effects than the nature of school experience during the program or structural arrangements within the program (such as whether it was undergraduate or postgraduate) (Ingvarson et al., 2005).

The literature reviewed shows that these particular findings stand in contrast to the existing practice commonly found within teacher education programs. That is, opportunities to learn are often not prioritised and "all too often teacher education is a

collection of courses which offer no consistent image of what it means to teach, nor what it means to learn to teach" (Galluzzo, 1995, p. 554). This observation is supported elsewhere with Cohen and Hill (2000, p. 1), for example, stating that growing numbers of educational reformers seek to manipulate policies involving assessment, curriculum and professional development in order to improve instruction, assuming that "manipulating these elements of instructional policy will change teachers' practice, which will then improve student performance." Darling-Hammond (1990, p. 287) argues that since the late 1960s "educational research has exploded the myths that any teaching is as effective as any other and equally trained and experienced teachers are equally advantageous to students. Those who are well prepared to teach do indeed teach more effectively."

An Australian report on teacher quality and educational leadership (Ingvarson, Beavis, Kleinhenz et al., 2004) claims that, despite a considerable amount of reform and innovation in teacher education programs in the nation's universities, there is little evidence on which to ascertain whether these changes are gradually increasing the efficacy and effectiveness of the investment in teacher education. The report argues that a much greater investment in teacher education research is required in order to test key propositions about the salient characteristics of effective teacher education programs, an argument echoed elsewhere in the literature, both nationally and internationally (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 1996; ECS, 2003; Fullan, 1993; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996).

Some current trends

Current trends in pre-service teacher education have been generated largely by the emergence of the knowledge economy, where knowledge is the key resource and *knowledge worker*s dominate the workforce (Drucker, 2002). The main characteristics of the knowledge society are: borderlessness, because knowledge travels even more effortlessly than money; upward mobility, available to everyone through easily acquired formal education; and the potential for failure as well as success—anyone can acquire the "means of production," that is, the knowledge required for the job, but not everyone can win (Drucker, 2002, p. 2).

These characteristics make the knowledge economy a highly competitive one. Information technology allows knowledge to spread almost instantly, making it accessible to everyone. All can acquire knowledge; knowledge workers are those who have the ability to acquire and apply theoretical and analytic knowledge (Drucker, 2002). As Andy Hargreaves (2003, p. 10) observes, "a knowledge economy runs not on machine power but on brain power—the power to think, learn and innovate. Industrial economies needed machine workers; knowledge economies need knowledge workers." This places education at the heart of economic development (Castells, 1998) and raises profound questions for the kinds of knowledge taught in schools (OECD, 2001). Fullan (1993) argues that knowledge-creation using the world of ideas about learning, including the best of cognitive science, brain research and so on, must be at the heart of teaching and schooling.

For these reasons, as Levine (2006, p. 11) states succinctly, "the future is in the hands of the nation's teachers. The quality of tomorrow will be no better than the quality of our teacher force." As the "catalysts" of successful knowledge societies, teachers must build a new kind of professionalism (A. Hargreaves, 2003, p. 15), the main components of which should be: the promotion of deep cognitive learning; learning to teach in ways they were not taught; a commitment to continuous professional learning; working and learning in collegial teams; treating parents as partners in learning; developing and drawing on collective intelligence; building a capacity for change and risk; and fostering trust in process.

In teacher education, as in most social institutions, "we need new sets of lenses through which to view the emerging knowledge economy and new models to predict and plan future strategies" (Burton-Jones, 1999, p. 5). New ways of thinking are required:

> not only in the way teacher education is organised but in the way it is supported and resourced. Greater appreciation is required of: lifelong learning and the consequent need for systematic and sustained professional learning; diversity and new demographics; partnerships; and labour mobility. (ACDE, 2005, p. 10)

Lynch (2004, p. 33) cites a number of Australian reports that attest to the need for a major overhaul of pre-service preparation "to keep pace with the new interplay between social cohesion, individual identities, citizenship, work and training." Darling-Hammond (2000a, p. 1) advocates teaching for problem solving, invention, and application of

knowledge by teachers who: have deep and flexible knowledge of subject matter; understand how to represent ideas in powerful ways; can organise a productive learning process for students who start with different levels and kinds of prior knowledge; are able to assess how and what students are learning; and can adapt instruction to different learning approaches. These views of the teacher and teaching elicit strong support in the literature (Allen, 2001; A. Hargreaves, 2003; Lynch, 2004; Marzano, 2000; Marzano et al., 2001). Darling-Hammond (2006b) further points to emerging evidence which demonstrates that individuals prepared in powerful teacher education programs are able to manage the vicissitudes of the beginning teaching years more adeptly than others.

Smith and Lynch (2006b, p. 3) contend that if schools are to effectively prepare future generations of students for a knowledge and creative society then "the skill and knowledge sets of teachers will need to be different to those of a previous age." Being knowledgeable implies having competencies and capabilities that are likely to be valuable in the future as well as in the present (Burton-Jones, 1999). This is referred to widely in the literature as a *futures orientation* or *futures perspective*. In relation to teaching and teacher education, Lynch (2004, p. 50) defines futures orientation as "the capability to engineer an alternate teaching and schooling future, complementary to the organisation's (school or schooling system) current position and which embodies personal characteristics such as courage, planned risk taking, imagination, intuition and creativity." Dator (1996, p. xx) believes educators should be cognisant of *preferred futures* that "can and should be envisioned, invented, implemented, continuously evaluated, revised, and re-envisioned."

Lynch and Smith (2006a) identify four interrelated concepts as fundamental to teacher education in the knowledge economy: capability, workplace readiness, futures orientation and partnership. Each of these concepts provides a "theoretical scaffold for understanding the BLM program" (Lynch & Smith, 2006a, p. 49). As the BLM provides the context for this thesis, I will discuss these concepts later in this and following chapters. I now review the literature concerned with some relevant aspects of teacher education within Australia.

The Australian context

This sub-section begins with a brief history of pre-service teacher education in Australia. It then provides a synthesis of the arguments in the literature that call for reform of the industry.

A brief history

Andy Hargreaves (2003) states that despite the advent of the knowledge economy and the impact of technology, there have been limited changes in models of teacher preparation programs in Australia. Others agree that apart from some modifications to enhance program efficiency, teacher preparation programs have changed little since their establishment in the 1960s when teachers were elevated to professional status and teacher preparation acquired academic legitimacy (see, for example, Ballantyne, 2004; Lynch, 2004; Smith, 2000; Tom, 1997). Course work remains the major component of the contemporary pre-service teaching program. It is typically prepared by education faculty staff and delivered to students through a lecture and tutorial mode and "organised around

the same professional knowledge domains as attributed to the 1960s" (Lynch, 2004, p. 31).

Teaching practice usually involves the application of previously learned theories (Clandinin, 1995). Bransford, Brown and Cocking (1999, pp. 188-189) identify the major components of traditional pre-service programs as: some subject-matter preparation, usually liberal arts or general education for prospective primary teachers, and subject-matter specialisation for prospective secondary teachers; a series of foundational courses, such as philosophy, sociology, history, psychology of education; one or more developmental, learning, and cognitive psychology courses; methods ("how to") courses; and a sequence of field experiences. These common curriculum features are shared by programs across different countries and cultures (Ben-Peretz, 1995). As mentioned in the previous section, the difference between traditional programs lies not in significant variations in program components but, rather, in the primacy of the different components, the lecturers' goals for their program and courses, and the attitudes and beliefs that students bring to them (Bransford et al., 1999).

Ethell (1997, p. 48) also argues that teacher education programs have remained largely unchanged since their inception and is critical of the fact that they continue to "comprise predominantly the transfer of prescribed, institutional-based propositional knowledge that is at odds with what we know constitutes good teaching and learning." As a consequence, "beginning teachers graduate from university courses which predominantly engage in 'knowledge telling' rather than 'knowledge transforming'" (Ethell, 1997, p. 48). Current

arrangements, according to Smith (2000), are fundamentally inadequate for contemporary conditions. He observes that "the reinvention of wheels happens constantly in teacher education, despite goodwill, as the proponents of each part of the model believe that their contribution is unique, invaluable and 'essential'" (Smith, 2000, p. 21). Lundgren (1987, as cited in Smith, 2005) notes that the criticisms of teacher education do not rest on its omissions but on its capacity to continue doing what it has always done, a view echoed by Darling-Hammond (2006b, p. 286):

> Tweaking traditional programs that are organized around the fragmented and front-loaded designs adopted in the 1950s is unlikely to result in the political capital or educational momentum to allow them to become powerful exemplars of what is possible in preparing teachers for the challenges they now face.

To this end, Singh (2007) expounds the need for critical self-reflection by teacher education stakeholders, entailing a rigorous re-examination of, on one hand, all good ideas about beginning teacher education and, on the other hand, the bad practices that prevail.

In an evaluation of pre-service teacher education, Tom (1997, p. 45) contends that there are four long-standing and widely-held criticisms commonly projected at pre-service programs: that they are "vapid, impractical, segmented, and muddled." He argues that courses tend to be superficial and do not equip prospective teachers with essential practical knowledge and skills. The connections between courses are tenuous and course

content often reflects the research interests of academics rather than preparing teachers for classroom practice. In a similar vein, Feiman-Nemser (2001) argues that the difficulty pre-service teachers have in bridging the gap between theory and practice is due in large part to the flawed relationship between field experiences and course work, the latter characterised by a lack of coherence, fragmentation and weak pedagogy.

Andy Hargreaves (2001) refers to a pre-professional model of teacher education where pedagogical practice is predominantly learned through transmission teaching or a brief period of apprenticeship with experienced teachers during practical placements. Other commentators agree that approaches inherent in industrial models of teacher training continue to be valued and reaffirmed in the contemporary education workplace (Apple, 2006, 2007; Connell, 1985; Kell, 2004), such that practical, "hands-on" approaches to training and more conservative styles of learning are often foregrounded (Apple, 2006). Similarly reaffirmed in many quarters, as evidenced in the literature, are stages of teacher development associated with the apprenticeship model, such as the "survival stage" at the outset of the novitiate's career and the privileging of workplace practice over university-learned theory (Apple, 2006, 2007).

Hargreaves (2001) argues that this type of outdated, industrial model of teacher training is unsustainable and totally inadequate for teachers in the knowledge society where teaching is technically more complex and wide-ranging than it has ever been. Consequently, he urges a move away from the familiar model of professional practice where much teaching and many activities are "no more than a face-saving disguise for

pedagogic impotence" to workplace ready teachers who have knowledge and understanding of curriculum, pedagogy, behaviour management, state and national education policies and child protection issues (A. Hargreaves, 2003, p. 170). Kirkby (2000) supports these concerns in arguing that teacher education programs have failed to respond to meet changing community and student profiles, and that graduating teachers are not futures oriented and are not sufficiently prepared to work in the context of a knowledge society. New styles of teaching are needed in schools to respond to the pressures and demands for students to learn new skills such as higher order thinking, collaborative work, and effective use of new information technologies (A. Hargreaves, 1997). Therefore, "teachers are now having to teach in ways they were not themselves taught" (A. Hargreaves, 1997, p. 86). Likewise, Ramsey (2000, p. 58) posits that teacher education must be more responsive to change in contemporary society and, in order to do so, "must embrace collaborative partnerships with communities and schools, and must be forward oriented and relevant to a variety of workplaces including schools."

These sentiments are echoed in an ACDE (2004) submission to an inquiry into pre-service preparation courses by the Victorian Government. The ACDE points out the increasingly complex nature of teacher education and rejects the historical notion of *teacher training* in which the teacher is perceived primarily as a technician. This is an antediluvian notion that fails to "adequately reflect the science of education" (ACDE, 2004, p. 3). The Council (2004, p. 3) urges a move in teacher education "beyond a dichotomous approach to pedagogy and content knowledge, to a more sophisticated understanding of the knowledge required to teach in the twenty first century." This view

is strongly supported elsewhere in the literature (Fullan, 2003; Nelson, 2005; Rural Education Forum Australia [REFA], 2005).

A call for reform

Two common issues that have recurred throughout the history of teacher education in Australia appear to be creating teacher education systems that appropriately respond to the social context of the period (Education Queensland [EQ], 2000; Foley, 1998; Ramsey, 2000) and striking a balance in teacher education programs between theoretical knowledge and practical pedagogical expertise (Bates, 2002; Smith, 2000). In recent years, responses to these two issues have included: calls for broader discussion within the education community on the purpose and potential of teacher education (Sullivan, 2002); calls for ongoing research into ways of improving school and university collaboration (Peters, 2002; Smith, 2000; Walkington, 2005); and calls for a balanced integration of theoretical knowledge and practical pedagogical expertise through changes in university practices and better apprenticeship models (Bates, 2002; Blaise & Elsden-Clifton, 2007; Smith, 2000). These and other responses have led to a call for reform of Australia's pre-service teacher education programs (ACDE, 2005; Donnelly, 2004; EQ, 2000; Rowe, 2005).

Pre-service teacher education is "a matter of enduring scholarly and public interest" (Louden et al., 2005, p. 11), which is evidenced in the substantial international and Australian research literature. Public concern about the quality of teaching and teacher preparation in America is highlighted in a major study by Nichols and Good (2000). The researchers analysed articles in the New York Times spanning 100 years and found

public concern with the quality of teaching to be one of three major and enduring themes that marked the interface of education and society[3]. A resultant concern is that of the quality of teacher education (Good et al., 2006). Louden and Rohl (2006) observe that the frequency of public inquiries into teacher education in Australia over the last twenty years, an average of one national or state inquiry every year, suggests that Australia's international reputation for teacher quality may be misplaced. In the report of a national inquiry into the teaching of literacy, Rowe (2005, p. 20) concludes that there are "significant opportunities for improvement in teacher preparation." From a more critical point of view, Smith and Lynch (2006b, p. 4) observe that:

> There is an immediate need for transformation of practice, a move away from the fragmented and tinkering at the edges of university-based programs that has characterised teacher education reform over the last 30 years or so. This implies a shift at the level of purpose, values, beliefs and associated means.

Conversely, Whitehead (2007) argues that teacher educators and programs across Australia and internationally have long focused on transformative approaches and that current tensions are due to differing opinions about the knowledge and skills required of prospective teachers and about the places where they might be learned, on campus or in schools.

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[3] The other themes were the use of public monies to support private schools (in particular, religious ones) and debate on equal access to high-quality education for minority children and those from low-income homes.

However, considerable dissatisfaction has been identified on the part of key stakeholders regarding the quality and relevance of pre-service teacher education and the workplace ready status of new teachers (Barone, Berliner, Blanchard, Casanova, & McGowan, 1996; Bullough & Gitlin, 2001; Macklin, 2006; VETC, 2005). In discussing the importance for the nation's social and economic future of improving teacher professionalism in order to increase *quality teaching* and *teaching quality* in our schools, Rowe (2006, p. 16) concludes that:

> The realization must be that since teachers are the most valuable resource available to schools, an investment in teacher professionalism is vital by ensuring that they are equipped with an evidence-based repertoire of pedagogical skills that **are** effective in meeting the developmental and learning needs of ALL students [bold and capitals in original].

Indeed, there is broad consensus in the literature about the importance of teachers as key participants in the reform of education and training systems (Darling-Hammond, 2000b; EQ, 2000; Ramsey, 2000). Further,

> if teachers are to be change-agents … then the reform of teacher education itself is as much as a priority as school reform [as] there is growing awareness that part of the problem is what students learn and how they learn it. (Smith, 2000, p. 15)

While past reforms of schooling have stopped "at the classroom door" (Ashenden, 1994, p. 13), there is now emerging evidence that current reforms are leading to a reconceptualisation of *what school is* and *what teachers do* (Hinton, 1997; Seddon, 1999; Seddon & Brown, 1997). That is, changes are not just about how schools might be structured and resourced but, rather, "there are alterations at the very 'heart' of schools in the learning-teaching enterprise generating major challenges to the work and professionalism of teachers" (Cranston, 2000, p. 123). The concept of New Learning, proposed by the ACDE (2001) is an example of an alternative framework to traditional models of educational thought. It advocates the need for students and teachers to become engaged with the world in which they live, to reflect on it and to develop the skills and knowledge for change and improvement (Blaise & Elsden-Clifton, 2007).

Recommendations to alleviate the perceived shortcomings in pre-service preparation include a stronger focus on practical classroom teaching and a move away from educational theory (NSW Govt, 2001; VETC, 2005). Former Australian Federal Education Minister, Brendan Nelson (2005), argued that this approach would improve the workplace capabilities of beginning teachers and increase their effectiveness in achieving student outcomes. This notion is challenged, however, by the ACDE (2005, p. 3) which argues that pre-service preparation programs should provide foundational knowledge and skills, while the onus is on the profession itself to build on those foundations to elevate the teacher "to the point of full and complete practitioner-readiness." This argument garners quite strong support in the literature. For example, Onafowara (2005, p. 35) contends that while teacher education programs should prepare individuals to teach, "the

'mastery' of teaching and instructional effectiveness is likely to occur several years into the teaching practice," a view endorsed by Grossman (2008). Accordingly, some maintain that this is where reform efforts should be concentrated (Kennedy, 1999b; Onafowora, 2005).

David and Scott Imig (2006) believe that it is unrealistic to expect beginning teachers to have all the knowledge and skill of an experienced teacher and to be capable of assuming full responsibility for a group of students on their first day of practice. Rather, considering the complexity of classroom teaching and recognising the way in which other professionals are inducted and socialised into practice, "it is more reasonable to expect teacher educators will prepare 'novice practitioners' who will 'do no harm'" (Imig & Imig, 2006, p. 286).

Similarly, Hiebert et al. (2007) argue that the strong influences of anticipatory socialisation upon prospective teachers, coupled with the relatively short time of preparation programs that they undertake, make it unrealistic for teachers to be expert classroom performers upon graduation. For this reason, among others, many commentators argue for mandatory and systemic induction and mentoring programs for beginning teachers (Furlong & Maynard, 1995; Halford, 1999; Simpson, Hastings, & Hill, 2007). Many countries already provide these (Cherian, 2007; Maandag, Folkert Deinum, Hofman, & Buitink, 2007; Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2008) and there are calls for their mandatory implementation in Australia (Skilbeck & Connell, 2004). This notion is challenged by Smith and Moore (2006) who argue that reconceptualised models of

teacher preparation should enable graduates to be ready to perform the roles of teaching, to a professional standard, upon entry into the new school, and that compulsory induction programs post graduation signal a deficit model of teacher preparation. Liston et al. (2006) make the telling observation that the above arguments capture one of the central dilemmas in teacher education: How much training is enough? Do we have an articulated shared understanding about what teacher education can and should achieve?

Salient features in the literature about teacher education include pre-service and beginning teachers turning theory into practice and bridging the theory-practice gap. These themes form the third section of this literature review, to which I now turn.

Turning theory into practice

Central to this thesis is the nexus between theory and practice, known commonly as the theory-practice gap. Pfeffer and Sutton (2000, p. 4) refer to this generically as the "knowing-doing problem," the *problem* lying in the fact that there is often a huge disparity between the theory of the pre-service program or training and the practice in the workplace. It is a phenomenon found across a broad range of disciplines, organisations and professions, and has been the focus of considerable research interest (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Bullough, 1997; Carlson, 1999; Day, 1999; Golden-Biddle, Estabrooks, & GermAnn, 2003; Loewenberg Ball & Cohen, 1999; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, 2006; Reid & O'Donoghue, 2001; Reidy, 2006; L. S. Shulman, 1992; Tom, 1997; Yayli, 2008). Lee Shulman (1992, p. xiv) states succinctly that "teaching is not alone in confronting this fundamental gap between theory and practice. It is the challenge facing all education for the professions." For example, research in nurse education during the past twenty-five

years has addressed the theory-practice phenomenon in ways including workplace-integrated learning, how to facilitate learning in the clinical area, and the role of the nurse educator (Beattie, 2001; Landers, 2000; Last & Fulbrook, 2003; Spouse, 2001). Research in medical, engineering and police education has addressed similar issues, particularly regarding how to reconcile university-learned theory with workplace practice (Birzer, 2003; Davison, 2005; Hudson, Buckley, & McMillen, 2001). Further, as Brouwer and Korthagen (2005, p. 154) point out, "a gap between theory and practice seems to persist across different times and contexts." It would seem that the difficulty of integrating theory and practice in professional education has long generated much debate but resulted in few solutions. (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999).

Emerging from the body of theory-practice research is a number of different interpretations about what constitutes the gap between the two. Golden-Biddle et al. (2003) classify these into three groupings. First, they refer to the prevailing view that identifies the theory-practice gap as resulting from the great divide or chasm between two communities with often very different cultures. Associated with this view is the notion of *bridging* the gap and developing best practices of knowledge transfer that can be generally applied. Second, there is an emergent view that attributes the existence of the theory-practice gap to organisational deficiencies that prevent practitioners from implementing in practice the theory learned in pre-service preparation (Golden-Biddle et al., 2003). Third, they discuss a novel alternative view that considers the theory-practice gap as an opening or pass that connects people participating in separate communities and that fosters communities of practice. Rather than treating the theory-practice gap as

negative, as something to solve and resolve, proponents of this view regard the gap as a connective and as an essential part of producing and using knowledge (Golden-Biddle et al., 2003). Contemporary views on the theory-practice gap in pre-service teacher education align most commonly with the first of these three views.

The theory-practice gap in pre-service teacher education

One of the major and long-standing challenges of pre-service teacher education programs has been to strike a balance between the theory and practice of the profession (Bates, 2002; Ethell, 1997; Korthagen et al., 2006; Smith, 2000, 2008)[4]. The literature contains a large body of research identifying significant inadequacies in teacher education programs in enabling students to apply the knowledge and skills of their pre-service preparation in the workplace (Bates, 2002; Connelly & Clandinin, 1995; DEST, 2002; Ethell, 1997; Kalantzis, Cope, & Harvey, 2003; Levine, 2006; Louden et al., 2005; C. S. Marshall, 1999; Murray, Nuttall, & Mitchell, 2008; Nelson, 2005; Skilbeck & Connell, 2004; Smith, 2000, 2008; Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 1996). This statement by Skilbeck and Connell (2004, p. 12) is representative of the views of many critics:

> There is widespread criticism of educational theory courses, notably by students
> in training, beginning teachers and school principals. Teachers in their initial

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[4] The tension between theory and practice is in many senses a corollary of the professionalisation of teaching. The political and industrial context of teachers' work was inexorably altered when responsibility for teacher training fell to the universities in the 1960s (Davis & Roper, 1982; Russell, 1988). Before this time, teacher training took the form of an apprenticed, highly industrial model of work. The contemporary front-end method of training, common to most university programs, has, among other issues, raised questions about the theory-practice dichotomy (Bates, 2002; Connelly & Clandinin, 1995).

years in the profession express frustration over coursework for which they generally perceive little value intellectually or practically. Most find considerable difficulty in explaining the relevance of educational research and theory to their teaching.

Smith (2008, p. 3) puts forward a similar view in suggesting that the problem is long-standing and pervasive:

> By the 70s and 80s there was a growing awareness by students, researchers, the practitioners or the profession that campus dominated, front-end programs did not seem to deliver what was required in the teaching jobs for which students were being prepared. Furthermore, it was clear that on-campus theory was having minimal effects on what counted as teacher education in comparison with the domesticating influences of the school.

This commentator attributes the failure of pre-service programs to effectively prepare students to, among other factors, the conservative practices and mindsets of teacher educators. They lack the energy, imagination or determination to create change and inevitably succumb to the practices of the status quo (Smith, 2008).

 Tom (1997, p. 130) makes the apposite comment that "although teaching is a deeply intellectual enterprise, in both its pedagogy and its content, teaching also is a fundamentally practical activity." Levine (as cited in Hartocollis, 2005, ¶ 17) also

acknowledges a widely-held concern in stating that "one of the biggest dangers we face is preparing teachers who know theory and know nothing about practice." It is considerably disquieting to note that, as far back as the 1920s, Dewey (1928) was expressing similar concerns. Others suggest that separating theory from practice creates a false dichotomy and that teaching is a profession in which theory is embedded in and inseparable from practice (Carr, 1987; Lenz Taguchi, 2007; Schön, 2003). Lenz Taguchi (2007, p. 278), for example, argues that because theories in education are constituted by and perpetually reconstituted as "collectively and culturally-specific materialized meaning-making," it is not possible to determine where theory ends and practice begins.

Despite the diversity of opinions about theory-practice in teacher education, it is widely perceived as inherently problematic in pre-service programs. The way of overcoming this issue, argue a number of researchers, lies in an overhaul of traditional programs. Ethell (1997), for instance, argues that reforms in teacher education can only be attained through a resolution of the dilemma of the theory-practice nexus with respect to learning to teach. Adopting a similar view, Smith and Moore (2006) conclude that education faculties must change their values about the priority of theory to practice if they are to respond adequately to the long-standing criticisms directed at them about the capabilities of beginning teachers.

An assumption that has long been implicit in professional pre-service programs is that the knowledge, skills and practices imparted to students at university will be subsequently

applied by them in the workplace (Allen, 2006; A. Hargreaves, 1997; J. H. Shulman, 1992; Wideen et al., 1998). As Wideen et al. (1998, p. 167) explain:

> The implicit theory underlying traditional teacher education was based on a training model in which the university provides the theory, methods and skills; the schools provide the setting in which that knowledge is practiced; and the beginning teacher provides the individual effort to apply such knowledge. In this model, propositional knowledge has formed the basis of university input.

A substantial body of research, however, attests to a disparity between the theory presented in the pre-service program and the practice of the workplace (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Goodlad, 1990; A. Hargreaves, 1997; Maandag et al., 2007; Neville et al., 2005). Critics of teacher education are quick to point out deficiencies in program design and delivery when it appears that theoretical knowledge and understanding have been prioritised over learning practical skills (Liston et al., 2006).

Learning to become a teacher in current programming arrangements, according to Sumara and Luce-Kapler (1996), involves acquiring theoretical knowledge that is presented in university classrooms geographically and ideologically distant from school classrooms. In arguing for the redesign of teacher education, Tom (1997, p. 139) is also critical of traditional programs for "fail[ing] to acknowledge the great difficulty novices have in stockpiling pedagogical knowledge for subsequent application to practice." In this regard, Smith (1984, p. 5) is instructive:

It is assumed that the objectives of on-campus courses are generated by a later effect, the "effective," "good" practice of teaching. On-campus activities are specifically aimed at shaping student teacher teaching behaviour but "real" teaching is at a distance and in the future. The on-campus activities are therefore only metaphoric rather than intrinsic.

As a consequence, Smith (1984, p. 10) argues that "there is a gap between pre-service teacher education and the work of teaching; and … this gap cannot be meliorated by fine-tuning of pre-service programs because the 'gap' is inherent in the process." Although expressed over twenty years ago, Smith's position and the implications of his position, that the in-field learning of skills should be taken seriously and that on-campus pre-service preparation should be reoriented, remain relevant when considering the current arrangements for pre-service teacher education in Australia.

Another critic is J. H. Shulman (1992, p. xiii) who argues that the professional knowledge taught in typical pre-service programs is not relevant for today's teachers and highlights the gap that exists between the complex and ambiguous reality of classroom life and the theoretical principles taught as "quasi-prescriptions" in pre-service programs. She observes that:

Traditionally, teacher educators draw on theoretical research, such as classroom management and multicultural studies, and proceed to teach this information as

formal principles to their students. They expect that novices will apply this knowledge when they are out in real classrooms. Unfortunately, it is rarely that simple. The ambiguity and complexity of teaching meaningful and relevant lessons to real children in today's classrooms make it almost impossible for neophytes (and often veterans) to apply the generic prescriptions they learned in their pre-service and inservice programs. (J. H. Shulman, 1992, pp. xiii-xiv)

A similar perspective is expressed by Merseth (1992) who concludes that teacher education must change to align more effectively with the broadened conceptualisation of the teacher reflected in recent research. Where once conceived as a narrow transmitter of knowledge, the teacher is now seen as an "individual making hundreds of daily decisions and interacting with learners in a context of particular learning situations" (Merseth, 1992, p. 53). Similarly, Ashton (1996) advocates the development of a radical new and effective pedagogy of teacher education. During the past decade, this has been a major focus in teacher education in a number of countries, as evidenced by the many publications that focus on new pedagogies (see, for example, Bullough & Gitlin, 2001; Loughran & Russell, 1997; Richardson, 1997; Segall, 2002).

Ben-Peretz (1995) likewise believes that the theory-practice divide will not be overcome without fundamental changes to teacher education programs. He is critical of the fact that "the hidden curriculum of teacher education tends to communicate a fragmented view of knowledge, both in coursework and in-field experiences. Moreover, knowledge is 'given' and 'unproblematic'" (Ben-Peretz, 1995, p. 546). The disconnection between the in-field

and on-campus components of pre-service programs tends to result in a devaluing by prospective teachers of aspects of their theoretical learning (Goodlad, 1990). Bransford et al. (1999, p. 189) identify that "the actual experiences of many prospective teachers often obscure the philosophical or ideological notions that guide their preparatory years, which colors evaluations of the quality of pre-service experiences." Smith (1984, p. 2) is informative on this issue in highlighting the driving force of teacher work in the classroom:

> While formal educational rhetorics are abstract and distant, the practical work of teachers is concerned with the immediate, the direct, the concrete conditions and events of the classroom. In this sense teachers are most urgently concerned with routinized and typical, yet unpredictable events. "Survival" for the individual teacher depends on the use of pragmatic operational principles that generate workable behaviours.

It is not surprising then that in-field experience is considered by prospective teachers as the most significant factor in their pre-service education (Clement, 1999; Mitchell & Schwager, 1993; Poulou, 2007; Yayli, 2008) and that it takes on a fundamental importance in the formation of their role and perceptions of their responsibilities as future teachers (Fennell, 1993; Poulou, 2007).

The gap between the realities of teaching and on-campus courses becomes evident from the first practice teaching session undertaken by pre-service teachers (Smith, 1984).

Therefore, it is little wonder that the preponderance of evidence suggests that, when making instructional decisions, teachers tend to devalue and, in many cases, rarely draw upon the kind of theory that is presented to them in their pre-service preparation (Berliner, 1986; Fuller, 1969; Griffiths & Tann, 1992; Hogan, Rabinowitz, & Craven, 2003; van den Berg, 2002). Britzman (2003, pp. 4-5) demonstrates this issue in a study of pre-service secondary teachers for whom "practice and a school classroom become affixed to reality while theory and university courses become relegated to ideals." Prospective teachers develop a "disdain for theory," preferring instead the "practical" that can readily be implemented into classroom practice (Segall, 2002, p. 155).

An associated problem is identified by Elliot (1991) who states that teachers who realise they are unable to implement the theory presented to them by experts often feel they have failed to live up to the expectations that these experts seem to have of them. Accordingly, "teachers often feel threatened by theory" (Elliot, 1991, p. 45) and are prone to adapt to the common habit of teachers to disregard teacher education as too theoretical and useless. In doing so, beginning teachers can no longer be held accountable or be blamed for not practising according to the theoretical insights they were taught. Elliot (1991, p. 47) concludes that "the perceived gap between theory and practice originates not so much from demonstrable mismatches between ideal and practice but from the experience of being held accountable for them." Korthagen et al. (2006) support Elliot's argument in observing that this phenomenon, which seems to have been overlooked in traditional theory-into-practice approaches to teacher education, may well account for the phenomenon of the reality shock in beginning teachers.

Lucas (1997) draws upon early work by Haberman (1971) in presenting another bleak perspective about the theory-practice divide in teacher education. This perspective focuses on the dichotomous role of pre-service teacher educators, their contribution to scholarship often taking precedence over a commitment to teaching. Recent Australian research has produced similar findings (Ingvarson, Beavis, & Kleinhenz, 2005; Ingvarson, Beavis, Kleinhenz et al., 2004; Smith & Lynch, 2006b; VETC, 2005). Commentators such as Haberman (1971, as cited in Lucas, 1997, p. 158) criticise teacher educators for performing in a "neverland," existing somewhere between abstract theory and empirical practice. He is sceptical about the pretensions of teacher educators to link pedagogical theory to practice and critical of their ability to offer much in terms of useful advice to pre-service teachers. He concludes that most education faculties "have a few generalizations that we pass off as theoretic principles, and a few illustrations that we pass off as practical expertise" (Haberman, 1971, as cited in Lucas, 1997, p. 158). More recently, Delisle (1992) identifies that what counts in education faculties in terms of academic credibility and tenure and promotion is scholarship or published research, not teaching or supervision of student teachers. He observes that "in the dog-eat-dog 'culture' of higher education, a two-page article in some obscure journal ranks higher than a semester of excellent teaching evaluations. Go figure" (Delisle, 1992, p. 5). In a more measured account, G. L. Anderson and Herr (1999, p. 12), drawing upon work by Meyer and Rowan (1977), reflect that teacher educators face complex problems since they "must legitimate themselves to an environment which includes both a university culture that values basic research and a professional culture of schooling that values applied research

and narrative knowledge." This dichotomy raises serious concerns about the capacity of teacher educators to prepare teachers for the practicalities of teaching (VETC, 2005).

Despite rhetoric about teacher education reform, contradictions persist between theory and practice in teacher education institutions and little progress has been achieved (Korthagen et al., 2006). Russell (1999, p. 220), in voicing his concern over this issue, asserts that "universities, generally, and university-based teacher educators particularly, have no right to recommend to teachers any teaching practices that they have not themselves used successfully at the university." Bullough (1997) remarks that while it is common for teacher educators to discuss the need for linking theory with practice, those who teach the theory seldom venture into the field. Further, while it is common for teacher educators to advocate innovative practices, they are unprepared or unable to model or illustrate such practices in their own classrooms. Accordingly, teacher education reform remains elusive (Korthagen et al., 2006).

What emerges clearly from the literature is that the issue of the theory-practice gap is neither minor nor benign, which accounts for the number of studies that call, first, for more empirical evidence to demonstrate the link between student teachers' learning and their practices in the classroom and, second, for ways of avoiding and overcoming the theory-practice gap (Carlson, 1999; Cochran-Smith, 2005; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Ingvarson, Beavis, Kleinhenz et al., 2004; Viadero, 2005; Wilson et al., 2001).

Closing the gap

The literature reveals that discussions of the theory-practice gap and teacher preparedness focus on two main areas of professional development during pre-service preparation: what students learn on campus and their in-field experiences. For the purposes of this review, these will be discussed under the headings of *professional knowledge* and *professional practice* (VETC, 2005).

Professional knowledge

There is broad consensus in the international and Australian literature around the argument that the professional knowledge component of teacher education needs to be reformed (Ben-Peretz, 1995; Borko et al., 2006; Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 1995, 1996; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Grossman, Smargorinsky, & Valencia, 1999; A. Hargreaves, 1997; Hartocollis, 2005; Ingvarson, Beavis, Kleinhenz et al., 2004; Merseth, 1992; Reid, 2001; Reid & O'Donoghue, 2001; Smith, 2000, 2008; Tom, 1997; Wilson et al., 2001). Darling-Hammond (1995) observes that teacher education emphasises the development in pre-service teachers of subject matter and instructional strategies at the expense of sufficient grounding in student learning, and that an understanding of learners and learning is the most neglected aspect of teacher education. According to Darling-Hammond (1995, p. 14), if it were to place more emphasis on pre-service teachers developing an understanding of learning then they would develop a "greater command of both content and pedagogy in order to create and manage students' learning."

The importance of pedagogical content knowledge has been well documented. Grossman, Schoenfeld and Lee (2005, p. 207) draw upon early work by Lee Shulman (1986) to define this concept as:

> The most regularly taught topics in one's subject area, the most useful forms of representations of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations—in a word, ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others. Pedagogical content knowledge also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult; the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons.

These researchers hold the view that a series of questions needs to be addressed regarding the knowledge of content for teaching, most notably what it means to understand one's subject matter for the purposes of teaching it to others. In short, knowing what and knowing how are inseparable in the practice of effective teaching (Lovat, 2003). In the context of pre-service teacher education, some commentators argue that courses need to make explicit "the fundamental principles of sound pedagogy and the methods they will use to ensure future teachers will learn to implement them" (Ingvarson, Beavis, Danielson, Ellis, & Elliott, 2005, p. 107). One of the purposes of teacher education is to initiate inquiry into questions surrounding pedagogical practice and to assist prospective teachers to construct answers to these questions (Grossman et al., 2005). Hammerness

(2006) advocates that, to bridge the theory-practice gap, teacher educators should lead students in preparing to actually enact vision at three levels: that of the teacher, of the classroom and of the school.

In a recent scathing critique of pre-service teacher education in America, Lee Shulman (2005, p. 7) argues that there is so much variation among programs, in visions of good teaching, rigour of subject matter preparation, what is taught and learned and the like, that "the sense of chaos is inescapable." He believes that:

> Teacher education will only survive as a serious form of university-based professional education if it ceases to celebrate its idiosyncratic "let a thousand flowers bloom" approach to professional preparation. There should be no need to reinvent teacher education every time a school initiates a new program. Like our sibling professions [law, engineering, medicine, nursing, the clergy], we must rapidly converge on a small set of "signature pedagogies" that characterize all teacher education. (L. S. Shulman, 2005, p. 7)

These sentiments are echoed elsewhere, notably by the Carnegie Corporation of New York (2006) and in Australia by Smith and Moore (2006).

On the contrary, there are many critics, particularly outside the teacher education field, who doubt the value of pedagogical study and who deem knowledge of content to be the fundamental ingredient of effective teaching (ECS, 2003; Goodlad, 1990; Lloyd-Jones,

1990; Woodring, 1987). Arguments raised in support of this perspective include the belief that expertise in knowledge of content reduces management problems; that education courses on such topics as general methods and learning theories lack substance and rigour; and that the mechanics of learning to teach can be acquired on the job under the guidance of a mentor or master teacher (Goodlad, 1990; Lloyd-Jones, 1990; Woodring, 1987). These beliefs, which were strongly advocated by Conant (1963) in the 1960s, belong to what is referred to as the *academic reform tradition* in teacher education (Tom, 1997).

Tom (1997) is highly critical of the typical professional knowledge content in pre-service teaching programs, deeming it dysfunctional. According to him:

> The prospective teacher must try to graft methodological and managerial skill onto foundational study that is detached from teaching. Not surprising, foundational study makes little impression on novices. Moreover, foundational content often glosses over the intricate relationship between pedagogical knowledge and teaching success. (Tom, 1997, p. 130)

Instead, Tom (1997, p. 130) posits that teacher education should be seen as a model of inquiry and skill development, comprising new structural principles that unify "the pedagogical theory, professional dispositions, practical skill and intellectual analysis that is the essence of good teaching." One means of accomplishing this is through an early and ongoing integration of professional practice into pre-service programs; "teaching

practice and the study of professional knowledge ought to be integrated—or some teaching practice should precede the study of professional knowledge" (Tom, 1997, p. 139). This argument is supported by Pfeffer and Sutton (2000, p. 251) who claim that "without being in the actual setting and confronting the actual 'part,' learning is more difficult and less efficient because it is not grounded in real experience."

Darling-Hammond and Hammerness (2005, p. 402), however, highlight the importance of recognising that learning in practice does not just happen on its own, that "practice alone does not make perfect, or even good, performance," and that opportunities to connect practice to expert knowledge must be incorporated into pre-service programs. This is exemplified in a recent study by Kunzman (2002) of experienced teachers who elected to return to a pre-service program after several years of teaching. The study found that these teachers, rather than finding they had learned everything they needed to know about their practice from experience, reported that the program had taught them a number of skills for the first time. These included how to design effective curriculum, how to support students at risk, and how to assess, reflect upon and improve their teaching (Kunzman, 2002).

As Ethell (1997) demonstrates, prospective teachers during pre-service teacher education may not be exposed to and/or have the opportunity to develop the cognitive and metacognitive processes through which they can gain meaningful understanding of relationships between the theoretical knowledge learned through their formal pre-service teacher education and the procedural knowledge that they endeavour to develop during

practicum experiences. Therefore, the knowledge encountered through on-campus course work "remains inert and untapped as beginning teachers appear unable to interpret classroom situations in pedagogically appropriate ways" (Ethell, 1997 p. 5). These findings are supported by Kane (1993) whose research shows that the tenuous link between propositional and procedural knowledge, evident in the thinking of prospective teachers during their pre-service education, weakens upon graduation and appointment to a full-time teaching position.

There are multiple arguments in the literature in favour of establishing stronger alignment between universities and schools to enable the reappraisal and restructuring of the knowledge component of pre-service programs (Bullough & Kauchak, 1997; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1998; Darling-Hammond, 2006a, 2006b; Driscoll, Benson, & Livneh, 1994; Ganser, 1996; Goodlad, 1990; Imig & Imig, 2006; Liston et al., 2006; Sachs, 1999; Skilbeck & Connell, 2004; Smedley, 2001; Smith & Moore, 2006; Watkins, 1990; Zeichner, 2006). Currently, many collaborative arrangements between schools and universities are ineffectual. They comprise "little projects that do little things—maybe even important things—but they are not part of the institutional fabric" (Watkins, 1990, p. 15).

David and Scott Imig (2006) attribute the outdated professional knowledge taught at university to the broad divisions between the two sectors. They argue that, despite the protestations by teacher educators that two generations of effort at partnership and collaboration, internship and induction have bridged this divide, teaching and teacher

education continue to be seen as separate and unequal by policy makers and K-12 practitioners. Bullough and Kauchak (1997, p. 230) agree that progress has been slow and point out that "the common perception that teachers are born, not made, and that teacher education is essentially synonymous with time spent in schools, suggests a good deal of work needs to be done if collaborative relationships are to develop." Goodlad (1990) and Taylor (2008) assert that the in-field and on-campus components of teacher education will remain disjointed while they are taught and overseen by people who have little ongoing communication with each other. Adopting a similar perspective, Ganser (1996) highlights the need to develop more mutual understanding between stakeholders. He contends that there is a lack of clarity in defining roles and responsibilities of cooperating teachers and university supervisors and that this lack of definition explains the wide variance in the ways in which cooperating teachers, supervisors, and student teachers interact. Mitchell and Schwager (1993) and Yayli (2008) add support to this argument in claiming that misunderstanding and/or disagreement between members of the triad (namely, the student teacher, mentor teacher and university supervisor) regarding the purposes of the in-field experience is the norm rather than the exception.

Results from a qualitative study by Driscoll et al. (1994) suggest that the notion of theory-practice is recursive in that many of the inadequacies in the on-campus program both result in and are maintained by inadequate collaboration between schools and university partners in teacher education. Darling-Hammond (2006a) identifies collaborative partnerships between universities and schools as one of three critical components in creating stronger, more effective teacher education programs. In her view,

the three critical components are: tight coherence and integration among courses and between course work and clinical work in schools; extensive and intensely supervised clinical work integrated with course work using pedagogies that link theory and practice; and closer, proactive relationships with schools that serve diverse learners effectively and develop and model good teaching. Similar views are expressed by Louden et al. (2005) in advocating enhanced links between teacher education institutions and schools to improve both the professional knowledge and professional experience components of pre-service teacher education programs. Zeichner (2006, p. 5) suggests that the creation of more effective teacher education programs entails:

> moving teacher education away from the traditional sink-or-swim model of field experience and toward a model like the professional development school or partner school where university faculty and staff provide instruction about teaching that is situated in relation to specific teaching contexts and where expertise of P-12 teachers informs this instruction and the general planning and evaluation in the teacher education program as a whole.

Proffering a similar argument, Smith (2000) adds that as teacher education undergoes reorganisation, relations between the university and its historic partners take on new meanings. Under these altered conditions, the leadership role of teacher education loses its legitimacy. Accordingly, he and Moore (2006, p. 20) propose a "business to business" arrangement between university and industry to achieve professional outcomes on behalf

of potential members of the profession that cannot be achieved by either organisation alone.

While school-university partnerships have the potential to bridge the theory-practice gap, they also provide opportunities for the sharing of knowledge and skills between sites and, in so doing, simultaneously renew the settings that comprise the partnership (Stephens & Boldt, 2004). Examples of successful Australian partnership initiatives include the Knowledge Building Community (Kiggins, Cambourne, & Ferry, 2005), the Australian Project for Enhancing Effective Learning Project (Erikson, Brandes, Mitchell, & Mitchell, 2005), the Teacher Renewal through Partnership Program (Perry, Komesaroff, & Kavenagh, 2002) and the Staff Development 2000 Project (Jenlink & Kinnucan-Welsch, 2001). These partnerships all share a common approach to professional development. In each instance, professional development has emerged from a school context and is based on the needs of the school or school community as well as those of the teacher education providers. Further, collaborative learning communities of school and university personnel are integral to each program. Teacher and school renewal and the development of workplace capacity have been shown to ensue from these types of initiatives, as have stronger school-university links (Stephens & Boldt, 2004).

These notions of partnership and collaboration in teacher education align with the *social geography* of Mode 2 society "where boundaries between institutions are dissolving, where roles are becoming less segregated and where borders are becoming increasingly irrelevant" (A. Hargreaves, 2001, p. 100). Successful teacher education partnerships are

based on collaboration (Furlong, Barton, Miles, Whiting, & Whitty, 2000; Tom, 1997) whereby the education of future teachers is perceived as a joint industry and university responsibility and no longer as a university *problem* (Smith, 2000; Smith & Lynch, 2006b). Integral to this model is:

> the commitment to develop a training programme where students are exposed to different forms of educational knowledge, some of which come from school, some of which come from higher education or elsewhere. Teachers are seen as having an equally legitimate but perhaps different body of professional knowledge from those in higher education. (McIntyre, 1991, as cited in Furlong et al., 2000, p. 80).

Indeed, Smith and Moore (2006) view academic knowledge and practical expertise as having no particular claim to authority until they can both be shown to build capability and capacity in pre-service teachers.

However, forging collaborative models of this nature is problematic (Ganser, 1996). One potential impediment to successful collaborative arrangements, as identified by Sachs (1999), is the lack of reciprocity between academics and teachers in recognising the differences between their cultures, histories and expectations. Sachs (1999) argues that while many academics work hard to cross the divide between school and academic cultures, perhaps because of their own experience in schools, teachers are less likely to do so, often showing disinterest in academic work or the demands placed on academics in

their work. Indeed, contrary to the ideals enunciated by commentators such as Smith and Moore (2006), Sachs (1999, p. 47) contends that:

> the theory/practice split stands at the core of the cultural differences between school and university staff. The view that experience counts and theory doesn't is a common comment when one engages in discussion with teachers. … An ethic of practice which dominates teachers' orientation to their work often creates tensions between teachers and their academic colleagues when undertaking collaborative work.

These findings, echoed elsewhere in the literature (see, for example, Allen & Butler-Mader, 2007), suggest that much stronger collaboration between the two sectors must be achieved before progressing to a model where pre-service teacher education becomes a joint school/university responsibility.

Another widely acknowledged concern is the lack of clarity surrounding the roles of school and university personnel in the practicum experience (Allen & Peach, 2007; Bullough & Draper, 2004; Cherian, 2007; Glickman & Bey, 1990; Gore, 1991; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). Guyton and McIntyre (1990) observe that documents provided by colleges and universities are not explicit in enumerating roles and responsibilities for those involved in the practicum triad. This vagueness fosters a free interpretation of what the practicum experience involves (Bullough & Draper, 2004; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; Hayes et al., 2008) and differing backgrounds, perspectives and expectations between the

school and university supervisors can often lead to conflict (Boydell, 1991). In a study involving groups of mentor teachers and university supervisors, both "reported little systematic orientation to their functions in the student teaching experience except to note that they were there to somehow help the student teachers. The nature of that help was seldom described with any precision" (Griffin, 1986, pp. 251-252). These findings are supported elsewhere (Cherian, 2007; Wang & Odell, 2002).

Drawing upon previous studies of teacher education programs, Grossman et al. (1999) highlight an incongruity between the teaching approaches advocated by teacher educators on campus and those typically practised in school settings. While many training programs expose pre-service teachers to methods including "instruction that is experiential, learner-centered, activity-oriented, interconnected, and constructivist," the practice in schools often remains much as it has always been: "content-oriented, teacher-centered, authoritarian, mimetic, and recitative" (Grossman et al., 1999, p. 1). This incongruity has been the source of much concern and vexation for teacher educators who see their attempts at enabling reformed teaching practices thwarted (Grossman et al., 1999).

Professional practice

The role that professional practice plays in enabling links to be made between theory and practice is problematic. While professional practice, commonly called in-field experience or practicum, is a core component of most Australian pre-service teacher education programs, there are questions about the efficacy of what is widely considered to be its core purpose, namely, enabling students to apply knowledge, skills and understanding learned on campus in the workplace. In a submission to the House of Representatives

Inquiry into Teacher Education, the ACDE (2005, p. 4) argues for more cohesion between the theory and practice of teacher education:

> Professional practice needs to be at the heart of teacher education. This is more complex than simply increasing the practicum component of courses, and involves relating professional experience to theoretical insight. The relationship between theory and practice needs to be seen as essentially intertwined.

This view is supported by Ingvarson et al. (2004) who identify the need to build into pre-service programs linking mechanisms that enable students to move from understanding the theory taught on campus to applying it appropriately during professional practice. The researchers add that this shows the complexity of the task faced by teacher educators, a view echoed by Kyriacou (1993) and Imig and Imig (2006).

According to Darling-Hammond (1998), it is through practice that theory becomes meaningful. Drawing upon Miller and Silvernail (1994), she claims that "the 'rub between theory and practice' occurs most productively when questions arise in the context of real students and work in progress, and where research and disciplined inquiry are also at hand" (Darling-Hammond, 1998, p. 3). Research on the outcomes of pre-service teacher education efforts lends support to the idea that "carefully constructed field experiences can enable new teachers to reinforce, apply, and synthesize concepts they are learning in their coursework" (Darling-Hammond & Hammerness, 2005, p. 401). In this regard, Wheldall (2006) is also instructive. He believes that practice and theory in

prospective teachers' work should be seen as mutually informing and that teaching practice, rather than merely being informed and driven by theory, should also be seen to influence and generate theory. Hunt (1987, p. 109) also contends that theory should emerge from practice because "unless theories come from practice, they will not apply to practice."

Key to theory and practice being mutually informing is the concurrent timing of coursework and fieldwork. Darling-Hammond and Hammerness (2005, p. 401) observe that "whereas in the traditional undergraduate program, student teaching was often placed at the end of a program, as a kind of culminating experience, many programs are now entwining carefully designed clinical experiences early and throughout a program." It also appears that students who have had some experience in the field before beginning coursework are more prepared to make sense of the theories and concepts that they encounter in their academic work (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Denton, 1982; Fenstermacher, 1993). Common to the arguments of these researchers and others (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; DEST, 2002; Goodlad, 1990; Holmes Group, 1986, 1995; Koerner & O'Connell, 2002; Ministerial Advisory Council on the Quality of Teaching, 1997) is the need to establish stronger links between theory and practice as core elements in new models of pre-service teacher education.

In the view of a number of researchers, some of the dilemmas associated with the theory-practice dichotomy can be alleviated through an emphasis on reflective practice (Bransford et al., 1999; Darling-Hammond, 2006b; Darling-Hammond & Hammerness,

2005; Freese, 1999; Gale & Jackson, 1997; Gore, 1991; Ingvarson, Beavis, & Kleinhenz, 2004; Korthagen & Vasalos, 2005; LaBoskey, 1992; Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2007; Schön, 2003). Gale and Jackson (1997, p. 4) believe that prospective teachers should be taught to be critically reflective practitioners, referring to theory in order to understand practice, "seeking underlying patterns and proposing tentative explanations to inform and improve future practice." When pre-service teachers are provided with opportunities to reflect on their work and connect it to theory and research, they have been shown to be better able to identify areas within their practice that need improvement, to consider alternative strategies and approaches for the future, and to problem solve and reason through pedagogical dilemmas (Fennell, 1993; Freese, 1999; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Shulman, 2002; LaBoskey, 1992). That is, they acquire competencies that transcend technical thinking about how to teach and engage in establishing relevant connections between theory and practice (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2007). One of the difficulties in integrating meaningful reflective tasks into programs is that pre-service teachers tend to have pragmatic needs and demands, preferring a toolbox of strategies and activities to reflective practice (Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2007).

Kalantzis et al. (2003), in a broader discussion of educational trends, highlight the need to develop a new perception of education and argue that the distinction between "knowing" and "doing" needs to be broken down, a view supported by Arnold and Ryan (2003) and the ACDE (2005): "The idea that education is something you learn in institutions, which then prepares you for life, is no longer relevant" (ACDE, 2005, p. 11).

The resurgence of school-based approaches in current times raises considerable debate in the literature (Burstein, Kretschmer, Smith, & Gudoski, 1999; D. H. Hargreaves, 2000; Linek et al., 1999). While acknowledging the importance of professional practice in pre-service teachers' development, a number of commentators caution against the notion of *more is better* (ACDE, 2005; A. Hargreaves, 1997; Reid, 2001; Reid & O'Donoghue, 2001). As noted in a DEST (2002, p. 104) review of teacher preparation programs, the "valuing of practical experience over theoretical studies reflects a fundamental debate in the literature and in policy about the appropriate balance between theory and practice in pre-service education." Reid (2001), for example, argues that the mere allocation of more time for pre-service teachers to be trained in schools reproduces the status quo and reinforces the notion that teachers are fundamentally technicians. This argument is supported in findings by Pfeffer and Sutton (2000) that seasoned practitioners (such as supervising teachers in schools) often fail to seek out new evidence for best practice because they trust their own practical experience more than they trust research. Andy Hargreaves (1997, p. 106) adopts a similar view in claiming that the aim of school-based teacher preparation is:

> not to enrich collaboration and collegiality but to return teaching to an amateur, deprofessionalised almost pre-modern craft, where existing skills and knowledge are passed on practically from expert to novice, but where practice can at best only be reproduced, rather than improve.

Reid and O'Donoghue (2001, p. 4) refer to this as the *skilled artisan approach* to teacher education, in which teaching is constructed as a skilled practical activity that is best learned "on the job." This is an approach to teacher education that has a long history, beginning with the pupil teachers of the 19th century and continuing in different guises to contemporary times. According to Reid and O'Donoghue (2001, p. 4), this approach "draw[s] a sharp distinction between theory and practice, privileging the latter and by implication denigrating the former." The model is based upon the assumption that the best way to train prospective teachers is to place them alongside classroom practitioners to learn practical classroom skills. The researchers are critical of this model, arguing that:

> It is an approach to teacher education that sees student teachers as apprentices learning the skills of the trade where, once qualified, they will ply their trade. [Such approaches] draw a false distinction between theory and practice, and so misconstrue the nature and complexity of professional knowledge. (Reid & O'Donoghue, 2001, p. 4)

Stones (1992) lends support to this belief in dismissing the notion that teaching can be learned merely through the observation of expert teachers. Learning to teach through the observation of others restricts learning to the reproduction of the knowledge and skills of the participants' limited life experiences, often established through trial and error, rather than being the result of pedagogical reasoning (Stones, 1992). Teaching experience has been shown to be a socialising factor rather than an opportunity for professional development (Korthagen, 2001). In turn, this process of socialisation into the school context creates an aversion for reflection and theoretical deepening (Cole, 1997). Further,

as Britzman (2003) argues, this type of teacher education does not encourage student and beginning teachers to discover and reflect upon the elements of their personal biographies that hinder and assist in their development into empowered and autonomous teachers. Reflecting on the debate around this model of teacher preparation, David Hargreaves (2000, p. 226) makes the observation that in the education and training of teachers, "the concept of apprenticeship has often been openly treated as a term of abuse for a form of teacher training which is held to be seriously and irremediably defective."

Another theme that emerges from the literature on this topic is the varied nature and quality of professional experiences to which trainee teachers are exposed. Smith (2005) identifies as a fundamental flaw in the traditional model of "prac" teaching the inherently random and subjective nature of the experience. In his view, it is a process with no unity. Supervising teachers are selected almost at random and individual student teachers are assigned to individual teachers. Consequently, student teachers come away from the experience with "random learning based on the subjective knowledge of individual teachers" (Smith, 2005, p. 13). Further, their instruction is usually limited to how to cope and succeed in the immediate setting of their placement (Mitchell & Schwager, 1993). Instruction in how to generalise lessons learned in the immediate setting to future situations is done inconsistently and the relationship between immediate pedagogical practices and broader educational issues is rarely addressed (Mitchell & Schwager, 1993). These sentiments are echoed elsewhere in the literature (see, for example, Carlson, 1999; Driscoll et al., 1994; Long, 2004).

Bullough (1997, p. 20) also cautions against equating time spent in schools with learning and draws upon early work by Dewey (1938) in reflecting that "not all experience is educative, indeed some experiences are 'miseducative' and impede future growth." Research on learning to teach from first-hand experience in schools demonstrates that "more experience in and of itself will not necessarily be educative for prospective teachers and help them to learn how to successfully teach" (McIntyre, 1996, as cited in Zeichner, 2006, p. 4). Darling-Hammond and Hammerness (2005) lend support to this belief in emphasising the need to recognise that practice alone does not ensure perfect, or even good performance. An Australian study of the impact on teacher preparedness by pre-service programs demonstrates that a practical and school-based model of teacher education is not the answer (Ingvarson, Beavis, & Kleinhenz, 2005). Opportunities to connect practice to theory must be built into the learning experiences of pre-service teachers (Darling-Hammond & Hammerness, 2005). Many critics claim that this does not occur and that contemporary models of student teaching have failed to evolve beyond the "medieval apprenticeship model" (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990, p. 514), with weak theoretical bases and no uniform or standard structure (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994; Glickman & Bey, 1990; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990).

For professional experience to have educational value, one must "extract its net meaning" through reflection; otherwise, it does not count as experience at all (Dewey, 1916, as cited in Bullough, 1997, p. 20). Although written over a century ago, Dewey's words still resonate with critics today (see, for example, Ethell, 1997). The practicum does not

provide prospective teachers opportunities to assume intellectual responsibility for the principles involved in intelligent teaching practice (Dewey, 1904, p. 319) because:

> the student adjusts his [*sic*] actual methods of teaching, not to the principles he [*sic*] is acquiring, but to what he [*sic*] sees succeed and fail in an empirical way from moment to moment: to what he [*sic*] sees other teachers doing who are more experienced and successful in keeping order than he [*sic*] is; and to the injunctions and directions given to him [*sic*] by others.

Further, given the cultural and institutional pressures on teachers to teach in certain ways, the expectation of supervising teachers is that student teachers will conform to accepted school practices (Bullough & Draper, 2004). On their part, student teachers generally view supervising teachers as experienced professionals who can help them develop as teachers and who, perhaps more importantly, can guarantee (or otherwise) their future employment possibilities by providing positive evaluations (Bullough & Draper, 2004). As a result, the pre-service teacher develops teaching practice on behaviours adopted through experimentation and the arbitrary advice of others and it is therefore reasonable to conclude that the inefficiency of the practicum component of pre-service teacher preparation is a function of the dichotomy of theory and practice in the learning to teach process (Dewey, 1904).

However, as Louden et al. (2005, p. 13) observe, while there are many concerns expressed about models of professional practice, there is no suggestion that the practice

should be abolished: "Even critics of school-based approaches, concerned about the potential for the uncritical socialisation of pre-service teachers into conventional teaching practices, argue for improvements to professional experience rather than its abolition." Indeed, as alluded to above, the literature shows that professional practice is seen as a critical feature of effective teacher preparation. When an effectively-supervised student teaching experience precedes or occurs jointly with on-campus learning, students appear more able to make connections between theoretical knowledge and practice; become more confident about the process of learning to teach; and are more able to enact what they have been learning in practice (Darling-Hammond & MacDonald, 2000; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Bransford, 2005; Koppich, 2000; National Research Council, 2000; Snyder, 2000; Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 1996; Whitford, Ruscoe, & Fickel, 2000).

Many practising teachers claim that the most important elements in their pre-service education were the school experiences found in student teaching (Ganser, 1996; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; Malderez, Hobson, Tracey, & Kerr, 2007), their supervising teachers having wielded the greatest influence on their professional development (Hayes et al., 2008; Mitchell & Schwager, 1993; Simpson et al., 2007). Malderez et al. (2007, p. 241) state that:

> student teachers tend to place a higher value on the practical and school-base components of their courses, can be sceptical of the relevance and value of more

theoretical aspects of course provision, and are sometimes unable to understand

the interrelations between different elements of the course provision.

A frequent theme in the literature is that of prospective teachers considering themselves distant from "real teaching" and "real teachers" that exist in the workplace (Barnes, 2008; Kyriacou & Stephens, 1999). However, in-field experiences often provide them with the opportunity to experience what they regard as real teaching, to feel the effects of intensive work and to be confronted by real pupils (Barnes, 2008; Yayli, 2008).

Professional practice has a significant impact on prospective teachers who must juggle the varied responsibilities of allocated teaching duties while establishing and developing relationships with one or more cooperating teachers and a university supervisor (Koerner & O'Connell, 2002). Additionally, pre-service teachers are surrounded not only by these other adults with whom they share a certain power relationship but also with students with whom they share an altogether different power relationship (D. H. Hargreaves, 2000). Thus, as Koerner and O'Connell (2002, p. 35) observe, "student teaching is a complicated emotional and interpersonal experience that is often critically important to the making of a teacher."

Research by Pfeffer and Sutton (2000, p. 6) provides the important insight that knowledge is much more likely to be implemented if it is acquired from "learning by doing than from learning by reading, listening, or even thinking." Their findings lead them to conclude that "there is only a loose and imperfect relationship between knowing

what to do and the ability to act on that knowledge" (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, p. 25).

Effective teacher education involves helping teachers put what they know into action;

"they need not only to understand but also to *do* a wide variety of things, many of them

simultaneously" (Hammerness et al., 2005, p. 359). Kennedy (1999b, p. 54) has termed

this the problem of enactment, whereby "a great deal of teacher learning occurs in the

context of practice." I now justify my use of key terms in this research.

Use of the terms "theory" and "practice"

In this study, I use the term "theory" to represent the broad range of concepts and skills

associated with the declarative and procedural knowledge taught to pre-service teachers

on campus. I use the term "practice" to refer to the classroom pedagogy and activities of

the pre-service and beginning teacher. Further, I use the phrase "turn theory into practice"

to signify the implementation of core knowledge and skills in the workplace. My choice

to proceed in this way warrants some clarification.

I do not mean to imply through my use of these terms that all campus activities are

theoretical, which they are not (Carr, 1987), or that all classroom activities represent

practice only, which they do not (Carr, 1987). Further, I am not suggesting that "turning"

theory into practice is a mechanistic, straightforward process. Rather, as demonstrated

above, I acknowledge that the theory-practice binary is complex, with some

commentators believing that one is inseparable from the other (Carr, 1987; Lenz Taguchi,

2007; Schön, 2003), and that theories and beliefs about how theoretical knowledge is

applied in practice are diverse and often conflicting (Connelly & Clandinin, 1995; J. H.

Shulman, 1992). My reasons for using these terms in this way are that they are commonly

understood in the context of teacher education and that they have currency in the literature (Bullough, 1997; Kessels & Korthagen, 1996; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000).

Theory-practice frameworks

There are very few frameworks or guidelines in the education literature that propose how theory can successfully be translated into practice. A notable exception is provided by Smith and Lynch (2006c) whose BLM model, as indicated in Chapter One, is fundamental to this study. These researchers were part of a team that created the BLM in response to the "general consensus that teacher education needs to be re-engineered if historical changes and the preparation of teachers for a new kind of student and society are to be aligned" (Central Queensland University [CQU], 2000, p. 6). They proffer the BLM as a "disruptive innovation" rather than a modification to existing teacher education arrangements (Smith & Lynch, 2006a, p. 117). The BLM "consciously and directly attempts to bridge the 'theory-practice' gap so often attributed to teacher education programs" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 15) and strives to graduate learning managers who fit the contemporary schooling paradigm by being workplace ready; have a different, futures oriented mindset; know and are able to implement a learning design process; and have a repertoire of specific knowledge and skill sets about pedagogical strategies (Smith & Lynch, 2006a). The BLM program is forward-looking and avowedly opposes attempting to reconstruct the past in the present (Smith & Moore, 2006).

A fundamental feature of the program is that it is based on partnership arrangements with industry (schools and other learning sites). This partnership concept comprises four major underpinnings: employers and schools are jointly involved in the conception of ideas and

policies; a "Teaching Schools" arrangement exists with a bipartisan commitment to preparing "learning managers" (as opposed to teachers), mediated through the learning management construct; university and industry staff within the partnership are all part of a community of learning that participates in the theory and practice of learning management; and practising teachers are recruited from the primary, secondary and Vocational Education and Training sectors for periods of two to three years to work as lecturers in the BLM program (CQU, 2000; Turner, 2006).

Emerging education literature also includes a theory-practice framework by Korthagen et al. (2006, p. 1020) who attempt to address the concern that "although various attempts to restructure teacher education have been published, no coherent body of knowledge exists about central principles underlying teacher education programs that are responsive to the expectations, needs and practices of student teachers." The seven principles designed to bridge the theory-practice as proposed by these academics are that learning about teaching: involves constantly conflicting and competing demands; requires a view of knowledge as a subject to be created rather than as a created subject; involves a shift in focus from the curriculum to the learner; is enhanced through (student) teacher research; includes an emphasis on those learning to teach working closely with their peers; requires meaningful relationships between schools, universities and pre-service teachers; and is enhanced when the teaching and learning approaches advocated in the program are modeled by the teacher educators in their own practice (Korthagen et al., 2006, pp. 1025-1034).

Other fields have focused more consciously and more doggedly on solving the theory-practice problem. Management literature, for example, reveals a number of theory-practice frameworks that have gained significant recognition (Moisander, Stenfors & Freeman, 2005). Two examples are those by Harlow Cohen (1998) and Pfeffer and Sutton (2000). Cohen's (1998, p. 30) framework was generated through his belief that "managers know what to do to improve performance, but actually ignore or act in contradiction to either their strongest instincts or to the data available to them." From this, he ascertained a number of factors that he believed accounted for the knowing-doing gap and that, if acknowledged and militated against, would bridge the theory-practice divide. Similarly, Pfeffer and Sutton (2000) were interested in discovering why, in many organisations, people know what to do yet do not do so. Through extensive empirical research, they arrived at a number of explanations for why turning theory into practice is fraught with difficulty in many organisations. Based on this work, they developed a set of *Eight Guidelines for Action* that is used as a device to frame interview questions in this study. I discuss these guidelines in Chapter Four.

Review summary & conclusion

In this chapter, I reviewed the literature pertaining to the problem of the study. The chapter is divided into three sections, each discussing one of the three themes identified as important to the resolution of the problem. In the first section, I outlined the socialising influences on teachers, before and during their pre-service preparation and in the workplace. This section also served to position the role and importance of pre-service education within the formation of the teacher. The focus then narrowed to examine pre-service teacher education, which comprised the second section of this review. It first

established what the research says about the profession, an important topic given that the results from this thesis will contribute to this body of research. An overview of pre-service programs revealed some of the strengths and weaknesses that have been discerned in the literature and indicated some current trends. The section concluded with a review of teacher education in Australia. The focus narrowed again in the third section where the central concept of this thesis was discussed: the nexus between theory and practice. The discussion sought to clarify what this means in the context of pre-service teacher education and what can be done to bridge the theory-practice gap. Also included in this section was an outline of some of the theory-practice frameworks that have emerged in contemporary education and management literature. Of these, two are of particular importance for this thesis. Pfeffer and Sutton's (2000) *Eight Guidelines for Action* are used as a tool to frame interview questions in this study while the BLM provides the teacher education exemplar through which the theory-practice nexus is examined.

Having reviewed the literature that is relevant to this thesis, I conclude this chapter by advancing the following five conclusions. First, socialising factors on pre-service and beginning teachers are powerful and often inexorable. These factors include influences prior to formal teacher education, during pre-service preparation and in the new school[5]. Pre-service and beginning teachers succumb rapidly to socialisation processes and frequently emulate the practice of seasoned practitioners. Therefore, occupational

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[5] I use the term "new school" to represent the school in which the graduate begins his/her teaching career.

socialisation contributes to preserving the status quo of teaching practices and serves to transmit the dominant culture, not renew it (Smith, 2000).

Second, the teacher effect far outweighs other factors in influencing student outcomes (Hattie, 2003; Liston et al., 2008; Marzano, 2000; Rowe, 2004). Teachers in the 21st century knowledge society require a new and different repertoire of skills, knowledge and capabilities than teachers did previously in order to positively effect student outcomes. However, accomplishing change in teacher practice through pre-service preparation is rendered difficult by socialising influences on teachers and by perceived shortcomings in teacher preparation programs. There is a broad and long-standing recognition, both nationally and internationally, that most teacher education programs no longer effectively equip prospective teachers with the skills and knowledge needed for contemporary teaching practice.

Third, the duality of theory-practice in teacher preparation has been firmly established in the literature and one of the salient problems identified in teacher education programs is that they do not enable prospective and beginning teachers to bridge the theory-practice gap. There are prolific viewpoints and suggestions about how to bridge the gap, but very little empirical evidence around what *works*. This is a discernable shortcoming in the research literature. Further, pre-service and beginning teachers' voices are rarely used to ascertain whether their teacher education program achieves its goals (Korthagen et al., 2006).

Fourth, with notable exceptions, there are very few frameworks for overcoming the theory-practice gap in the education literature. Other fields, such as management, have focused more on this area. A set of guidelines developed by behavioural management academics Pfeffer and Sutton[6] (2000) to bridge the gap are used to frame the interview questions in this study. Fifth, the BLM is a teacher education program that deliberately and consciously attempts to overcome the theory-practice gap (Smith & Moore, 2006) and, as such, provides an appropriate context for this study.

I propose that the above discussion of the literature has enabled me to achieve the three aims of this chapter. Specifically, I have situated my study in its sociocultural and historical context, discussed the complexities involved in bridging theory and practice as they are presented in the literature and provided a foundation upon which to build my own research. Having conducted this review, I now turn to Chapter Three in which I discuss and justify the theoretical framework of this study.

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[6] Jeffrey Pfeffer and Robert Sutton both hold positions as Professors of Organisational Behaviour at Stanford University, in the Graduate School of Business and the School of Engineering respectively. They have published extensively in this area (see, for example, Pfeffer & Sutton, 1999, 2006).

Chapter Three

Theoretical Framework

Introduction

It will be recalled that the problem of this thesis is: *How do teachers experience turning theory into practice during training and initial employment?* In this chapter, I present the theoretical framework for explaining and resolving this problem. This framework is used later in the thesis for the interpretation of data reported in Chapter Six.

Mead's theory of emergence was selected as a theoretical framework for this study as it provides a way to focus on the gap between theory and practice in pre-service teacher education. In this chapter, I begin by discussing the way in which Mead's theory provides an appropriate framework with which to address the research problem. I then set out the concepts that are of particular importance in this study.

Mead's theory of emergence as a theoretical framework for this study

The fundamental understanding involved in Mead's theory and hence in this study is that when a living form of some kind interacts with its environment, some new object is likely to emerge. This study sees the interaction of the individual and his/her pre-service teacher education program as giving rise to a graduate teacher.

Specifically, the process of becoming a teacher is seen as that of one who has chosen to train as a teacher (an individual) entering the pre-service teacher education program (an environment) and interacting with this environment. During this interaction between the individual and the environment, Mead argues that a process of emergence takes place such that there ensues from the interaction a graduate teacher (an emergent). This is consistent with his premise that "when things get together, there then arises something that was not there before" (Mead, 1938, p. 641). Mead exemplifies this through the engagement of bacilli with cellulose (part of bacilli's environment). The former (bacilli) transforms the latter into food (emergent). Used by a human being (interaction), cellulose can become a building material (emergent), an object for scientific research (emergent), an object for aesthetic appreciation (emergent), and so forth, depending on the approach of the person. In other words, emergence gives rise to new objects and new situations (Maines, 2001).

The distinction needs to be drawn here between the terms *emergence* and *emergent.* Emergence is the *process* of the interaction between the individual and the environment, while the emergent is the *product* of the process of emergence. In this study, the interaction between the pre-service teacher and his/her environment is seen as involving a process of emergence; the product of this process (the graduate) is viewed as the emergent.

Given that the emergent is an outcome of the interaction between the individual and his/her environment, change/s to the individual and/or to the environment will create a

different type of emergent (Mead, 1934). This is an important understanding for this study as the BLM provides an environment that is deliberately different to that of the historical pre-service teacher education program. Indeed, the BLM was created to provide "an alternative to the traditional discourses and conventional educational degrees collectively known as the Bachelor of Education [BEd]" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 11). (Appendix A provides a comparison of core components of the BEd and BLM models.) An independent evaluation of the program in 2005 (Ingvarson, Beavis, Danielson et al., 2005) concluded that this has been achieved.

The BLM has been called a "disruptive innovation," a transgression of the principles and practices of the former BEd model (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 13). It could be expected therefore that the BLM would produce a graduate who has interacted in different ways so that something different emerges. Given the intent of the BLM and the process of interaction that takes place between the pre-service teacher and the BLM, the aim is to create graduate teachers who "have the potential *to transform* the profession" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 19).

Inherent in the concept of emergence is that there are always pre-existing conditions associated with both the individual and the environment and that these conditions underlie the realisation of the interaction (Mead, 1934). This premise is the first of two categories of factors that determine the nature of the emergent. The second premise is that the nature of interaction taking place between the pre-service teacher (the individual or "actor") and the BLM (the environment) is of primary importance in creating the

emergent (Reichers, 1987). As Perinbanayagam (1986, p. 121) observes, "it is from the *interaction* between an actor and the 'world out there' … that consequences to the individual and the 'world out there' flow." Before proceeding, I now discuss these two premises of emergence in light of the BLM and the pre-service teacher.

Pre-existing conditions of the BLM

Both the individual and the environment have pre-existing conditions that underlie the realisation of the interaction between them (Mead, 1934). I begin with the environment. For the purposes of this study, I interpret pre-existing conditions of the environment as some fundamental concepts that undergird the BLM and that differentiate it from its BEd predecessor. Specifically, in order to delimit the study, I have selected three primary concepts, or pre-existing conditions, of the BLM[7]. My reasons for choosing these three concepts rather than others are twofold. First, these are primary conditions of the BLM, without which the model would fail. Second, an examination of these conditions enables me to further the resolution of my research problem. These pre-existing conditions comprise the theoretical underpinnings of the BLM and my primary purpose in this study is to it gauge the experiences that graduates have of turning BLM theory into practice. The three pre-existing conditions of the BLM considered in this study are that the program graduates students who are workplace ready, who have a different, futures oriented mindset and who can design and implement a learning design process (Smith &

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[7] For the purposes of this study, my focus on BLM theory is a deliberately narrow one. This does not imply that the BLM delivers a correspondingly narrow theory. As indicated elsewhere in this and other chapters, there are many theoretical influences in the BLM, particularly through pedagogy in the Key Learning Areas (KLAs).

Lynch, 2006a). The teaching practices of BLM staff inhere in each precondition, which I now discuss in turn.

In the BLM program, "workplace ready" refers to the ability of the learning manager "to operate successfully within the characteristics of current schooling practice" (Lynch & Smith, 2006a, p. 40). This means that graduates are able to perform the many roles of teaching to a professional standard, guaranteed by the experiences that they have had in the four knowledge areas, the workplace, the mentoring they have received from classroom teachers who know the logic and content of the BLM and from the compulsory internship undertaken in the last year of the degree. It does not imply that graduates know and can do everything that they will ever be required to know and do but rather that they are capable, on graduation, of producing learning outcomes in the learners under their care. The approach contrasts with the idea that schools must, by definition, have induction programs for new teachers and that teaching prowess and expertise are developed over a long period of experience (Smith & Moore, 2006).

A "futures orientation" in the BLM is conceived of as both a mindset and a set of capabilities in graduate teachers. The expectation is that each is enterprising, believing that he or she is contributing to a cause and making a real difference in learning outcomes in students, no matter the level or who they are (Smith & Moore, 2006). They have imagination about what is possible to achieve, founded in theories of the future, and professional capabilities dedicated to pedagogical strategies and learning outcomes. As "forward thinking" educators, they are innovative and able to resist the "cultural

conditioning" that operates in schools (Lynch & Smith, 2006a, p. 45). They are "ambitious and anticipate rewards that outstrip the role of 'teacher'" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 21). The BLM proposes that workplace readiness capabilities alone will not prepare teachers for work in the future and that they must also acquire the cache of knowledge and skills associated with a futures orientation (Lynch & Smith, 2006a).

Central to the learning management concept is the notion of "design with intended outcomes" (Lynch & Smith, 2006a, p. 53). That is, the BLM presents students with a basic architecture common to effective teaching, or learning management, no matter what is being taught. Known as the BLM Learning Design process this architecture, or deep structure, of effective teaching supplies students with a common framework that prepares them to design pedagogical strategies that achieve learning outcomes (Ingvarson, 2006). It consists of the Eight Learning Management Questions (Lynch & Smith, 2006b), a set of sequential design based questions that enable the teacher to design effective learning experiences, and Dimensions of Learning (Marzano et al., 1997) which provide an integrating pedagogical framework (Lynch & Smith, 2006b). The expectation is that through applying the Learning Design, the BLM graduate will develop professional capabilities focused on pedagogical strategies and learning outcomes in students (Ingvarson, 2006). In the balance between curriculum development and pedagogy, the emphasis is definitely on pedagogical strategies. This is a feature that characterises the BLM compared with its predecessor, the BEd (Smith & Moore, 2006).

Pre-existing conditions of the pre-service teacher

The pre-existing conditions of the individual comprise all the conditions associated with the pre-service teacher, which exist before the beginning of the interaction between him/her and the BLM environment and which are relevant to this interaction. They can include conditions such as the individual's character, biology, social attitudes, position in society, heredity, past experience and interests (Cooley, 1909; Mead, 1934).

Again, I seek to delimit the study by considering two fundamental pre-existing conditions common to all individuals entering the BLM or any other pre-service teacher education program. These are the personal attitudes and beliefs about themselves that participants bring to the program and their prior socialisation into teaching. I provide three interrelated reasons to justify the selection of these conditions. First, as established in the literature review, predispositions of prospective teachers are potent and tend to self-perpetuate during their training (Lunenberg et al., 2007; Pajares, 1992). Further, the influence of anticipatory socialisation on the individual has been shown to be powerful and often inexorable (Loewenberg Ball & Cohen, 1999; Lortie, 1975; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Second, these pre-existing conditions in the individual assume greater significance when perceived as a potential barrier to the aim of the BLM to change the mindsets of future teachers (Smith & Lynch, 2006b), especially given the latter's conservatism on a number of social issues (D. S. Anderson & Western, 1970). Third, the experiences of graduates in turning theory into practice are most likely influenced by factors relating to their personal attitudes and beliefs and anticipatory socialisation.

The professional preparation of teachers, unlike that of other professionals, starts early in life with entry into school and lasts throughout the entire school experience (Lortie, 1975). During this "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975, p. 67), students amass innumerable impressions and beliefs about life in the classroom and the role of the teacher. Thus, individuals bring to the BLM internalised models of teaching that become activated once they enter the classroom (Lortie, 1975). Another contributing factor is the individual's prior life experience that commonly includes episodes or events that can create and foster beliefs and assumptions about the nature of teaching (Kelchtermans & Vandenberghe, 1994). This can include coaching, training and tutoring, working in a school environment as a teacher's aide, parenting, and so forth.

Nature of the interaction

The nature of the interaction between the pre-service teacher and the BLM can be encapsulated as follows. The program is conceived as a singular environment comprising two "fields of interaction" (Mead, 1934, p. 249), the university and Teaching Schools. I discuss each in turn.

The BLM is a four-year degree, structured so that students can complete an accelerated program in three years. Pathways include secondary and vocational education, early childhood, primary, Japanese and graduate entry. The focus in this study is graduates from the primary pathway who completed the three-year accelerated program. During the program, students undertake thirty-two courses from four knowledge domains, namely, Essential Professional Knowledge, Futures, Networks and Partnerships, and Pedagogy. Courses within these domains, particularly a number of keystone courses, include a

theoretical background in instructional theory and design, and an understanding of the meta-analysis of teaching/learning, with a particular focus on the role of the teacher in achieving learning outcomes in students (Allen & Smith, 2007). KLA-based courses are also included in the program. Course delivery is through lectures, face-to-face tutorials and web-based instruction. In-field experiences in Teaching Schools are structured in such a way that students must demonstrate their understanding of and ability to apply important knowledge learned on campus, in particular pedagogical strategies, in the classroom. The program provides 111 days of embedded professional experiences, comprising 100 days' experience in schools. Students spend progressively longer in schools each year. In their final year, they undertake a ten-week internship during which time they are granted provisional Queensland College of Teachers registration.

The nature of the interaction between the pre-service teacher and the teacher education program has altered since the introduction of the BLM. Previously, the BEd did not offer the option of an accelerated program and students undertook the four-year program. The course content is significantly different from the BEd program that was anchored in the discipline languages of educational psychology, sociology of education, school curricula and social contexts of schooling (Smith & Moore, 2006). Course delivery has not changed markedly apart from a stronger emphasis on web-based instruction. The nature and length of in-field experiences represent a significant change as the practicum-type periods in schools common to the BEd model of teacher preparation have been reconceptualised in the BLM as *portal tasks*, periods when students put into practice the concepts and theories explored on campus (Smith & Moore, 2006).

Portal tasks are situated throughout the program to target a range of standards against which students must demonstrate competence in order to proceed with their studies. They entail a structured and mentored period of theory application in real-life settings and aim to capture the theory/practice nexus considered vital in the preparation of educators for the creative knowledge society (Smith & Moore, 2006). Similar arrangements apply to the ten-week internship that students undertake in their final year. A central tenet of the portal task arrangement is that all participants, students, academic staff and supervising teachers, follow "the same script" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 21). This is achieved through partnership arrangements that include industry input into BLM course work and assessment and shared professional development (Allen & Butler-Mader, 2007). The BLM student also spends 14% longer in schools than did his/her earlier BEd counterpart.

Interaction and pre-existing conditions in emergence

The pre-existing conditions associated with both the BLM and the pre-service teachers have a bearing on the nature of the graduate teacher (the emergent). However, as explained earlier, pre-existing conditions alone do not adequately account for emergence. While necessary, they "do not determine in its full reality that which emerges" (Mead, 1932, p. 16). This is for two reasons upon which I now elaborate. First, the impact of pre-existing conditions on emergence must be materialised through interaction (between the pre-service teacher and the BLM) and, second, interaction can contribute its own input to the nature of an emergent (the graduate teacher). As Chang (2004, p. 407) observes, "pre-existing conditions and interaction constitute two fundamental dimensions of the interrelations between things as an organic whole in terms of which we can understand

emergence." In this study, the BLM accounts for one fundamental dimension, and interaction, the focus of this study, is the other. The BLM aims to create a particular kind of emergent, one that is different from the usual *first year out* teacher.

My approach to the research problem is captured by Chang's (2004) interpretation of Mead's model of emergence in human society[8], as shown below in Figure 3.1. Chang's has been selected as the preferred model as he has taken up Mead's theory and applied it substantially (see, for example, Chang, 2000, 2005). In this model, "actor" refers to both individual and collective actors. (Chang uses this term to replace the terms favoured by Mead, namely, "individual," "form" or "organism" to refer to a human individual and "team," "community" or "nation" to refer to a collective actor.)

As demonstrated in Figure 3.1, together, the pre-existing conditions of the pre-service teacher and the BLM create the conditioning basis on which interaction between the two takes place (Strauss, 1993). Given that the pre-existing conditions were formed in the past, this conditioning can be seen as the past partially determining the present. That is,

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[8] Mead's theory of emergence has been largely overlooked by scholars and remains only partially explored (G. A. Cook, 1993). This is due in large measure to the often fragmentary character of his writings and his failure to develop the theory systematically and explicitly (Blumer, 1969; Chang, 2004; G. A. Cook, 1993; El-Hani & Pihlström, 2002; Maines, 2001; Meltzer, Petras, & Reynolds, 1975). It has been incumbent on later theorists to apply a system to his essentially unsystematised corpus. In developing a theoretical framework for this study, therefore, I draw not only from Mead's works but also from work by Chang (2004) and by other symbolic interactionists (for example, Blumer, 1969; Maines, 2001; Shalin, 2000) who have analysed and reconceptualised the theory.

Figure 3.1: Mead's theory of emergence in human society (adapted from Chang, 2004)

individual/collective
Actor/Pre-Service Teacher
with pre-existing conditions

Environment/BLM program
with pre-existing conditions

Interaction

Emergent

BLM - Bachelor of Learning Management
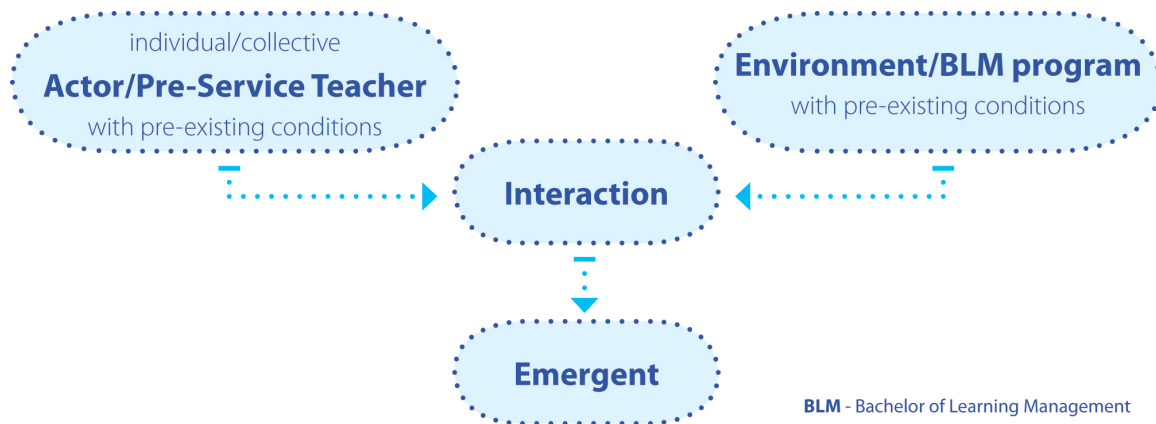
"the past can … establish probabilities for what will take place in the present" (Maines, 2001, p. 46). The nature of the past is thus of fundamental importance as "the order within which things happen and appear conditions that which will happen and appear" (Mead, 1929, p. 237). This is of particular significance for my study because the conditioning of the pre-service teacher prior to his/her entry into the BLM program has the potential to have an impact on what can take place during the process of emergence and therefore on the extent to which the emergence of a transformative graduate teacher can be realised.

I borrow the idea that there are two types of basic interactions in human society: those between the individual and his or her social and non-social environments, and those between collective acting units, such as social groups, institutions and nations, and their social and non-social environments (Mead, 1934). The emergence they produce includes, among numerous other things, the reproduction and change of self and the reproduction

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and change of society (Chang, 2004; Mead, 1934). In effect, the evolution of mankind and human society as a whole is constituted solely by a long and complex process of emergence (Blumer, 1969). As Shalin (2000, p. 321) explains:

> Unsuspected objects appear on the evolutionary scene whenever a new agent is powerful enough to impose on the world its own reference frame. While major evolutionary events are recorded in the annals of science as epoch-making breakthroughs, minor metamorphoses or emergent transformations abound in any given era.

An illustration of this proposition in this study is the appearance of a new type of educator, the learning manager, whose evolution arises through the agency of the BLM program. Indeed, this study seeks to explore whether the BLM is "powerful enough" to impose its own reference frame on the world. If so, one would expect to see a graduate teacher who has the ability to transform the profession in ways that were hitherto non-existent.

In the sections above, I have provided an outline of the pre-existing conditions of both the individual (the pre-service teacher) and the environment (the BLM program) and the interaction that occurs between the two. I now show how certain mechanisms add an action component to the pre-existing conditions.

Mechanisms conditioning the action of the pre-service teacher

In this study, I acknowledge that both human agency and social structure have a powerful impact on the emergence of the graduate teacher. In Mead's view, social structure does not wholly determine human action nor does human action alone create social structure. Rather, human action and social structure determine each other through interactions that generate numerous kinds of emergence in human society. That is, "the organism determines the environment as fully as the environment determines the organism. The organic reaction is responsible for the appearance of a whole set of objects which did not exist before" (Mead, 1934, p. 129). This can be contrasted with the functionalist view of evolution that sees human beings as creatures whose minds help their organisms adapt to their environments, as creatures adapting to the pressure and constraints of their environment.

Social structure can be described in various ways when considering its impact on human agency. For example, Mead refers to "society," "social class," "political party," "institution," "social conflict," "community" and "social group." Similarly, when discussing the impact of culture, he mentions a range of sociological concepts such as "human civilization," "language," "common meaning," "universe of discourse" and "attitude of the generalized other (social group)." (See Table 3.1.) Mead is aware of the impact of these types of social and cultural structure and their constructs on human agency and emergence. For example, he discusses the impact of societal type on self-realisation, arguing that while "the value of an ordered society is essential to our existence … there also has to be room for an expression of the individual himself [*sic*] if

there is to be a satisfactorily developed society" (Mead, 1934, p. 221). Similarly, he regards community expectations as wielding a strong impact on creativity and social reconstruction. This study searches for the expression of the individual in turning theory into practice. Where traditionally the graduate teacher has been almost immediately socialised into the ordered society of conservative classroom practice, the BLM seeks to create a teacher who is able to implement new and transformative practice in the face of often contrary school expectations.

In line with Mead's argument, my intention in this study lies neither in arguing about whether social structure and culture affect the actions of the pre-service teacher which, like Mead, I take to be the case, nor in discovering the magnitude of the effect. Rather, my purpose is to get inside the defining process of the individual in order to understand his/her action (Blumer, 1969). In order to do so, I use mechanisms that different kinds of social structure and culture have in common in conditioning human action and its consequences.

Following Mead, there are five such mechanisms, namely: the actor's role taking; the actor's self-regulation emanating from role taking; the role of leaders; communication; and reality testing, involving the response of the environment. These mechanisms in conditioning human action are included in Table 3.1. For the purposes of this study, I consider the first two of these mechanisms as most appropriate for furthering the resolution of my thesis problem. These are the actor's role taking and the actor's role taking-based self-regulation. These mechanisms allow me to examine what occurs as pre-

Table 3.1: Mead's theory of emergence: Factors in conditioning human action

Types of social structure	Sociological concepts	Major mechanisms
Society	Human civilisation	Actor's role taking
Social class	Language	Actor's role taking-based self-regulation
Political party	Common meaning	Role of leaders
Institution	Universe of discourse	Communication
Club	Attitude of the generalised other (social group)	Reality testing
Corporation		
Social conflict		
Community		
Social group		

service teachers transition towards and take up the role of teachers.

Communication, conceived by Mead as being achieved through symbolic and non-symbolic interaction, is also important for this study in that symbolic interaction provides the theoretical perspective for the methodological approach of the thesis. (This will be discussed in Chapter Four.) I now turn to a discussion of the actor's role taking and associated social control.

Role taking

The focus of this research is framed by Mead's (1934, p. 141) concept of role taking[9], one of the "specifically social expressions of intelligence" that shape the interpersonal nature

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[9] Given the vintage of the theory, it may well be queried why I have chosen to use Mead's theory of emergence in 2009. For example, the concept of *role taking* has been overtaken by that of *identity* in contemporary research (O'Connor & Scanlon, 2006). There are two reasons for using this theory. First, I wished to return to the original theory, agreeing with Chang (2004) that much of Mead's work has been under-utilised in sociological inquiry. Second, while there is a strong research base around *teacher identity* (see, for example, Mockler & Sachs, 2006; Soreide, 2006;

of teachers' work. Role taking involves the self engaging in a reflective dialogue with itself in order to act in role. When interacting with the BLM, there is the expectation that the individual progressively takes on the role of the professional educator. The intent in the BLM is that this will be the role of the learning manager rather than that of the traditional teacher. According to Mead (1934, p. 142), role taking by the individual is an inevitable consequence of human interaction; "there are all sorts of selves answering to all sorts of different social interactions." Role taking involves selecting from the number of alternatives present the ones believed to be most appropriate and then enacting them (Vernon, 1965). The type and nature of role that the individual adopts are dependent on the vantage point from which the actor perceives the social and non-social environment, and the level at which the individual interacts. Role taking involves applying labels to oneself, to other people and to the context in which the interaction is taking place (Vernon, 1965).

Mead (1934, p. 173) views the self as divided into the "*I*" and the "*Me*," with the *I* representing the creative, spontaneous self and the *Me* referring to the outward, socialised aspect of the self. The *Me* is learned in interaction with others and with the environment. It includes both knowledge about that environment (including society) and a sense of who he or she is: a sense of self. The *I* is the active aspect of the self, which acts creatively but

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Walkington, 2005), I considered Mead's theory to be more helpful in furthering the resolution of the research problem because of the closeness of fit of the theory to the notion of the emergent teacher, and because of the lack of clarity around the concept of teacher identity (Wright-Mills, 2000). The latter remains relatively under-theorised in the literature and the term tends to be applied inconsistently and in a variety of ways across a number of contexts (Mockler & Sachs, 2006).

within the context of the *Me*. Both parts of the self come together during the process of role taking[10]. Mead (1934, p. 186) describes the relationship in these terms:

> The "I" is the response of the organism to the attitudes of the others; the "Me" is the organized set of attitudes of others which one himself [*sic*] assumes. The attitudes of the others constitute the organized "Me"; one who reacts towards that as an "I."

The self is a social structure and reflective thinking shapes the actions of the self by enabling individuals to develop and sustain a role (Mead, 1934). Role taking is the means by which the self is able to structure and react to its own experiences, make reflexive adjustments and thus establish situational identity/ies (Mead, 1934; Reichers, 1987). Mead emphasises that individuals create and re-create roles from one situation to another and each person may do this differently. This is possible because individuals construct meaning, have selves, and relate to themselves and others in terms of shared meaning (Longmore, 1998).

The process of role taking involves individuals seeing themselves as others might see them and regulating their behaviour accordingly. Individuals undergoing the process of

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[10] Rock's (2001, p. 28) explanation of Mead's I and Me is also instructive: "The 'I' in the language of George Herbert Mead is that which thinks, sees and names, and it can never be directly scrutinized because it would then instantly cease to be an 'I' and become a 'me' in its stead. It evades inspection and, by extrapolation, direct personal and social control. Yet the 'I' is manifestly in conversation or relation with its 'me', indeed with its many 'me's, and it is constituted socially as they are. The 'me', by contrast, is the self made visible, audible and objective, and there are as many 'me's as there are situations in which it can be displayed. One is not quite the same with one's lover, employer, children, parents or strangers. Each of those others summons up a modified or edited performance which is considered appropriate to the situation."

becoming teachers must experience the process of role taking in order to develop a sense of professional identity (Mead, 1934). This involves them consciously and regularly evaluating and adjusting what they are doing when performing a task, such as lesson planning, classroom management or implementing pedagogical design. Mead's concept of the reflective self acknowledges the capacity of private thoughts to influence public actions in both implicit and explicit ways.

Within the context of this research, the term *role taking* refers to the pre-service teacher's interaction with peers and academics on the university campus and with students, teachers, leaders and parents in the school environment. This includes taking the role of the Other in order to develop a sense of self and regulating the behaviour of the self in order to develop and sustain a role. Role taking also encompasses the demands placed on pre-service teachers by the work and variety of roles that form part of their teacher education program. Additionally, role taking is seen to involve an individual's anticipatory socialisation (Lortie, 1975) or prior conceptions of what being a teacher entails and the individual's efforts to regulate his/her behaviour within the role.

It will be recalled that the BLM seeks to produce a new type of educator, one who has the potential to transform the profession in alignment with the core concepts of the program. That is, the BLM attempts to graduate teachers whose *I* is dynamic and able to rise over the *Me* which traditionally responds to the individual's anticipatory socialisation and other pre-existing conditions as well as to conventional social mores in education. By way of illustration, I iterate some of the fundamental issues considered in the literature

review. First, the literature has long established the traditional nature of teaching, confirming it as the most conservative of social institutions (Giddens, 1994; Hartwell, 1996). Thus, the graduate teacher has traditionally entered the environment of the new school where traditional practices are upheld and valued. Second, teacher socialisation literature, as alluded to above, demonstrates that the socialisation of prospective and practising teachers plays a key role in ensuring the continued transmittal of the cultural heritage (Smith & Moore, 2006). Together these factors inevitably play a role in the emergence of the graduate teacher, with the potentially dynamic *I* of the pre-service and beginning teacher being mediated by the *Me* towards conservative and "common" practice within the new school.

In order for the BLM to achieve its goal of graduating a transformative educator, the *I* of the individual must determine his/her environment and be able to transform the environment in novel and original ways. It is the *I* that provides the basis for spontaneity in human action, paving the way for unpredictability and emergence in the process of becoming a teacher (Puddehpatt, 2005). Mead's (1934, p. 215) argument and example provide clarity:

> When a form develops a capacity, however that takes place, to deal with parts of the environment which its progenitors could not deal with, it has to this degree created a new environment for itself. … The environment of the form has increased. The organism in a real sense is determinative of its environment. The

situation is one in which there is action and reaction, and adaptation that changes the form must also change the environment.

Mead exemplifies this through an ox's food intake. The ox that has digestive organs capable of treating grass as a food adds a new food (when it first eats grass) and, in adding this, it adds a new object. The substance that was not food before becomes food now. In this way, the environment of the form (the ox) has increased. As Goff (1980, p. 72) observes, "part and emergent whole, the physio-chemical and the living, form and environment, constitute an interdependent unity." It is this novelty in interaction, the formulation of multi-level interrelations with the environment that results in continuous change of the social world. The novelty in interaction in this study is the interaction between the pre-service teacher and the BLM, which seeks to provide a disruptive innovation in teacher preparation.

This can be contrasted with what has typically occurred in teacher education in the past fifty years, namely the dominance of the individual's *Me* over the *I*. Mead (1934, p. 210) views this phenomenon as a means of social control:

> Social control is the expression of the "me" over against the expression of the "I." It sets the limits, it gives the determination that enables the "I," so to speak, to use the "me" as the means of carrying out what is the undertaking that all are interested in.

Therefore, where individuals are held outside or beyond that sort of organised expression, a situation arises in which social control is absent (Mead, 1934). That is, the individual reacts in a situation that is socially determined, but to which he brings his own responses as an *I*. The response is, in the individual's experience, an expression with which the self is identified. Such a response raises the individual above the institutionalised individual (Mead, 1934).

The distinction needs to be made here between the individual and the collective within the institution. Pre-service teachers in the BLM represent a collective: they participate in collaborative activities involving shared understanding and joint intentions (Tomasello, Carpenter, Call, Behne, & Moll, 2005). The BLM intention is not that graduates will enter the workplace and practise teaching in any way they individually choose but, rather, they will have the capability to *manage learning* in ways that conform with their pre-service preparation and that in many cases challenge the status quo in the new school. The intent is that BLM graduates are conversant with "the learning management discourse [which] enables a fundamental critique, a questioning and resistance to the dominant cultural and power relations of dominant school teaching, teacher, university and teacher education cultures" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 15).

The presumed power of the institution, in this case the BLM environment, is such that individuals have to relinquish some freedoms because "collective obligations typically trump singular wishes … there is a superordinate reality that has enormous causal power over individuals" (Searle, 2006, cited in D'Andrade, 2006, p. 34). BLM pre-service

teachers have to give up some of the *I* in order to belong within the collective. In addition, the intention of the BLM is that the teacher will be enabled to raise the *I* over the *Me* such that he/she is raised above the institutionalised individual within the new school environment. He/She should be enabled to take on the role of the transformative educator within the limits of the BLM collective. That is, the transformative *I* of the BLM graduate operates along the lines of the principles of the BLM and in contradistinction to the status quo.

Role taking-based self-regulation

I now show how self-regulation and interaction provide a mechanism for the resolution of the thesis problem. Self-regulation occurs in the interaction between the pre-service teacher and the BLM when the former's *Me* "operates on behalf of the environment to inform, evaluate and advise its [*I*]" (Chang, 2004, p. 410). Mead refers to the *Me* as a type of censor: "it determines the sort of expression which can take place, sets the stage, and gives the cue" (Mead, 1934, p. 210). The *Me* mediates the impulse drive represented by the *I*; it is the reflective, rational self that has been shaped through prior social experience (Puddehpatt, 2005; Reichers, 1987).

Chang (2004, p. 410) observes that the "vicarious control" of the *I* by the *Me* is constructed through the actor's capability to role take and that "role-taking sensitizes the actor to the enabling and limiting properties of the environment, thereby allowing the environment to meaningfully influence its 'I' through the reflexivity of its 'me'." This determining influence of the environment is inclined to channel the performance of the *I* toward the path of conformity, much of which leads to the reproduction of the cultural,

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social and institutional heritage, which in turn contributes to continuity, social order, stability, and predictability (Chang, 2004). As mentioned earlier, the tendency of educators to conform to the cultural heritage renders education a reactionary and obdurate institution. The challenge of the BLM therefore is to provide an environment that sensitises the *Me* of the pre-service teacher in such a way that the performance of his/her *I* is transformative and resistant to the social and cultural norms of traditional teaching.

As outlined above, the BLM environment consists of key features such as courses in four knowledge domains undertaken on campus and in-field experiences undertaken in schools. Together these and other features of the environment wield an influence on the development of the pre-service teacher. However, the influence of these key features is mediated by the stance of the pre-service teacher. Maines (2001) is instructive on this issue. In discussing the determining influence of the environment, he postulates that:

> The individual selects out from the world that which is situationally meaningful, or pragmatic, and adjusts to events that the world thrusts upon the individual. The adjustive responses transform the world in terms of its meaning, while simultaneously establishing the structures that condition the appearance of future events. (Maines, 2001, p. 47)

In the case of the pre-service teacher, this means that he/she selects feature/s that are meaningful to him/her and adjusts his/her behaviour accordingly. This selection, however, is constrained by the determining influence of the BLM environment. As a

member of the BLM collective, each pre-service teacher shares a commitment to certain understanding and commitments. Searle (2006, as cited in D'Andrade, 2006) points out that each member of a collective or institution shares, whether he/she wants to or not, a commitment that certain things count as meaning something within that collective/institution. That is:

> If individual A, as an institutional fact, is defined as a member of collective Q, and this collective is committed to P, then, as a member of Q, A is committed to P, no matter what A may feel about it. The evidence is a universal human rule, one that admits of few exceptions. We are a social species. (Searle, 2006, as cited in D'Andrade, 2006, p. 34)

Within the collective or institution, interaction is regulated through what Mead (1934, p. 334) refers to as "rationality," acquired when "the individual can take the attitude of the others and control his action by these attitudes, and control their action through his own." In this way, each individual is continually affecting society by his/her own attitude. He/She brings up the attitude of the group toward him/herself, responds to it, and through that response changes the attitude of the group (Mead, 1934). In the case of fundamental attitudes, change occurs gradually and no one individual can reorganise the whole society (Mead, 1934).

The generalised system of attitudes or "generalized other" (Mead, 1934, p. 256) is society's representative in the individual and is a crucial element in the relationship between self and society because:

> It is in the form of the generalized other that the social process influences the behavior of the individuals involved in it and carrying it on, that is, that the community exercises control over the conduct of its individual members; for it is in this form that the social process or community enters as a determining factor into the individual's thinking. (Mead, 1934, p. 155)

As Chang (2004) explains, rationality is thus the capacity to control the response of the human and natural world through role taking-based self-control. The level of rationality achieved by the individual depends on his/her capacity and preparedness to see things through the eyes of the Other. That is, rationality involves the individual taking on the role of the Other and making representations to him/herself about the likely responses and reactions of others.

For the BLM pre-service/beginning teacher, the generalised other is represented by the composite attitude of the corporeal environment with which he/she interacts during the BLM (for example, academics and peers) and on entering the new school (students, colleagues, and so forth). The particular attitude of the generalised other that the pre-service/beginning teacher assumes in judging any given situation depends on his/her definition of the situation. Having assumed an attitude of his/her generalised other, the

individual then forms plans of action for certain circumstances and prepares him/herself to follow particular courses of action within the environment (Athens, 1997).

However, the determining influence of the environment can at times take the shape of "obdurate effects" (Blumer, 1969, p. 22). Obdurate effects tend to come about when the actor's role taking is unrealistic and the function of the *Me* inadequate or when the individual is genuinely powerless. In such circumstances, the environment "talk[s] back to our pictures of it or assertions about it—talk[s] back in the sense of challenging and resisting … our images or conceptions of it" (Blumer, 1969, p. 22). When encountering an obdurate response of the environment, the pre-service teacher may be forced to readjust his/her interpretation of the situation and accordingly self-regulate and act differently. That is, "the individual … is continually reacting back against this society" (Mead, 1934, p. 202). This has potential ramifications for the success of the BLM in creating transformative teachers. For example, during in-field experiences, pre-service teachers have been shown to encounter obdurate responses of the environment in that the theory they strive to implement is not valued by the supervising school teacher (Allen & Peach, 2007). A readjustment by the pre-service teacher potentially leads to a self-regulation of teaching practice that conforms to the school practice and that does not align with the BLM model.

Synthesis

Mead's theory of emergence has been selected as an appropriate theoretical framework to investigate the problem of this thesis: *How do teachers experience turning theory into practice during training and initial employment?* In particular, I use two major

mechanisms that condition human action, namely, the individual's role taking and the individual's role taking-based self-regulation (Mead, 1934). In doing so, I seek to explore the experiences that pre-service teachers have in interaction with the BLM program and the new school, and to discover the nature of the emergent, the graduate teacher. I now restate the thesis problem in theoretical propositional terms, thus: *How is the "theory-practice gap" co-produced and sustained during training and initial employment?*

I now synthesise the discussion to this point in order to crystallise the major elements of my theoretical position. At the highest level of abstraction, the core insights are four-fold. I summarise each in turn.

First, the process of becoming a teacher occurs through interaction between one who has chosen to train as a teacher (an individual) and a pre-service teacher education program (an environment). The environment comprises two fields of interaction: university and Teaching Schools.

Second, during the interaction between the individual and the environment, a process of emergence occurs such that there ensues a graduate teacher (an emergent). Inherent in the concept of emergence are two important premises. The first is that the nature of the interaction (what happens between the individual and the environment) determines the nature of the emergent. The second premise is that there are always pre-existing conditions associated with both the individual and the environment and that these conditions underlie the realisation of the interaction (Mead, 1934). When the pre-existing

conditions of the individual or of the environment, or of both, are altered, a different type of emergent (graduate teacher) will emerge.

The BLM provides an environment with a different set of pre-existing conditions to traditional BEd programs. One of the major expectations of the program is that it will enable pre-service/beginning teachers to turn BLM theory into practice (Smith & Moore, 2006). The pre-existing conditions of the pre-service teacher (the individual), such as anticipatory socialisation influences, have not changed. Nevertheless, with an altered set of pre-existing conditions within the environment, the expectation is that a different type of emergent, a learning manager, will emerge.

Third, particular mechanisms provide insight into what influences individuals' actions and their consequences during the process of emergence. Those selected as the most appropriate for furthering the resolution of my thesis problem are the individual's role taking and the individual's role taking-based self-regulation. The latter involves rationality as an important mediating feature in regulating interaction (Mead, 1934).

Fourth, this study seeks to explore the experiences of graduate teachers who have emerged from an environment comprising a different set of pre-existing conditions from the traditional. In order to do so, I take account of their experiences of turning theory into practice in the two environments of the BLM program and the new school. Having identified the core concepts, their relationships are shown in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Relationship between the core theoretical concepts of this thesis
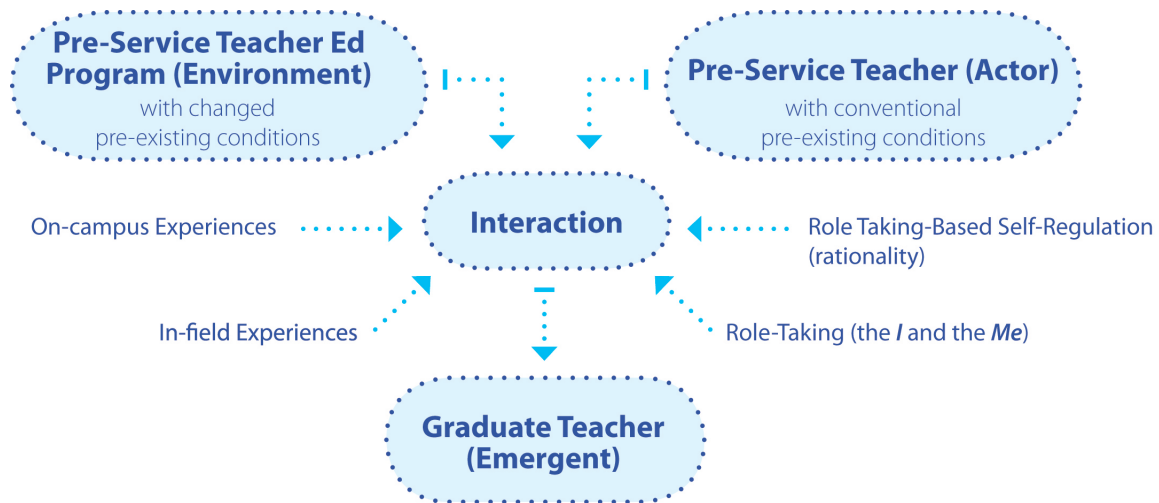
In the next chapter, I present and justify the methodology used in the empirical study. The research setting and participants of this study are also discussed.

Chapter Four

Methodological Approach

Introduction

In this chapter, I describe and justify the methodological design adopted in this thesis. There are two sections to the chapter. The first section establishes why the selected methodological approach is appropriate for investigating the theoretical problem set out in Chapter Three. Section Two outlines the research methods used to investigate the problem and the analysis techniques that were applied. Although discussed separately, these components do not represent a linear or step-by-step process, but rather an interactive process through which the data were collected and analysed within the context and purposes of the study.

Section One

Theoretical underpinning of the study

Section One begins with an explanation and justification of the use of a qualitative approach and interpretivist perspective in this study. It then outlines the qualitative methodology of symbolic interactionism that is inherent in the theoretical underpinning of this research. Finally, the implications of using a symbolic interactionist perspective for the research agenda are discussed.

A qualitative approach

As stated in previous chapters, the primary aim of this study is to contribute to an understanding of the theory-practice gap, identified as a central issue faced by beginning teachers. The problem of the thesis is investigated through the experiences of first-year graduates from a pre-service teacher education program. To accomplish this aim, an interpretive qualitative inquiry approach was selected.

Generally it is agreed that qualitative researchers seek answers to questions that emphasise *how* social realities are created and made meaningful. Qualitative research has been described as:

> a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. … They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 3)

That is, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world which allows the researcher to study phenomena in their natural settings and to gain a sense of the meaning that people have constructed of events and experiences in their lives (Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). This meaning is seen best through examining the symbols and language that people use (Potter, 1996). According to Taylor and Bogdan (1998, p. 8), qualitative methods investigate "settings and people holistically; people, settings, or groups are not reduced to variables, but are viewed instead as a

whole." In this study, qualitative research allowed me to search for "a deeper understanding of the participants' lived experiences" (C. Marshall & Rossman, 1999, p. 39) of engaging with theory and practice.

An interpretivist theoretical approach

The underlying assumption of this study is that the nature of social reality is such that individuals construct their own meaning in different social contexts (Benzies & Allen, 2001). An interpretive perspective is appropriate because "it is centred both in how people methodically construct their experiences and their worlds and in the configurations of meaning and institutional life that inform and shape their reality-constituting activity (Gubrium & Holstein, 2003, p. 215).

In adopting an interpretivist perspective in this study, I am ascribing to the view that all human practices are developed and transmitted in a social context. This view sees meaning as constructed. When individuals consciously engage with objects in the world, meanings emerge. Different individuals may construct different meanings in relation to the same phenomenon (Crotty, 1998). I now proceed to a discussion of the particular methodological approach adopted for this study.

Symbolic interactionism as a theoretical underpinning

Within qualitative inquiry, a range of methodologies is available for the study of meaning and human experiences (Potter, 1996). Symbolic interactionism, with its focus on meaning-making in social situations (Charon, 2007; Potter, 1996; Woods, 1992) was adopted as the most appropriate for the purposes of this study. It provides a perspective

that aligns with the theoretical framework of the thesis, based on Mead's theory of emergence. Sawyer (2001, p. 574) observes that "for all emergentists, interaction is central; higher-level properties emerge from the interactions of individuals in a complex system. Thus the empirical study of emergence processes requires a focus on symbolic interaction." The use of symbolic interactionism in this research provides me with a mechanism to uncover the meanings of the social reality that participants had of turning theory into practice, based upon understanding the lived experience of that social reality from the point of view of the participants.

The notion of symbolic interactionism is generally seen to comprise three major premises. The first of these is that human beings experience reality through their definitions of it and that they "act towards things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them" (Blumer, 1969, p. 2). How people define, or give meaning to, the things they encounter will shape their actions towards them. In other words, they do not respond directly to things but through the use of symbols, including language, attach meaning to things and then act on the basis of that meaning (Benzies & Allen, 2001).

Second, this attribution of meaning to objects through symbols is a continuous process (Blumer, 1969). Meanings are assigned and modified through an interpretive process that is ever changing and that is subject to redefinition, relocation and realignments (Blumer, 1969). Human action is not simply a consequence of psychological attributes, such as attitudes or personalities. Rather, it "is derived from, or arises out of, the social interaction that one has with one's fellows" (Blumer, 1969, p. 2) and is therefore "always

emerging in a state of flux and subject to change" (L. Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, pp. 25-26). The fundamental implication here is that meaning is always a variable (Stone, 1970).

Third, this process takes place in a social context as meaning arises in the process of interaction among individuals (Blumer, 1969). Meaning for an individual emerges out of the ways in which other individuals act to define things. In this way, individuals constantly align their actions to those of others (Gecas & Burke, 1995). They do this through taking on the role of the Other and through making representations to themselves about the likely responses and reactions of others.

Symbolic interactionist assumptions in this research

As this research is underpinned by a symbolic interactionist perspective, it is based on experience, empathy and interaction (Sandstrom, Martin, & Fine, 2006). I discuss each in turn.

Experience

Central to the symbolic interactionist perspective are emphases on subjectivity and interpretation in the creation of meaning (Blumer, 1969). Therefore, the participants' own understandings, viewed from their own experience of social realities, become the subject matter for research. Woods (1992, p. 351) explains that:

> If we are to understand social life, what motivates people, what their interests are, what links them to and distinguishes them from others, what their cherished

values and beliefs are, why they act as they do, and how they perceive themselves and others, we need to put ourselves in their shoes and look at the world with them. Their reality may not be our reality, or what we think theirs is. We need to know how they define situations.

Moreover, if people define situations as real, then they are so in their consequences (Thomas & Thomas, 1928). People do not respond to an objective reality or to how others perceive reality but, rather, to how they themselves interpret reality (Woods, 1992).

In this research, the social reality of participants' experiences is best understood through their own construction of the meaning of that reality. According to symbolic interactionism, participants' beliefs and past experiences play a role in their present behaviour, most importantly in helping them define their current environment. They then act according to this definition (Blumer, 1969). That is, participants are not controlled by their beliefs or by what happened to them in the past, but rather they use beliefs and past experiences to interpret the current situation and then act accordingly (Charon, 2007). Therefore, this research seeks to explore how some recent graduates now involved in the teaching practice construct, perceive and interpret the social reality of turning theory into practice. Their perceptions of the meanings they attach to their experience are central to this research.

Empathy

A fundamental premise of symbolic interactionism is that the capacity for taking the role of the other, or empathy, is essential to the development of self-concept, symbol use, and

culture (Mead, 1934). Role taking involves imagining the world from the perspective of another, and it is the perspectives of others that allow individuals to view themselves (Blumer, 1969). Taking the role of the other is necessary for learning one's own perspectives, for working through social situations, for knowing how to manage others, and for symbolic communication. Individuals continually assess how they affect others and how others affect them (Blumer, 1969). In order to acquire knowledge about the social world, a person must take on the role of the other and participate in the mind of the other (Blumer, 1972). The symbolic interactionist view is that the researcher operates between "multiple worlds when engaging in research—the everyday worlds of the subjects and the world of his [*sic*] own sociological perspective" (Denzin, 1989, p. 10).

As the researcher in this study, I sought to identify with participants in order to understand their interpretation of the social reality of turning theory into practice. I acknowledge that my own biography was a fundamental part of the research process (Sarantakos, 2005) and, by identifying my biases and my own version of reality, I made a conscious attempt not to impose my version of reality on the participants (Lofland, Snow, Anderson, & Lofland, 2006). I extrapolate on this point later in this chapter.

Interaction

Symbolic interactionism asserts that social realities are formed, maintained and changed by the basic meanings attached to them by people who interact on the basis of meanings they assign to their worlds (Blumer, 1969). These meanings are established in and through social interaction; they arise during interaction and they are learned, managed and changed in interaction. As Perinbanayagam (1986, p. 109) explains:

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In Mead's (1934) depiction of the inter-human encounter, an actor articulates a gesture⸺verbal or otherwise⸺and in so doing responds to it himself/herself and, sooner or later, these twin processes elicit a response from another. And to the extent this response is commensurate with that of the initiator, meaning is said to emerge.

As a result, over time, symbolic interaction creates and sustains culture (Blumer, 1969). The culture of a society becomes the overall guide for the individual's meanings, interpretations and actions. As indicated in the previous chapter, Mead (1934, p. 221) coined the term *generalised other* to describe the shared culture of the group. The generalised other is the commonly understood set of perceptions, knowledge, values and rules of a culture, developed through interaction and used by individuals to exert self-control. A generalised other is the knowledge and conscience of the group that individuals are expected to follow and therefore constitutes a guide for normal, civilised behavior (Blumer, 1969).

The most important premise of symbolic interactionism as a methodological approach is that inquiry must be grounded in and "respect" the empirical world (Woods, 1992, p. 348). This study does so through examining how participants themselves experience and perceive (Woods, 1992) the transition from preservice to graduate teachers. It is only through close contact and direct interaction with people in open-minded, naturalistic

enquiry that the symbolic interactionist comes to understand the symbolic world of the participants.

Summary of Section One

This section outlined and justified the use of a qualitative, interpretive approach as appropriate for investigating the theoretical problem of this study. It also provided a rationale for the methods selected for the empirical work of this thesis, namely, the qualitative symbolic interactionist approach. The application of symbolic interactionism, in conjunction with the theoretical model, provides a means for confirming and elucidating the theoretical model and the views uncovered using symbolic interactionism. I now turn to Section Two, which deals with how I conducted the study.

Section Two

Data collection and analysis techniques

In Section Two, I first justify and then describe the specific techniques used to investigate the problem and to analyse the data. The procedures for data collection and subsequent analysis are guided by the research design outlined above. There are seven parts to this section. First, I describe how the research sample was selected and, second, I provide contextual features of the data collection area. Third, data collection methods are justified and discussed. Fourth, I provide a justification of the analytic method and a discussion of how I conducted analysis of the data. Fifth, I describe the importance of consistency and trustworthiness in qualitative research and specify how I sought to ensure them in this

study. Sixth, ethical matters are considered. Seventh, I discuss the role of the researcher and outline my particular role in this research.

Research participants

I selected non-probability sampling for the purposes of this study, acknowledging that the group I selected does not necessarily represent the wider population (L. Cohen et al., 2007), namely, the entire Australian pre-service teacher education population. Within this method, I used the technique of purposive (or judgmental) sampling whereby I purposely chose participants who were relevant to the project (Sarantakos, 2005). Blumer (1969) suggests that a small number of acute observers and well-informed participants are more valuable many times over than a representative sample. Participants selected through purposive sampling "do more to lift the veils covering the sphere of life" (Blumer, 1969, p. 41) than any randomly selected group.

The first step in the purposive sampling was to establish the criteria for the selection of participants. The criteria were that participants had completed the BLM at one of two campuses of a regional university the year before data were collected (2005); were in their first year of employment in the year of data collection (2006); were registered to teach in Queensland; were teaching in a Catholic elementary school in the Catholic Diocese of X[11]; and were willing to participate in the study. These particular criteria were determined as follows.

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[11] In order to protect participants' identities, I use the letter "X" instead of the name of the diocese.

It was practical for me to select graduates from the campuses of the region in which I work and live. Initially I intended to draw participants from only one campus (the one at which I teach) but, with only ten graduates meeting the sampling criteria, this did not provide me with a large enough sample to achieve saturation of the data (Sarantakos, 2005). I therefore extended the sample to include four graduates from a neighbouring campus. Initial analysis of the data then confirmed that I had achieved data saturation with these informants. The BLM program content and delivery is the same across all campuses but it is more likely that students who attend campuses in the same region will have a similar university *experience* than students from a number of different regions. (The university has six campuses in Queensland, five international campuses in Australasia and four offshore delivery sites.) Data were collected in 2006 and, as I was researching the theory-practice gap as experienced by pre-service and beginning teachers, it was appropriate to select teachers who had graduated in the previous year, 2005.

For the purposes of this study, the sample included only those registered teachers who were working in Catholic elementary schools in the Catholic Diocese of X. I chose the Catholic Education system because it is the system in which I had been employed immediately before taking up a role at university. I am familiar with it and I believed that my understanding of the Catholic school culture would facilitate the data collection and analysis. On this point, Giddens (1982, p. 15) says:

> I have accepted that it is right to say that the condition of generating descriptions of social activity is being able to participate in it. It involves "mutual knowledge,"

shared by observer and participants whose action constitutes and reconstitutes the social world.

Further, by delimiting the data collection area to this particular Catholic diocese, I had easier access to the schools than if I included schools statewide. Finally, the university's records show that many Education students receive in-field ("portal task") experience in Catholic schools and that the diocese has been a major employer of BLM graduates since 2004 when the first cohort of BLM students graduated. Of those graduates who gained employment in the region, more were employed by Catholic Education than by any other employing agency. Thus, I anticipated that it would be easier to draw a valid sample from the Catholic Education system than from another school system.

In establishing the criteria for the sample, I elected to only use elementary schools as the site for data collection. This decision was based on the fact that the classroom practice of elementary school teachers has more commonalities than that of secondary teachers teaching across a number of different subject areas (Nicholls, 2004). In total, sixteen teachers met the criteria for participants to comprise the sample. Fourteen agreed to participate in the study. These teachers work in five towns throughout the diocese, the number in each town being: four (in two towns), three, two and one. The fourteen participants work in a total of eleven schools and teach across the range of Years One to Seven.

Having gained ethical clearances from the university and the director of the school system[12], I contacted the principals of the eleven schools by telephone and subsequently by letter to request permission to work with the teacher/s in their schools. All principals granted permission. I followed a similar procedure with the potential participants, telephoning in the first instance and then by letter to invite them to participate in the research. The invitation included an information sheet (Appendix B) that outlined the purpose of the research and the criteria for participation in the study and explained the research design and data collection methods to be used. It also indicated the length of the study, the steps that would be taken to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of the participants, an assurance that participants could withdraw at any time, and details about how the findings of the study would be communicated to the participants. An informed consent form (Appendix C) was also included with the invitation.

Table 4.1 provides details concerning the teachers and their schools. As the research is embedded in real life situations, I used pseudonyms for both in order to anonymise participant identities (Stake, 1995). Of the participants in this study, there were nine females and five males. Four participants were mature age and trained to be teachers after having pursued other careers. The other ten participants entered the BLM after completing secondary education or within a year or so of doing so. In this study, I refer to this latter group of participants as "early age."

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[12] I acknowledge that it is common practice to include copies of ethical clearances as appendices in this type of thesis. However, as both ethical clearances granted in this study divulge the region in which the empirical research was undertaken, I have not followed this practice in the interests of assuring the anonymity of participants.

Table 4.1: Summary of interview participants' details and schools

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Age	School pseudonym	Year level/s taught
Anthony	Male	43	St Anthony's	6
Brendan	Male	41	St Benedict's	5
Anita	Female	49	St Benedict's	7
Bianca	Female	22	St Clare's	1
Catherine	Female	21	St David's	6
Desley	Female	22	St Elizabeth's	5
Elizabeth	Female	21	St Francis of Assisi	1-3
Carl	Male	23	Good Shepherd	6
Fiona	Female	23	Holy Trinity	1
David	Male	23	Holy Trinity	6/7
Gay	Female	21	St Jude's	3
Earl	Male	31	St Jude's	4
Helen	Female	21	St Peter's	2
Inez	Female	21	St Thomas More's	2

I now turn to a description of the contextual features of the data collection area.

Contextual features of the data collection area

The school system used as a data collection area in this study provides a range of educational services, most of which are directed towards the twenty-eight elementary schools and eight secondary colleges for which it is responsible. The diocese identifies its purpose in education as "inviting and challenging learners of all ages to be and become reflective and self-directed as we journey with Christ in our ever-changing world … honouring the past, enriching the present, shaping the future, finding meaning for life" (Stower, 2004, p. 2). The Congregation for Catholic Education (CCE) (1998) states that the goal of Catholic Education is to emphasise a commitment to an educational ministry that embraces and promotes lifelong learning; respects the richness of the past; seeks to meet the major challenges of the present; and creates the potential for a better future.

Organisational and administrative structures in Catholic schools "support the curriculum, give priority to people and develop healthy interpersonal relationships" (CCE, 1998, p. 3).

All participants in this study were drawn from schools within the same diocese and therefore they encountered many similarities in the culture, structure, and daily functions of their schools. There were also a number of differences between their schools, such as the size and makeup of the school population.

As a researcher, I recognise that teachers' work is influenced by the context in which they practise, occupational socialisation being a "known factor counteracting attempts at educating innovative teachers" (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005, p. 153), and that this would have an often-implicit bearing on participants' responses during the data collection of this study. During the data collection period, the participants were in their first year of teaching, where the influence of occupational socialisation has been shown to have a considerable influence on the development of their in-service competence (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Wideen et al., 1998). I now describe and justify the data collection methods used in this study.

Justification and use of data collection methods

One of the guiding maxims of symbolic interactionism is to use any ethical procedure/s that are likely to enable the researcher to gain a clearer picture of what is going on in the area of social life (Blumer, 1969). Data collection methods are considered as "mere instruments designed to identify and analyze the obdurate character of the empirical

world, and as such their value exists only in their suitability in enabling this task to be done" (Blumer, 1969, p. 27). For the purposes of this study, interview and focus group discussion were chosen as the principal data gathering techniques because they enabled me to identify the way in which participants saw and defined the situations in which they were placed and in which they came to apply theory in practice (Blumer, 1997). I justify and discuss each data collection technique in turn.

The interview

The interview is widely used as a research method in qualitative research and is particularly common in studies that employ a symbolic interactionist framework (Berg, 1995). According to Holstein and Gubrium (1997, p. 113), the interview is a special form of conversation that "provides a way of generating empirical data about the social world by asking people to talk about their lives." It therefore provides the researcher with important insights into the phenomena being studied from the participant's perspective (Merriam, 1998). The interview is valuable because it is prepared and conducted in a systematic way; it is controlled by the researcher to avoid bias and distortion, and is created in response to a specific research question and to a specific purpose (Sarantakos, 2005).

An advantage of the interview is that free expression of ideas can be more easily and accurately facilitated in a face-to-face verbal exchange (L. Cohen et al., 2007). In this regard, Lofland (1971, p. 2) says that:

The fullest condition of participating in the mind of another human being is face-to-face interaction. Face-to-faceness has the irreplaceable character of non-reflectivity and immediacy that furnishes the fullest possibility of truly entering the life, mind, and definitions of the other. Through taking the role of another face-to-face, one gains a sense of understanding him [*sic*].

Thus, qualitative interviewing assumes that the other person's perspective is "meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit" (Patton, 2002, p. 341) and acknowledges that respondents are not "passive vessels or repositories of opinions and reasons but rather collaborators in knowledge production" (Gubrium & Holstein, 1997, p. 116).

In utilising the interview as a research method in this study, I acknowledge that this method is heavily dependent on participants' capacities to interact, verbalise, conceptualise and remember (Mason, 2002). I therefore heeded the caution that "it is important not to treat understandings generated in an interview as though they are a direct reflection of understandings 'already existing' outside of the interview interaction, as though you were simply excavating facts" (Mason, 2002, p. 64). As Putnam (1981, p. 50) argues, the researcher cannot adopt a *God's-eye* point of view because all he/she can acquire through the interview process are "the various points of view of actual persons reflecting various interests and purposes that their descriptions and theories subserve."

An important consideration in conducting qualitative research of this nature is the size of the participant sample. While there are varying and often conflicting views about how to

determine the sample size (Krämer & Thieman, 1987), I was guided by Sarantakos (2005, p. 170) who suggests that "the sample must be as large as necessary and as small as possible." He and others (see, for example, L. Cohen et al., 2007; Patton, 2002) support the view that the nature of the data obtained will determine the size. According to these commentators, the aim is to reach data saturation. Sarantakos (2005, pp. 170-171) claims that "the study will stop when saturation is achieved, and this emerges out of the data and not out of logical thinking or other calculations." He goes on to caution that large samples do not always guarantee a higher level of precision and success and that it is the depth rather than the breadth of the data that counts in this type of research.

Having made the informed decision to use interviewing as a data collection method, it was necessary to establish which type of interviewing technique should be used. This decision is usually determined by the amount of structure desired. Patton (2002, p. 342) points out that different techniques involve "different types of preparation, conceptualization, and instrumentation." For the purposes of this study, the semi-structured interview (Sarantakos, 2005) was considered most appropriate.

The semi-structured interview

Since this study sought to investigate the particular experiences of beginning teachers, the interviews were semi-structured to facilitate the free expression of the participants' thoughts. This type of interviewing involves emphasising participants' definitions of situations, encouraging them to structure accounts of situations and allowing them to introduce their notions of relevance (L. Cohen et al., 2007).

The semi-structured interview involves the development of an interview schedule (Appendix D) that lists the questions to be asked during each interview. It also commonly incorporates a first-page *facesheet* for recording factual data about the participant (Lofland et al., 2006). The facesheet in this study includes the interviewer's name, the interviewee's name and number (1-14), age and gender, the name of his/her school, the grade that he/she teaches, and the place and date of the interview. Also included are the starting and finishing times and duration of the interview.

The objective of the schedule is to ensure that the same basic lines of inquiry are followed with each of the participants (Patton, 2002). I therefore elected to construct the interview questions within a theory-practice framework. The justification for this and for my selection of a particular framework is as follows.

In the previous chapter I explained that the core planning and teaching elements of the BLM can be encapsulated within three primary concepts of the program, namely, workplace readiness, futures orientation and capacity to implement a learning design process. Having identified these concepts, I wished to apply a lens through which I could explore participants' experiences of translating the elements contained within them into professional practice. The review of literature reported earlier highlights the dearth of such theoretical tools within education research so I therefore selected a framework that has emerged from the field of management, namely Pfeffer and Sutton's (2000) *Eight Guidelines for Action* (also discussed in the literature review). This set of guidelines was developed to address the "constellation of factors" that creates the theory-practice gap in

organisations (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, p. 246). That is, based on the empirical work by Pfeffer and Sutton, these guidelines represent the procedures that need to be implemented in order for theory or "what needs to be done" to be carried out in practice (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, p. 175).

I selected a management framework because there has been a considerable amount of research done in the management field, particularly in the last ten years, into the theory-practice gap, which has produced some compelling evidence (Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Christensen, Anthony, & Roth, 2004; H. B. Cohen, 1998; Moisander et al., 2005). Further, the use of a management model in my research provides a means of looking at the problem in a way that the extant literature does not. That is, this framework enables me to work outside the educational paradigm and to view the theory-practice gap in teacher education from a different vantage point. In this way, I am attempting to project a transdisciplinary perspective onto the study. Essentially, I am seeking to use a management theory to frame the study's empirical work before subsequently translating the findings from the research back into education.

Table 4.2 lists the eight guidelines established by Pfeffer and Sutton. It also provides a brief definition of each guideline, paraphrased from their work, as well as my interpretation of the guidelines as they relate to the pre-service/beginning teacher. The latter relates to the two environments in which he/she works, the university and the new school.

Utilising this framework, I developed twenty-four interview questions (four questions under one of the guidelines, three questions under six and two questions under one), which are listed in Appendix E. Also included are two *icebreaker* questions, included to make the participants feel comfortable and to enhance the informal atmosphere of the interview (Lancy, 1993). In light of the problem of this study, the questions relate to the experiences of first-year graduates both during their pre-service preparation, at the university and in the schools where they had in-field experiences, and in the new school. My decision about how to contextualise each question was guided by the relevance of the Pfeffer and Sutton guideline to how the theory and practice "play out" in teacher education and teaching. For example, on the one hand, I apply Guideline 1*: Why before how: Philosophy is importan*t to the university context only. This is because one of the fundamental concepts of the BLM is that pre-service teachers develop clear understandings of such concepts as futures and pedagogical design if they are to graduate with a different set of capabilities than their predecessors, graduates of the BEd model. That is, following the Pfeffer and Sutton model, they must engage with the basic philosophy of the BLM if they are to implement its core theoretical principles. On the other hand, questions arising from Guideline 8*: What leaders do, how they spend their time and how they allocate resources, matters* relates solely to the new school environment. My reasoning here is that if graduates are to implement their pre-service theory then they need to have the support of their leaders in the workplace (Crowther, Hann, & Andrews, 2002). Questions aligned with some other guidelines address both environments.

Table 4.2: Pfeffer & Sutton's (2000) Guidelines for Action, defined & contextualised

Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline for Action*	Some defining principles of the guideline	The guideline as it applies to the pre-service/beginning teacher
Guideline 1: Why before how: Philosophy is important	Importance of beginning not with specific techniques or practices but rather with some basic principles, a philosophy or set of guidelines about how the organisation operates. Must be constant and fundamental.	Clear understandings about the core principles of the BLM must be articulated to all pre-service teachers. The message must be constant and unchanging.
Guideline 2: Knowing comes from doing and teaching others how	Develops a deeper and more profound level of knowledge and virtually by definition eliminates the knowing-doing gap.	Teaching is a way of knowing, and so is doing the work, trying different things, experimenting.
Guideline 3: Action counts more than elegant concepts and plans	Doing and then planning helps to establish a cultural tone that action is valued and that talk and analysis without action are unacceptable.	Without taking some action, without being in the actual setting and confronting the task of teaching, learning is more difficult and less efficient because it is not grounded in real experience.
Guideline 4: There is no doing without mistakes. What is the organisation's response?	In building a culture of action, one of the most critical elements is what happens when things go wrong. Actions, even those that are well planned, inevitably entail the risk of being wrong.	What is the university's response? What is the school's response? Do they provide "soft landings?" (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, p. 253) Or do they treat failure and error so harshly that pre-service/beginning teachers are reluctant to try anything innovative because they are afraid of failure?
Guideline 5: Fear fosters knowing-doing gaps, so drive out fear	What organisations need is a forgiveness framework, and not a failure framework. Organisations can do things to make power differences less visible and, as a consequence, less fear-inducing.	In both the university and the school settings, pre-service/beginning teachers should feel engaged in their studies and practice and valued for what they do.
Guideline 6: Beware of false analogies: Fight the competition, not each other	Cooperation means that the result is the product of common effort, the goal is shared, and each member's success is linked with every other's.	Collaboration, by way of sharing labour, ideas and materials, means that pre-service/beginning teachers are more likely to be successful.
Guideline 7: Measure what matters and what can help turn knowledge into action	The foundation of any successfully run organisation is a strategy everyone understands coupled with a few key measures that are routinely tracked.	Do pre-service/beginning teachers understand the fundamental concepts of their training/profession? Is this how they are assessed?
Guideline 8: What leaders do, how they spend their time and how they allocate resources, matters	The difference between organisations is in the systems and day-to-day management practices that create and embody a culture that values the building and transfer of knowledge and, most important, acting on that knowledge.	Are the practices of pre-service/beginning teachers valued and supported by their leaders?

In selecting to conduct semi-structured interviews, I acknowledge a number of limitations that are commonly associated with this approach. These include the variations in depth, breadth and amount of information received from different participants that compound the considerable difficulties of managing information gained through open-ended questioning (Sarantakos, 2005). Of particular importance is the fundamental problem of validity that qualitative researchers face in claiming that the meaning of particular concepts and understandings as articulated by the participant are compatible with those actually understood by the researcher (Roche, 1997). Although the justification often given is that interviews produce findings that are representative of the participant's viewpoint within a given context, I nonetheless sought to interpret the experience of the participants and the meaning they made of that experience (Seidman, 1998). A related weakness in qualitative interviewing pertinent to a study of this nature is the assumption that participants will respond openly, honestly, willingly and without misrepresentation (Sarantakos, 2005). To militate against this inherent weakness, the difference between what people say they do and feel and what they actually do and feel, I also employed the method of focus group discussion. This allowed me to re-examine in a different context some of the responses that participants had given in the interviews.

Use of the semi-structured interview in this study

The fourteen participants in this study were each involved in a semi-structured interview of between one and a half and two hours. The interviews were conducted in August and September of 2006. All but one of the interviews was face-to-face. One participant was called away on a family matter on the arranged interview day and I subsequently

conducted that interview by telephone the following day. All face-to-face interviews took place in an allocated meeting room in the participant's school.

The purpose of the research and the interview had been explained to participants in the information sheet and consent form sent to them six weeks before the interview process began. I also reiterated the nature and purpose of the research when ringing to arrange interview times. Before starting each interview, I handed the participant a copy of the interview schedule so that he/she could follow the direction of the discussion. I chose not to follow the practice of some researchers who forward the interview questions to the participant before the interview date (Patton, 2002) as I was seeking spontaneous, unrehearsed answers to the questions. By way of introduction to the interview, I followed a number of instructions to myself, as suggested by Lofland et al. (2006). These included reiterating to each participant the nature and purpose of the research and interview and how participant selection had come about; assurances of anonymity and confidentiality; indicating that there were no right or wrong answers because I was seeking personal reflections and experiences; encouragement to ask for clarification or elaboration of questions; and some details about my training, background and interest in this research area.

With the permission of the participants, the semi-structured interviews were audio-taped in order to provide accurate data for analysis and to allow me and the participant to focus on the discourse rather than the process (Lofland et al., 2006). Audio-taping provided me with a full and accurate record of the interview, and allowed both myself and the

participant to assume a more relaxed mode (L. Cohen et al., 2007). I also kept a research diary in which I made hand-written notes both during and after the interviews (Hollway & Jefferson). The diary was used to record observations, tentative interpretations, questions and so forth, as well as to note non-verbals such as body language and facial expressions (Kelchtermans & Vandenberghe, 1994).

Once the interview process was completed, the interviews were transcribed verbatim from the audio-tape. Audio-taping the interviews also allowed me to replay the discussions multiple times to provide clarity and accurate transcription, as well as promoting awareness of verbal mannerisms and emotive changes in tone and dialogue (Hanifin, 1999). Also included in the transcripts were instances of long silences, changes in loudness of speech and the like. These were enclosed in brackets. Transcript pages were numbered and lines on each page were numbered. Wide margins on the left and right sides of the page facilitated note taking during subsequent coding.

The transcription carried out in this study was done so in the understanding that it is not possible "to write talk down in an objective way" (Green, Franquiz, & Dixon, 1997, p. 172) and that transcripts cannot be neutral. Rather, I acknowledge that the act of transcribing is both an interpretive and a representational process (Green et al., 1997), given that researchers are inevitably selective in deciding what to include, and what not to include, in a transcript. In this research, I was guided by Kvale (1996, p. 166) in asking myself before beginning the transcribing process: *What is a useful transcription for my research purposes?* In answering this question, I arrived at the model outlined in the

previous paragraph, which allowed me to capture verbal and some important non-verbal language.

Throughout the data collection process, I also paid heed to the need for contextualisation that exists in regards to verbal statements and exchanges (Lofland et al., 2006), acknowledging Lofland et al.'s (2006, p. 95) advice that the researcher should avoid the mistake of evaluating verbal statements only in terms of their representation of some external reality, and that "the bare 'facts' of verbal interaction—the statements made by interviewees and the exchanges observed among conversational participants, for instance—must be evaluated in the context of the conversation." To this end, I not only questioned the accuracy of my data and took actions to facilitate their veracity, as outlined in this chapter, but also remained cognisant of the context in which the "facts" occurred: the situations in which behaviours took place and in which accounts were given (Lofland et al., 2006).

After the transcription process, each participant was sent a copy of his/her transcript for corroboration and correction. This process is known as *member checking* (S. J. Taylor & Bogdan, 1998).

Use of the member check in this study

I used member checking as a validating process that involves "reporting the participants' views in their own (interview-derived) words" (Stark & Torrance, 2005, p. 34). Participants were asked to review the transcripts for "accuracy and palatability" (Stake, 1995, p. 115) before coding or analysis was carried out. Given that the transcripts were

transcribed verbatim from the audio-tapes, it was highly probable that the participants' words were accurately recorded. So, clearly, and in line with the understanding of the transcription process outlined above, the aim of the member checking process was not to ask, *Is this what you said?* but, rather, *Is this what you meant to say?* The process gave the participants the opportunity to correct any factual mistakes, add information, and offer alternative interpretations and perspectives if they wished to do so (Merriam, 1998). I acknowledge, however, that this process is not without its flaws. For example, it was unlikely that participants approached or assessed the transcripts presented to them with the same theoretical concerns and issues that animated my research (Lofland et al., 2006).

Each participant was sent an electronic copy of his/her transcript and was asked to respond to me, after review, with any questions or concerns regarding the content. Ten of fourteen participants replied and all confirmed the accuracy of the transcript. None suggested changes, additions or deletions. In order to ensure that the four non-respondents were satisfied that the transcript was accurate, I contacted each by telephone. All verbally confirmed the accuracy of the transcript.

Focus group conversations were also conducted in order to subject the individual accounts of participants to "probing and critical collective discussion" by a group of their peers (Blumer, 1969, p. 52).

The focus group

Maykut and Morehouse's (1994, p. 104) notion of a focus group is "a group conversation with a purpose." They see it as providing an opportunity for participants in a study "to

listen to each other's contributions, which may spark new insights or help them to develop their ideas more clearly" (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, p. 104). Although the one-to-one interviews are useful in gaining insights into the individual minds of participants, a greater richness of ideas can sometimes be found in focus group discussions, where a comment made by one participant can evoke memories and ideas in others. I concur with Punch (1998, p. 177) that focus groups can assist "in bringing to the surface aspects of a situation which might not otherwise have been exposed." They allow participants to react to and build upon the responses of other group members. Further, they help explore aspects of the inquiry that "might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 302).

Before conducting the focus groups, I began analysis of the interview data in order to identify particular issues that could be explored further in these discussions (L. Cohen et al., 2007). According to C. Marshall and Rossman (1999), early analysis is important as it allows the researcher to adjust data collection strategies, ensure experiences that facilitate understanding and exercise control over emerging issues by checking or testing of these issues during subsequent data collection. Data analysis at this time involved me reading each transcript twice and identifying significant segments of text to which I assigned tentative, descriptive codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Having completed this initial examination of the data, I then developed focus group questions.

My aim in writing the questions was twofold. First, I wished to explore certain issues and tensions that had emerged from the interview data and, second, I wanted to gain more

participant feedback in several areas where the data were not substantial. This process also forced me, as a researcher, to confront issues and to check my interpretations and understanding (S. J. Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). The focus group discussions were guided by ten questions listed in the interview schedule (Appendix F). Again, the schedule includes a facesheet containing details about participants.

In conducting the focus groups, I was cautious to honour the intent of this type of interview, as identified by Patton (2002, pp. 385-386):

> The focus group is, first and foremost, an interview. It is not a problem-solving session. It is not a decision-making group. It is primarily a discussion, though direct interactions among participants often occur. It is an *interview*. The twist is that, unlike a series of one-on-one interviews, in a focus group participants get to hear each other's responses. … However, participants need not agree with each other or reach any kind of consensus. Nor is it necessary for people to disagree.

Thus, I sought to obtain high-quality data in a social context where participants could consider their own views in the context of the view of others (Patton, 2002).

Some of the advantages commonly associated with focus group discussions were manifest in this study. The approach was effective in stimulating discussion among participants and in providing rich data for this study. The extent to which there was a "relatively consistent, shared view or great diversity of views" (Patton, 2002, p. 386)

could be quickly assessed. It was a cost-effective way of gathering data and enabled me to gather information from four people, rather than only one interviewee, in less than two hours (L. Cohen et al., 2007).

However, there are also limitations inherent in this type of data gathering approach and I was mindful of these throughout the process. Sampling is a major issue; the researcher must seek to avoid bias in the selection of participants and in deciding on the composition of each focus group (L. Cohen et al., 2007). I discuss my approach to this below. During the discussions, I acknowledged the potential problems of particular participant/s dominating the discussion and others, who tend to be less verbal, not sharing their views. Due to the nature of the group setting, the responses of the participants are not independent and this can lead to "group think" (Minichello, Aroni, Timewell, & Alexander, 1995, p. 66). There was also the risk that those who believe their viewpoint to be a minority perspective would be disinclined to voice their opinions and risk negative reactions (Patton, 2002). Therefore, I took extreme care to successfully manage the discussion through the use of group interview skills gained in industry (see "Role of the researcher" below).

Use of the focus group in this study

In this study, the interview data were examined further in two focus group discussions with participants. All participants were invited to participate and eight of the fourteen who had been interviewed agreed to take part. Having received these acceptances, I decided to hold two focus groups of four participants each, as this represented a viable group size and allowed for a mix of participants in terms of age, gender and place of

work (Sarantakos, 2005). Table 4.3 provides details of the composition of the two focus groups. I was also guided by Patton (2002) who suggests that focus groups should typically comprise small groups of people who participate in the interview for one to two hours. The composition of each group was decided upon pragmatically: participants attended one of the two locations where the focus groups were held according to the proximity to where they worked.

Table 4.3: Summary of focus group participants' details and schools

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Age	School pseudonym	Year level/s taught
Focus Group 1				
Earl	Male	31	St Jude's	4
Anita	Female	49	St Benedict's	7
Bianca	Female	22	St Clare's	1
David	Male	23	Holy Trinity	6/7
Focus Group 2				
Catherine	Female	21	St David's	6
Elizabeth	Female	21	St Francis of Assisi	1-3
Carl	Male	23	Good Shepherd	6
Brendan	Male	41	St Benedict's	5

The two focus groups were held a week apart in November 2006, two months after the semi-structured interviews had been completed. The first focus group was held in an interview room in the school of one of the participants. Three people attended in person and another, unable to attend because of the remote location in which he works, participated by teleconference mode. The discussion lasted two hours and five minutes. The second focus group took place in another town where two of the participants work. Two others travelled from a neighbouring town to attend. The discussion was held in the

Assistant to the Principal's office in one of the participant's schools and lasted just under two hours.

A copy of the interview schedule was given to each of the participants at the start of the focus groups so they could be aware of the direction of the discussion. As with the one-on-one interviews, discussions were audio-taped with the permission of the participants and were later transcribed. I also took notes throughout each group interview and, at the conclusion of each discussion, spent time (approximately twenty minutes) discussing with the participants some of the key points that they had made. This was intended to confirm the accuracy of my understanding.

Following the discussions, I re-listened to the audio-tapes a number of times and began the same transcription process as used for the semi-structured interviews. In this case, however, a variety of transcription symbols were included that had not been used when writing the previous set of transcripts. As the focus groups comprised more than one participant, it was important to capture in the transcripts certain sequencing phenomena such as simultaneous utterances and overlapped speech. In order to do this, I selected some of Psathas' (1995) transcription symbols.

Participants were further consulted once the transcripts had been completed. Each was sent an electronic copy of the transcript (without participant identification) of the group discussion in which he/she was involved and asked to confirm that it was an accurate reflection of the discussion. Five of eight sent confirmatory responses. I then contacted

the other three participants by telephone and they gave verbal confirmation of the accuracy of the transcript.

Justification of the analytic method

Data analysis in qualitative research can be defined as the process of "organizing, accounting for, and explaining the data; in short, making sense of the data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities" (L. Cohen et al., 2007, p. 184). The process involves bringing meaning to raw, inexpressive data (C. Marshall & Rossman, 1999) to illustrate how what is said relates to the experiences and lives of those participants involved in the research (Silverman, 2004). The data analysis in this study was guided by principles outlined by Miles and Huberman (1994) and Coffey and Atkinson (1996).

Ideally, the analysis of data should be consistent and compatible with the underlying philosophy of the research. In qualitative research, this notion of congruence assumes that data collection and analysis is a simultaneous and ongoing activity, with analysis beginning soon after data collection commences (L. Cohen et al., 2007; Ezzy, 2002). Symbolic interactionism provides a methodological tool to inform the process of data analysis. That is, rather than comprising a theory to which the researcher must subscribe, it provides a methodological position that is actualised in the analysis of the data (Blumer, 1969). It is "an approach designed to yield verifiable knowledge of human group life and human conduct" (Blumer, 1969, p. 21).

My interest in this study lies in exploring the meaning that participants made of their theory-practice experiences. Both earlier in this chapter and in Chapter Three, I identified particular areas of theory that I especially wished to explore, encapsulated within three major concepts undergirding the BLM. Hence, I approached the analysis of data with these concepts in mind. My decision to do so was influenced by Blumer (1969, p. 26) who says:

> Throughout the act of scientific inquiry concepts play a major role. They are significant elements in the prior scheme that the scholar has of the empirical world; they are likely to be the terms in which the problem is cast; they are usually the categories for which data are sought and in which the data are grouped; they usually become the chief means for establishing relations between data; and they are usually the anchor points in interpretation of findings.

Thus, throughout the analytic process, I did not notice particular words, phrases, ideas, recounted experiences and behaviours and so forth by chance but, rather, I was sensitised to specific phenomena because of the conceptual framework within which I was working (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999).

This is not to suggest that I sought only the pieces of data that were important within my conceptual framework. On the contrary, I was alert to uncovering in the data salient features or themes that I had not predicted or expected. As Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 56) explain:

The challenge is to be explicitly mindful of the purposes of your study and of the conceptual lenses you are training on it—while allowing yourself to be open to and reeducated by things you didn't know about or expect to find.

In order to do this, I followed a process of coding, categorising and identifying concepts, as outlined in Table 4.4 and described below.

Table 4.4: Outline of the analytic method (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996)

Steps in the analytic method	What needs to be done	How it is done
1. Coding	Organise, manage and retrieve the most meaningful bits of the data. Generating concepts from and with the data.	Assign tags or labels to the data, based on researcher's concepts.
2. Categorising	Establish links of various sorts.	Link different segments or instances in the data to create categories, defined as having some common property or element.
3. Identifying concepts	Common properties or elements relate to a particular idea or concept.	Link the categories to an idea or concept.
4. Making connections	Importance of the analytic work lies in how the researcher uses the codings and concepts.	Establish and think about the linkages identified in the data. Identify relevant concepts.

The analysis of qualitative data generally begins with coding, the process of "assigning tags or labels to the data, based on our concepts" (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 26). Codes provide "the decisive link between the original 'raw data,' that is, the textual material such as interview transcripts or field notes, on the one hand and the researcher's

theoretical concepts on the other" (Seidel & Kelle, 1995, cited in Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 27).

They can be "attached to 'chunks' of data of varying size—words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 56) and are usually derived in one or more of three ways, all of which I use in this study. First, they can be the word/s used by participant/s (e.g. "culture shock"); second, they can be term/s used by the researcher to capture what participant/s seem to be referring to or describing at a particular point in the text (e.g. "classroom management"); and, third, they can reflect more directly the researcher's conceptual interests (e.g. "self-regulation") (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996).

Coding enables the researcher to identify meaningful data, thus setting the stage for interpreting and drawing conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It provides a way of engaging with and reflecting upon the data and, according to Coffey and Atkinson (1996, p. 30), it is this process of reflection that is "more important ultimately than the precise procedures and representations that are employed."

Once codes are identified, the researcher is able to move to a second level of preliminary analysis, one that is more general and explanatory (Miles & Huberman, 1994), namely, the generation of categories. Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 69) explain that "just naming or classifying what is out there is usually not enough. We need to understand the patterns, the recurrences, the plausible whys." Richards (1999) points out that researchers usually create categories in two different ways: "up" from the data, where meanings within the

data are noted and recorded, and "down" from ideas, project designs and theories that were established before data collection. Huberman and Miles (1994) agree that researchers can create analytic categories deductively, whereby they start with them, or inductively, meaning that they get gradually to them. Both are legitimate and useful paths (Huberman & Miles, 1994). In this study I, like many qualitative researchers previously (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999; Miles & Huberman, 1994), created categories in both ways.

In the course of coding, the qualitative researcher is advised to make notes about the process. This is referred to as *memoing* (Lofland et al., 2006; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Writing memos assists in making sense of the data and constitutes an intermediate step between coding and the first draft of the interpretation of the data (Lofland et al., 2006). A memo in this context has been described as:

> the theorizing write-up of ideas about codes and their relationships as they strike the analyst while coding. … It can be a sentence, a paragraph or a few pages … it exhausts the analyst's momentary ideation based on data with perhaps a little conceptual elaboration. (Glaser, 1978, cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 72)

Memos are essentially a conceptual tool in that they link together different pieces of data into a recognisable grouping, often to demonstrate that those data form part of a general theme or concept (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this study, I followed the suggestion by Miles and Huberman (1994) to write memos on the one hand about codes and their

relationship to aspects of the study and on the other hand about issues of a personal, methodological and substantive nature. Appendix G contains three examples of my memos, originally hand written in my research diary.

Before categories can be established, the coded data need to be retrieved. Essentially, this means that recontextualised data need to be collated and displayed in such a way that they can be read easily. Huberman and Miles (1994, p. 428) consider "data display" a key element in the analytic process. It involves selecting the segments of data that relate to a particular code and presenting them together in order for the researcher to explore the composition of each coded set (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). He/She is then able to link different segments or instances in the data to create categories, defined as having some common property or element. This can be done in a number of ways. In this study, the categories correspond with the thrust of questioning in the interviews and were part of the agenda followed in the semi-structured and focus group discussions (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Thus, they allow for the views, interests and perceptions of participants.

The third step in the analytic process leading up to interpretation is linking the established categories to concepts or themes, which are "identified or constructed from prior material, theoretical frameworks, research questions, or the data themselves" (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 31). This can be seen as "the transformation of the coded data into meaningful data" (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 47). Delamont (1992, cited in Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 47) suggests that the researcher should be looking for "patterns,

themes, and regularities as well as contrasts, paradoxes, and irregularities." The researcher is then able to move toward generalising and theorising from the data.

Themes in this research, while relating closely to the content of the data, are generally those that I constructed and which took me towards concepts of a more analytic, theoretical relevance (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). That is, I moved my coding process from identifying categories that aligned closely with the original data to those that inferred much broader analytic issues (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996).

Analysis of data in this study

As described above, I did a first cut of the interview data before conducting focus groups. This involved reading each transcript twice and assigning tentative, descriptive codes to segments of texts that seemed important in light of the research problem. Immediately after the focus groups, I carried out a second cut of the whole data set. At this time, I noted in the margin of each transcript key words or phrases that responded directly to the interview question and/or that encapsulated the meaning that participants attributed to their experiences. I also revised some of the code names assigned during the first data cut. Guided by Miles and Huberman (1994), I used "value-free" coding terms, such as "time management" instead of (the participants') "not enough time" or "time's always an issue." This was to facilitate subsequent categorisation and interpretation (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Simultaneously with assigning codes, I listed each code word or phrase in my research diary. A review of this list at the end of the coding process revealed a number of "double-ups," where I had used several different names for what was essentially one code. This necessitated six cases of condensing two or more code

names into one. The reduced list of codes numbered fifty-eight in total. I then transferred this list of codes to a single sheet for easy reference (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

As the initial coding had been done within questions sets (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996), before categorising could begin it was necessary to qualify some codes to indicate their context. By way of illustration, I provide some examples of final codes, qualified by the word/s in parentheses: time management (transition), implementing BLM theory (portal tasks), implementing BLM theory (new school), and physical resources (new school).

I then returned to the full data set to sort codes into categories. This involved finding each instance of a particular code across all the data, cutting out the relevant segment of the transcript (with the code hand-written in the margin), labelling it with the transcript page number, the interview/focus group question number and an abbreviation of the participant's pseudonym, and then grouping together all these segments in the file of an indexed concertina folder. While extremely time consuming (Miles & Huberman, 1994), this process allowed me to sort the data effectively and assisted me in conceptualising categories[13].

When devising categories, I organised the data in ways that were useful for analysis by

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[13] I acknowledge the advantages of computer-aided analysis (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Richards, 1999; Richards & Richards, 1994) and have undertaken training in using the NVivo software program. However, I preferred to approach analysis in this study through the use of hard copy materials for three reasons. First, I found that this method allowed me to more effectively immerse myself in the data; second, I use an Apple Macintosh, a computer brand that has some limitations in running certain analytic software programs; and, third, I did not want to be tied to a computer, preferring to be able to transport my hard copy transcripts and associated analysis materials wherever I went.

context of the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Specifically, this meant creating categories that aligned with one of the three theoretical concepts underpinning the BLM. I created a total of eight categories, three under two and two under one of the BLM concepts that represent the analytic themes in this study (see Appendix H). Having sorted codes into categories, I then placed coded segments into the relevant category file.

Analysis of the data involved examining the categories as they related to each of the themes and in light of the research question, the literature and the theoretical framework of the study. I present, analyse and interpret the data in Chapters Five and Six. I now turn to a discussion of consistency and trustworthiness as they relate to this study.

Consistency and Trustworthiness

Patton (2002) claims that, as the researcher is the instrument in qualitative research, it is the skill, competence and rigour of the researcher that is vital in establishing consistency and trustworthiness. The aim of the qualitative researcher is to increase understanding of the variables, parameters and dynamics of the question under study, rather than seeking one true definition of the situation because in social situations truth is multiple, phenomena being described from the unique perspective/s of the respondent/s (Patton, 2002). Therefore, it is acknowledged that issues that relate to consistency and trustworthiness of qualitative studies may be interpreted in a number of different ways (G. Anderson, 1998). While the aim of all research is to produce consistent and trustworthy knowledge in an ethical manner, this takes different forms in qualitative research than in quantitative research (L. Cohen et al., 2007).

In quantitative research, reliability refers to the reproducibility of scientific findings when the method is replicated (Patton, 2002). However, this is problematic in qualitative research because human behaviour is not static and it is not the aim of the researcher to isolate the laws of human behaviour. Rather, "researchers seek to describe and explain the world as those in the world experience it" (Merriam, 1998, p. 205). Therefore, in this study, attention is given to ascertaining the dependability or *consistency* of the findings. The question is whether the results are consistent with the data collected (L. Cohen et al., 2007; Neuman, 2003).

Trustworthiness is concerned with the accuracy of the findings, or how they match with the reality of the participants (Patton, 2002). As data do not speak for themselves there is always an interpreter or translator, and therefore an inherent danger that the researcher may misunderstand the meanings that the participant intended, thus the need for internal validation (L. Cohen et al., 2007).

One ethical obligation of all researchers is to minimise misrepresentation and misunderstanding of data and to establish trustworthy data (Stake, 2005). Therefore, triangulation is used to ensure that data gathered are not the result of a single data-collection method. Wiersma (2000, p. 252) defines triangulation as "qualitative cross-validation [that] assesses the sufficiency of the data according to the convergence of multiple data sources or multiple data-collection procedures."

Ensuring consistency

I sought to ensure consistency in my research in the following ways. First, throughout the study I maintained a commitment to accurately present the participants' perspectives. The study uses a methodology that was designed to collect data that were subsequently verified by the participants and accurately identified, coded and sorted. The interview schedule, once developed, was redrafted and refined many times in order to facilitate consistency across interviews. The interview schedule also incorporated suggested improvements from four colleagues within the university's School of Education who are experienced researchers and whose advice I sought on the schedule. I also sought and received face validation of the interview questions from a panel of three experts from two other faculties within the university (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982).

Subsequently, having made suggested changes to the interview schedule and as final preparation for data collection, I conducted a pilot study. This provided me with the opportunity to further refine my data collection plans, in terms of both the content of the data and the procedures I would follow. The three participants in the pilot study did not form part of my participant sample as they did not meet one of the criteria for participant selection (all were employed in state elementary schools). This procedure disclosed some ambiguities and weaknesses in the wording of the questions, which were subsequently rectified. It also revealed that it was necessary to include probing questions as a stimulus (Lofland et al., 2006) and these were accordingly included. A final pilot study was then carried out with the same three participants and final revisions were made (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982).

As a means of authenticating and explaining the research findings, I created an audit trail that provides details of how I collected the data, derived categories and made decisions throughout the inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998). As Patton (2002) points out, if others are able to follow the trail of the researcher they will be in a position to judge the quality of the research findings for themselves. An associated procedure that is helpful in ensuring reliability is the maintenance of a well-documented research database (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I followed this procedure throughout the study. The database consists of researcher notes, taken during interviews and subsequently transcribed, transcripts of the interviews and incidental comments from participants, and participant confirmation of the accuracy of transcripts. The database has been retained as audio-tapes, interviewer's notes and transcriptions. Each interview transcription has been retained, both in hard copy and electronically on hard drive and on computer disk, and stored securely at separate locations. Also included are copies of all archival and reference material used. All of these measures help to ensure consistency in the research (S. J. Taylor & Bogdan, 1998).

Ensuring trustworthiness

In order to ensure trustworthiness in the study, I used a number of internal validation strategies. First, as outlined above, I conducted member checks of the data collected through interviews and focus groups. I also spent time with participants after every individual or group interview, clarifying any responses that were unclear or ambiguous. During this time, I encouraged participants to raise issues and ask questions about the data that had been collected. Without exception, participants expressed their satisfaction with the nature and content of the data collection.

Another strategy that I used was peer examination (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), whereby I asked colleagues to comment on the findings as they emerged. This took place three times during the process of data analysis. First, following the transcription of the semi-structured interviews, I presented four of my transcripts to a Faculty of Education colleague and we discussed, and in some cases modified, the tentative categories that I had assigned. I then repeated this procedure after the focus group interviews with a colleague from another faculty of the university. Third, I presented all of my transcripts to my associate supervisor and discussed on a number of occasions how I was proceeding with data analysis. This involved justifying my analytic method and demonstrating that I was applying it rigorously.

I also used triangulation as a means of ensuring trustworthiness. Specifically, I used method triangulation, which is the most recognised of the protocols and involves using several or more research approaches within the study (Sarantakos, 2005). By employing this strategy, I acknowledged the interactionist understanding that no single method can adequately deal with all the issues involved in discovery and verification (Denzin, 1969). Every method has limitations and, if two or more methods are combined in the same study, "the restrictions of one are often the strength of the other" (Denzin, 1969, p. 926). Through basing my data collection on the triangulation principle, I sought to ensure that the study would yield data that are more trustworthy than an investigation that was not so based (Denzin, 1969).

Ethical considerations

In conducting this study, I paid heed to matters of ethics as an important strategy for improving consistency and building confidence and trust in the participants and in those who have an interest in the research (Patton, 2002). As L. Cohen et al. (2007, p. 56) explain, "social scientists generally have a responsibility not only to their profession in its search for knowledge and quest for truth, but also for the subjects they depend on for their work." As research involves interaction between researcher and participants, I placed emphasis on giving appropriate consideration within the research design to the rights of the participants. Hence, the research was conducted within the standard ethical considerations of educational research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2000) and the policies of the Central Queensland University Human Research Ethics Committee whose standard operating procedures are in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans (CQU, 2006). This committee granted ethical approval. The study was set within the context of systemic schools in the Catholic Diocese of X, and so approval was also sought and granted from the diocesan director and the principals of the eleven elementary schools from which participants were drawn.

Throughout this study, I was sensitive to the ethical principles of confidentiality, negotiation, collaboration and accountability (Burns, 2000). I assured the participants that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any stage of the research; that confidentiality was guaranteed; that their identity would be protected; and that no harm would come to any participant. Before the interviews and focus group discussions, I informed the participants of these rights, both verbally and in writing, and asked them to

give their informed consent (McMillan & Schumacher, 2000). Each participant was allocated a pseudonym for anonymity and each school was also identified with a pseudonym (Neuman, 2003). Further, the letter "X" was used in lieu of the name of the Catholic diocese from which participants were drawn. In presenting the data in Chapter Five, I also elected to omit some specific details about some participants, their schools and classes given that the inclusion of these details could lead to participant identification.

Audio-taped data, field notes, transcripts and other printed materials were stored in a locked filing cabinet located in my office. Electronic data were password protected. I acknowledged that from time to time ethical dilemmas might arise and that I would need to solve them in the immediacy of the situation (Punch, 1998).

Role of the researcher

In qualitative research, the researcher is the instrument in that he/she is charged with the task of collecting and analysing the data (Lofland et al., 2006; Patton, 2002) and is responsible for uncovering the meaning contained in the collected data by searching for trends, patterns and relationships that are relevant to the research question (Sarantakos, 2005). Patton (2002) acknowledges the influence of the researcher's context or viewpoint on his/her interpretation of the data and the need therefore to attend to the perspective or standpoint of the researcher as well as that of the participants. The credibility of the research depends largely on the ability, competence and rigour of the researcher (L. Cohen et al., 2007). Brown (1996, p. 42) discusses the need for the researcher to develop appropriate self-awareness, describing this as a form of "sharpening the instrument." I

therefore present to the reader some personal background that might exert influence on the research.

My background

I began my career as a secondary school teacher in 1982. For the next fifteen years, I taught at both the secondary and tertiary levels before moving into secondary school administrative roles. In these roles, I acquired many skills that are now useful to me as a researcher, such as interrelational skills and successful interviewing techniques. In 2005, I accepted a position as a lecturer in the School of Education and Innovation in the Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Education at a regional campus of Central Queensland University. This is the position that I currently hold.

My role in this study

The participants in this study were in the final year of their pre-service teacher education program when I joined the faculty. I did not teach any of the participants when they were students and consequently did not know them before undertaking the study. When asked what they knew about me, all the participants said that they knew only that I worked as a lecturer in the faculty. Before commencing data collection, I also informed the participants of my association with Catholic Education because I wanted them to be aware that I have an understanding of the Catholic school culture. I envisaged that this could be advantageous in the semi-structured interviews, where the need to clarify some issues surrounding Catholic Education would be alleviated. Furthermore, as a former teacher in Catholic schools in the diocese where all the participants teach, I have a natural empathy for others in similar roles. I shared with the participants a common language and

mutual understanding of their roles and the context in which they work. Conversely, my position had potential disadvantages, stemming mainly from the possibility of my making the false assumption that my understandings matched those of the participants. Therefore, I acknowledged that it was necessary to avoid giving advice, interfering in problems and making inferences about issues, ideas and meanings not explicitly stated by the participants (Roche, 1997).

In order to minimise disadvantages and maximise advantages emanating from my perspective and position, a number of techniques and strategies were factored into the methodology. I am aware that every researcher, regardless of his/her relationship to the research site and participants, brings preconceptions and biases (Lofland et al., 2006). My position as lecturer has potential disadvantages in that the participants, as recently graduated teachers, might have experienced the lecturer-student relationship as one of an imbalance of power, the lecturer being in a position of some authority (S. Cook, 1991). Further, I acknowledged that they might attribute a *status* to my positions, both at the university and in Catholic Education, and accordingly relate to me in a deferential manner and provide answers and behave in ways that they believed I wanted to hear and see. I sought to overcome these potential disadvantages in several ways. At the start of each interview, I emphasised to the participants the non-judgmental nature of the study and assured them that anonymity and confidentiality were significant priorities (Babbie, 2004). When interviewing, I always endeavoured to employ important interview skills in relation to listening, remaining neutral and non-judgmental, being sensitive to conveying verbal and non-verbal messages, and providing interested but non-committed feedback

(Wiersma, 2000). I also displayed a warm and empathetic approach in all my interactions with the participants.

Summary of Section Two

In Section Two, I outlined and justified the methods utilised to collect and analyse data. I also described the contextual features of the data collection area and discussed my use of non-probability sampling to choose participants who were relevant to the project. I then outlined the data analysis techniques proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) and Coffey and Atkinson (1996) that guided analysis of the data in this research. An account of how I analysed the data followed. Issues of consistency, trustworthiness and ethics were considered and I concluded with a discussion of my role as a researcher in this study. Before turning to Chapter Five, I conclude this chapter.

Chapter conclusion

The methodological approach described and justified in this chapter was selected for its potential to provide an answer to the problem of this thesis. Specifically, a qualitative approach using an interpretive paradigm was considered consistent with the type of information and understanding I sought regarding the experiences of pre-service/beginning teachers in turning theory into practice. Moreover, by constructing interview questions through the lens of Pfeffer and Sutton's (2000) *Eight Guidelines for Action*, I attempted to "get inside" the theory-practice gap that students and novitiates have been shown to face in teacher education (Korthagen et al., 2006). The use of a symbolic interactionist approach was considered appropriate for the methodological purposes of this study for two reasons. First, it allowed me to focus on the meaning-

making of my informants as they conveyed to me their experiences in transitioning between the pre-service program and the new school. Second, symbolic interactionism aligns with the theoretical explanations about emergence sketched earlier in Chapter Three. That is, in this empirical study a focus on symbolic interactionism is essential given that interaction is central to the emergentist concept (Sawyer, 2001). The analytic method outlined in Section Two of this chapter was selected for its capacity to provide a way of examining the data in order to respond to the problem of this thesis. This method was used to analyse and interpret the data in Chapters Five and Six.

Chapter Five

Data Presentation

Introduction

In this chapter, I present, discuss and analyse the data collected in this study. The guiding question in my analysis of data was: *What do the data tell me about a sample of graduates' experiences of turning theory into practice?* The data presentation and analysis are organised under three major BLM concepts, namely, workplace readiness, futures orientation and capacity to implement BLM pedagogical design. The main reason for proceeding in this way is that these three concepts represent the analytic themes developed in the study and, as such, they provide a viable framework for the presentation and analysis of the data. I incorporate the voices of participants by including quotations from the individual interviews and focus groups.

Workplace readiness

In this section, I present and discuss data about participants' perceptions and experiences of their workplace readiness on entering the new school. The discussion is arranged in four areas: transitioning into the new school, perceptions of readiness, understanding of key concepts, and preparation for the workplace. I discuss each in turn.

Transitioning into the new school

The expectation of the BLM is that the on-campus and in-field experiences undertaken by students will prepare them for the workplace such that, upon graduation, their transition into the new school should be relatively seamless (Smith & Moore, 2006). They should be able to teach at graduation, without needing to spend many years in the classroom before being capable to do so, the latter an oft-cited criticism of teacher education graduates from traditional programs (Smith & Lynch, 2006b).

Data in this study reveal that transitioning into the new school was fraught with difficulties for a number of participants. Terms such as "overwhelming" (used 7 times), "difficult" (6) "daunting" (3) and "scary" (2) typify their responses. Despite the preparation they had received during their training, participants expressed a concern that starting to teach represented "a steep/sharp learning curve" (4) and that they had to "sink or swim" (2) or were "thrown in the deep end" (2). David commented that "as a first year teacher, I guess you're still in that danger water sort of thing," while Brendan bemoaned "the huge gap from uni to work … we need to learn so much in the first term." Anthony's description illustrates the responses of these participants who struggled with the transition:

> I just sort of found it quite overwhelming to start with, just the amount of work, more so after hours was the big problem, and also the unexpected jobs that you take on after school, such as the teams and coaching and so forth so that got really overwhelming and I probably had too much on outside of school as well. I tried to

teach teams outside of school as well and I had to cancel those. The first term was very daunting. I even rang up some friends outside of school and asked them if they had jobs going elsewhere because I just felt like every moment was just teach, teach, teach in one capacity or another.

Similarly, Bianca said she found it difficult to contend with the "multitude of tasks" associated with teaching[14] and was daunted by the responsibility she carried:

It's harder than you expect. I guess it's the responsibility. When you're at uni, well I guess you're not playing at it, but there's always someone backing you up, like when you're in pracs. But once you get in the school, it's just you. I don't know whether it's the expectations I put on myself or whether it's the expectations from others, it's probably myself, but you're the teacher and you should know what to do. So that is hard, a really hard transition, I think, because you're in there on your own, you're it. And that is hard.

Others iterated Bianca's concerns with the level of responsibility that comes with having a class of one's own and the "huge jump" (Desley) to teaching necessitated by being alone in the classroom and no longer having the support of supervising teachers.

There are several observations that can be made about these particular participants' use of language to convey their experiences of transition. First, I interpret their use of strong

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[14] While "learning management" and "learning manager" are terms espoused by the BLM, I have chosen, in the interests of the readership, to also use the more widely understood terms "teaching" and "teacher" in my discussion.

terms such as "overwhelming" and "daunting" as illuminating the difficulties they encountered in making meaning of the new school context. Second, their use of metaphors such as "sink or swim" and "thrown in the deep end" can be seen to highlight their self-concepts as novitiates, struggling to cope in a new environment. This is an example of beginning teachers defining in certain ways the situations they encountered (Blumer, 1969) upon entry into the new school. That is, through their interactions with staff and students, they created shared meanings and these meanings became their reality (Patton, 2002). The language used by these participants can be contrasted with that used by other participants who defined situations encountered in the new school in different ways and who thus provided different accounts of transition.

Seven of fourteen participants found the transition quite easy or at least not difficult. These teachers used terms such as "smooth" (4), "comfortable" (3), "good" (3) and "OK" (2) to refer to their entry into the classroom. Three participants qualified their remarks with comments about difficulties they experienced during the first few weeks of teaching. Inez referred to the "tough first week," Helen to "surviving" her first day and Fiona described some student behavioural issues that she had to manage when she first entered the classroom:

> I struggled with some of the kids' behaviour to start with. … I spent so much time in the school when I began. Often most of the weekend too. I really wanted to get on top of what needed to be done. But the teachers were really supportive and gave me lots of resources to use.

Nonetheless, these graduates generally spoke positively about their transition into the workplace and the uptake of duties. All referred to the value of the portal tasks and the internship in giving them a feeling of "being a real teacher" (Earl) prior to taking up the role. These comments[15] typify their responses:

Having all of the practical experience made it so much easier. So you have a really good idea before you have to go out and do it all. (Inez)

It's been pretty easy, I think, mainly because of the internship at the end. You get to feel like a real teacher at the end of it, anyway, so when you start teaching, you just feel like you're on an internship again. So, yeah, it's been a very smooth transition for me. (Elizabeth)

Easing in was quite simple actually because you've had those prior experiences in the classroom. So it really does allow you to feel comfortable. You've been in that situation quite regularly because of your pracs and that makes it really easy. (Carl)

These data samples suggest that this group of participants felt they had begun the initiation into teaching before taking up their roles and that the in-field experiences

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[15] Throughout most of this thesis, I follow the APA style of incorporating a short quotation into text and displaying a quotation of forty words or more in a freestanding block of typewritten lines. However, in this chapter, I display a number of the participants' responses of less than forty words in a freestanding block. I do so in order to highlight the participants' words in the hope that, in putting before the reader "extensive, though necessarily selective, quotation," the essential flavour of the data comes through (Basit, 2003, p. 146).

during their pre-service preparation had facilitated this. This is epitomised in Elizabeth's and Earl's references to beginning to feel like "a real teacher" during their portal tasks and, in particular, internship.

In summary, there was a diversity of experiences provided by participants about their transition into teaching. From a symbolic interactionist perspective, they defined the situations that confronted them in different ways and this shaped their behaviour and attitude towards these situations (Blumer, 1969). Those who said they found the transition hard attributed this to factors such as the enormity of the task and the responsibility involved. Seven of the fourteen participants said they did not experience great difficulty in transitioning into the new school and predominantly credited their in-field experiences with preparing them for this rite of passage.

Interestingly, participants' perceptions of making the transition did not parallel their perceptions of workplace readiness. That is, while half of the participants claimed to have had a relatively smooth transition, only one of the entire sample believed she was workplace ready. I now present pertinent data.

Perceptions of readiness

As discussed in Chapter Three, the BLM program clearly articulates its expectation that graduates will be workplace ready (Lynch & Smith, 2006a). Fundamental to courses in the program is the teaching of skill sets that are designed to progressively generate workplace readiness capabilities in students. The portal tasks and internship are intended to reinforce and build upon these skill sets learned on campus. Of interest to me in this

study were graduates' perceptions of their levels of preparedness for teaching and the ways in which they perceived themselves as having been prepared.

In line with the analytic method of this research I looked across the categories and the whole data set in order to gain an understanding of participants' beliefs about their own level of workplace readiness. These could be divided into three groups, namely, being unprepared, having limited preparation, and being prepared (see Table 5.1), which I now discuss.

Table 5.1: Participants' beliefs about their level of workplace readiness

Unprepared	Limited preparation	Prepared
Anita	Bianca	Elizabeth
Anthony	Brendan	
Catherine	Carl	
Desley	David	
	Earl	
	Fiona	
	Gay	
	Helen	
	Inez	

Of the fourteen participants, four believed themselves to be unprepared; nine felt they had limited preparation; and one participant said she felt prepared for the workplace. Differences in participants' gender and age do not appear to be significant in the data, with both male and female, early age and mature age graduates represented across two of the three areas. However, two (Anthony and Anita) of the four who believed themselves to be unprepared were mature age. Both expressed strong discontent about how poorly

prepared they had been for teaching. For example, when discussing the concept of workplace readiness, Anthony stated:

> Well, I don't think [the BLM] provided that. Yeah, I wasn't really prepared to tell you the truth. To say it frankly, no. When I came out, I was totally, ah yeah, dissatisfied is probably one word and I probably shouldn't say it. … I knew more from my own [experiences] than from the BLM.

Similarly, Anita said emphatically that she did not believe herself to be workplace ready, commenting that:

> To me [workplace ready] means that you are ready to walk in there and start teaching those kids and take on all that responsibility and all those different roles that you fill as a teacher. But I don't think I am workplace ready. … It's so different to how I thought it would be.

She added that she did not yet see herself as "a real teacher" and provided an anecdote to exemplify this. A parent of one of her Year Seven students approached Anita and asked for her professional opinion about whether her son was ready for high school. Anita explained to the parent that she did not yet have a professional opinion. To me, Anita said:

I don't have a professional opinion yet. I've barely been teaching half a year, how can I have a professional opinion?

Both Anita and Anthony struggled with the concept of "coming of age" (Anthony) as a teacher yet both were mature age with a "wealth of experience" (Anita) in dealing with children and adolescents through various previous roles. Both had raised or were raising children and Anita had worked in a school for a number of years as a teacher's aide before and during her pre-service preparation. Evident here is that their prior conceptions of what teaching would involve were clearly quite different from what they encountered when entering their professional roles. This is an example of participants' beliefs and past experiences playing a role in interpreting their current environment (Blumer, 1969).

Two early age graduates also believed themselves unprepared for the workplace. Desley explained that, despite being confident and having done well at university and during in-field experiences, doing what she had been trained to do did not come easily:

You set yourself up, alright this is what I think is going to work, this is what I've been taught, and then within three weeks going nah, scrap it all, start again.

Catherine, who expressed frustration at the difficulty she experienced in implementing BLM theory, echoed these feelings:

No matter how much [university teachers] say, oh do this, do that, you can't, no matter what you think you're prepared for.

Consequently, both Desley and Catherine accessed physical resources available in the school and sought advice from other teachers in order to plan their lessons and "make it through the day" (Desley). The data provided by all four participants who considered themselves unprepared imply that they were struggling with taking on the role of the teacher and did not yet envisage themselves as professionals. Anita's comments are exemplary in questioning how she could provide a professional answer after such a short period of time in the classroom, as she was yet to become "a real teacher." These data suggest that my informants associated the passage of time and the acquisition of experience in the school with enabling workplace readiness and becoming a professional. There is a sense of them feeling that they do not yet belong and are still transitioning into the teaching role.

Responses of those I classed as having limited preparation were more ambivalent, participants believing themselves to be better prepared in some areas than in others. All mentioned implementing some of what they had learned in their pre-service preparation, such as behaviour management strategies and ways of collaborating with peers. Their more general comments included, "I find now that it's a lot of hit and miss a lot of the time" (Earl), and "It's pretty tough. Like, you have a great day and then your not so good days" (David). Helen's remarks typify those of this group of participants:

In some ways, I felt prepared and ready to face the class. I got on well with the students and they seemed to respond to me OK. I planned for almost every minute of every day and felt pretty confident in that. In other ways, like what to do when a lesson didn't go as planned, I thought "Oh, no. What do I do now?" You know, like, "Help!"

Five of nine participants in this group made mention of practical experience and equated their degree of workplace readiness with the amount of practice they had had in the classroom. Indeed, Inez on the one hand questioned the merit of doing study on campus when practical experience had taught her what she knew about classroom management, adding that:

Fair enough, doing all the study and stuff but … I learned more out of being in the classroom than doing an assignment on lifelong learning and all that sort of stuff. I think I've learned more from being in the classroom than not being in there.

On the other hand, Carl's comments show that he saw the in-field experience as a vital component of his pre-service preparation for the new school:

I think that the practical side from uni allows you to get straight into your comfort zone [in the new school] due to all the practical stuff that you do undertake … it meant that I was confident and ready to go forward. It gave me the knowledge to fulfil my job and do a good job of it, I suppose.

These comments would suggest that Carl saw himself as well prepared for the workplace and yet this was not his perception of his readiness. The reason he provided for not believing himself to be fully workplace ready was that his skills as a teacher had no equivalence with those of the other Year Six teacher who had "a great field of experience."

This apparent comparison and acknowledgement to the seasoned practitioner is evident elsewhere in the data collected from this group of participants. David, for example, said he felt ready to do lesson planning and "the common things a teacher has to go through," but that he depended heavily on the (teaching) principal's advice for behaviour management and teaching strategies because "[she] has her own ideas about what we should use." Similarly, Gay spoke positively about her achievements in her Year Three class but was ambivalent about her level of workplace readiness:

> I was very hesitant to start with. I didn't really touch base with people around me, apart from the other Year Three teachers. There are things I've been reluctant about because I'm inexperienced and don't know enough about them.

Being an accomplished musician, Gay said that she was often called upon by the Assistant Principal (Religion) to sing and play piano at weekly school liturgies and that she appreciated these opportunities for raising her self-confidence:

It makes up for some of the things I do poorly. The other [Year Three] teachers are really supportive but I still feel like I don't measure up in some areas. At the start, I kept thinking someone was going to come in and take the class again.

As in the previous discussion, these data suggest that this group of participants associated taking the role of the teacher with acquiring experience in the classroom. Therefore, they did not see themselves as workplace ready at graduation because they had not yet acquired what they perceived as the requisite experience.

Of the fourteen participants, Elizabeth was the only one who said she believed she was ready for the workplace upon graduation, defining this as being prepared for all facets of teaching:

I guess it's being ready for all the responsibilities in a class you have … not just what you need to teach them and how to teach it, sort of being ready for the whole job.

These outlier comments contrast positively with the responses of other participants. It should be noted, however, that Elizabeth had a very small class in a small regional school and claimed to have had an extremely easy introduction to teaching. She also credited the internship with providing her with essential skills for the workplace, especially given that the timing of this particular in-field experience (in the final term of the BLM program) meant that what she had learned "seemed very fresh" to her as she began teaching.

Noteworthy at this point is that there is little evidence in the data to suggest that Elizabeth applied in any substantial way the skills and knowledge taught on campus in her day-to-day teaching. That is, while she considered herself to be workplace ready, this apparently signified something other for her than what is encapsulated in the concept of workplace readiness in the BLM model. Specifically, an important expectation of readiness in the BLM is that graduates are equipped with the skills to translate the theory of their training into classroom practice, whereas Elizabeth used a range of teaching methods and strategies that are not part of the articulated BLM core curriculum. I elaborate on this in sections below.

Returning to the whole data set, only two of the thirteen participants who said they either were not ready for the workplace or could have been better prepared seemed to attribute this to the BLM per se. Specifically, both Anita and Anthony (the two mature age participants mentioned above) made reference to aspects of the program that they found deficient. Anthony believed that the program did not provide the skills "for a lot of things" such as behaviour management, sequencing of lessons, report writing and dealing with students with learning difficulties. He was critical of the "double up" of content across the courses, some "life skills" subjects such as "Networks and Partnerships," the skills taught in which he felt could be acquired more easily through in-field and life experience, and the insubstantial content of several of the flagship BLM courses. He was also critical of several KLA courses and referred to one as "totally ridiculous." Anita,

while valuing in hindsight some of the courses she had done once she was in the classroom, believed that several of them were "airy fairy" and one "a load of rot."

Criticisms by other participants, however, seemed to be projected more at the general level of teacher education programs than at the specific level of the BLM. This was especially evident in the types of responses given to interview question (Q)11: *Reflecting on the BLM, which aspects of the program do you find aren't particularly useful or don't work particularly well now that you are in the workplace?* Apart from the two participants mentioned above (Anthony and Anita), my informants essentially responded that they found most aspects of the BLM worthwhile. These comments are representative:

No, I think there was lots of good stuff. You can take something from it all. (David)

Nothing overly. It all came together really well, but how can you teach somebody to be a teacher? (Catherine)

I'm not really one to look back and think anything was a waste of time. I try to think why they would have wanted us to do something. I don't really look at anything we did as negative. (Gay)

Some participants mentioned aspects of the BLM that could be enhanced, such as including more behaviour management strategies and more frequent modelling of teaching practices by lecturers, as evidenced in Helen's remarks:

> We were taught very well, how to plan a unit, how to use outcomes and that sort of thing. I think the thing I found hardest was that we didn't do a lot of whole day planning, you know, the day-to-day planning sort of thing.

Nonetheless, these participants spoke positively about the BLM and believed most aspects of it to be useful. These beliefs are iterated throughout the rest of the data. For example, Earl said that:

> I would like to have spent more time in schools but I've heard that that's what's happening now. We've got a [BLM] student teacher here who seems to spend a lot more time in schools than we did. But I really enjoyed doing the BLM. I'm glad I did that program. My wife's a teacher, you know, and she hated her teacher training [in another program].

There is a tension arising from these data in that the majority (13 of 14) of participants, on the one hand, did not believe themselves workplace ready upon graduation and yet, on the other hand, said they found most aspects of their pre-service preparation useful. One possible explanation for this is that their expectations of what a pre-service program

could provide in terms of teacher preparation did not seem to be high. I provide some of the responses given by Bianca to exemplify this.

Bianca was an early age graduate who said she was not workplace ready and that she found the transition to teaching a "daunting" experience. She accredited her ability to survive her first term of teaching to support from colleagues and two close family members, also teachers. Unlike some other participants, Bianca was not enthusiastic about her in-field experiences, stating that one experience in particular taught her "so much about the teacher I wouldn't be." Regarding the on-campus component of the BLM, she made a number of positive comments about courses and compared the program favourably to another one from which she had transferred:

> I've experienced another uni as well … and the experience here, as opposed to the experience there, was so much more supportive. Like, I was in a class with six or seven hundred kids and they had no idea, and so you went to your tutor, but they didn't know much about what was going on either. So much of what we did at [this] uni was new to me. It all made sense and I found it much more practical and, you know, engaging than what I'd done before at University [X]. I knew I could use some of these things.

Bianca attributed the difficulties she first encountered in the classroom to inexperience and, like other participants in this study, seemed to accept this as part of the initiation into teaching, as apparent in these statements:

Well, you either sink or swim, don't you? I think I was lucky in the fact I had a lot of support in the school. That's what helps you work out what to do with this group of little kids in the room. … As I've gone along, I've adapted what I do to cope, I suppose. I couldn't have done it without all those great people I work with.

There was nothing in what this participant said that suggested she held the BLM to account for her lack of workplace readiness, and she stated that there was very little about the program that she thought needed changing besides including more practical experience. Carl expressed similar opinions, despite claiming he was not ready for the workplace upon graduation:

I would say there'd probably be nothing that I would take out of or add to the BLM. It's all quite practical and it's all relevant.

Carl's view was that he had received a solid education in teaching and that the "crunch came" when he entered the new school.

Others suggested that workplace readiness was a flawed concept, with several questioning whether a teacher preparation program could possibly prepare graduates for the complexity of the workplace. Brendan, for example, said that:

I guess that the hardest part is actually being left in that classroom on your own with those children … and I don't know if you would ever be completely ready for that because, as much as they give you the facts [at uni], it is very different once you are suddenly in there for that whole day and then you are back again the next day and I guess that is part of the whole daunting experience … although a great feeling, it also gets very scary.

Likewise, Gay and Inez questioned how they could possibly have become competent without classroom practice:

The internship really helped me with the transition into teaching but it's only now that I'm starting to gain any confidence. You've got to be in there and doing it if you really want to learn how to teach. I knew it would take a while. Training can only take you to a certain point. I feel like I can contribute a bit more now. (Gay)

Uni is important for all the background stuff but I always knew I'd learn more from being in the classroom. (Inez)

These comments typify the responses of most participants. That is, they were generally positive about the training they had received but seemed to perceive certain limitations as inherent in the concept of university pre-service preparation.

One of the questions asked of participants was Q4: *What does the concept of "teacher workplace readiness" mean to you?* In response to this question, all but one of my informants said they did not feel themselves to be workplace ready. The following responses are illustrative:

> To me, it wasn't what I felt when I began. Being ready for everything that's going to occur in your work is hard. Just the common things a teacher has to go through, like behaviour management—I wasn't ready for that. (David)

> Workplace readiness? I haven't really heard of the term but I don't think I would use those words to describe what I was like when I began teaching. It's getting easier now but there was a lot I didn't know at the start. (Anthony)

Participants' responses to this question (Q4) suggest that they interpreted the question to mean *Are you workplace ready?* and they gave practical responses to what I had intended to be a conceptual question ("concept" was even included in the question). In response to the other two questions framed within the same Pfeffer and Sutton (2000) guideline, however, they interpreted the questions in a different manner and provided conceptual responses. The questions were: Q3: *What is your understanding of "learning management" as espoused by CQU?* and Q5: *In the BLM, can you describe what is meant by a "futures orientation"?* This raises the question of why informants responded in one way to this question about workplace readiness and in another to the questions about learning management and futures orientation. That is, they saw questions three and

five as conceptual questions and gave conceptual answers; question four is also a conceptual question yet they provided practical answers. In light of the whole data set, I would suggest that this was because they were acutely aware of their own level of preparedness for the classroom. For the participants, learning management and futures orientation did not have the same power in their application as did workplace readiness. Workplace readiness is about having the capability to do the job (Lynch & Smith, 2006a) and the nature of the participants' responses reflected their high level of personal and emotional engagement with this concept.

The data show that participants who saw themselves as unprepared or with limited preparation for the workplace provided a number of reasons why they believed this to be the case. The most salient were the time and workload and the isolation they encountered in the classroom, which I now discuss.

Time and workload

The enormity of the workload and associated time commitment and time management emerged as significant issues for the participants. All except Carl referred to time-associated problems. Participants expressed frustration and dismay at the amount of time they had to dedicate to their work, which, despite their in-field experience (portal tasks and internship) during training, came as a surprise to a number of them, as evident in comments such as:

> Uni doesn't let you know how hard it will really be when you enter the workforce. It's still like you're at uni with the amount of time needed to be dedicated to it. I

still have no life [and] I felt by the end of the eleven weeks of first term that I wasn't going to make it any further. I'd get to school at six-thirty and I'd leave at six-thirty and then on Sunday, I'd be in here from eight till four. (Desley)

Even though the internship program was very good at giving you pretty much a full term in a class, I've still had to learn a lot about teaching. Trying to get into my own routine rather than watching my prac teacher, that's has taken me a lot of time. I seem to work pretty much all the time in one way or another and don't get away much [from the rural town where he works] of a weekend. (David)

One mature age participant said she was "totally floored" by the workload upon entry to the classroom. The extent of the anxiety this caused her can be discerned in the response she gave to interview Q16:

Jeanne: Are there teaching practices that you learned at university that you're not prepared to do now because of how your school operates?

Anita: I wouldn't have done the BLM.

Jeanne: Really?

Anita: Really, yes. I think I did it to prove to myself that I could do it. Looking back in time, I probably shouldn't have done it, shouldn't be doing it.

Jeanne: Because of how the school operates?

Anita: Oh no, because of children, education, teaching. Because teaching is such a huge job. There's just so much to do.

It will be recalled that Anita was one of four participants who believed she was unprepared for the workplace. The above extract from the data adds further weight to my earlier observation that some participants' preconceptions of teaching contrasted strongly with what they found teaching to entail when they entered the new school.

A number of other issues also contributed to workload difficulties. For example, three participants mentioned the unexpected tasks that form part of their daily routine, such as extra-curricular sport and class liturgies:

> There's so much going on all the time. I didn't know that there'd be all this extra stuff like liturgies to prepare and there's always something going on at [lunchtime]. Most days after school as well. I try to get really involved with the staff and with what's going on, but I don't have a life. (Desley)

Problematic for Catherine and David was dealing with "difficult students" (David) about whom they had no prior warning. Catherine was also confronted with managing an autistic child and provided this account of an incident during her first day of teaching:

> And I also didn't know that I had an ADHD autistic boy in the class until he yelled and threw some stuff at me on the first day of school, so and that was a bit, um, very daunting and challenging. I didn't realise that it was going to be so hard to get through but, yeah, it was.

Five other participants also mentioned the difficulty they had in managing students with learning difficulties or special needs and said they believed themselves unprepared for the behaviour of these students. Three of these five participants said they could have been better prepared in this area and that this should have occurred during their in-field experiences. That is, they saw the need for a broader range of experiences to be built into the portal tasks and internship, such that they acquired or witnessed first-hand experience of coping with these types of behaviour. These comments illustrate their observations:

Until you actually see how to deal with students with learning difficulties, you're pretty much in the dark. I look back now and wish I could have seen how other teachers cope. … There were a few cases I saw in schools when I was doing the BLM but totally different behaviour from what I've got. (Fiona)

Anthony: It's all very well to talk about how to deal with some of these students. It's not so bad for me—I've only got two with learning difficulties in my class, but I've heard of some people having five or six and with special needs as well. I've never seen how to manage lots of their behaviour.

Jeanne: What about during the portal tasks and internship?

Anthony: There was one autistic boy in the class during my internship but he had a teacher's aide working with him. I never really saw how [she] dealt with him. Like specific teaching strategies and so forth.

Certainly there were some children with learning difficulties in some of the classes I've been in but I was never shown how to deal with them one-on-one.

The six participants who expressed difficulty in dealing with children with learning difficulties and special needs nevertheless spoke quite positively about the courses dealing with diverse learners taught on campus. Inez, for example, said she believed these courses had provided BLM students with an "appropriate theoretical background" and Fiona commented that:

I can't remember the name of all the subjects, sorry, but the one about different types of learners and behaviour, I found that one good. I remember doing an assignment where we had to explain how we'd deal with certain types of kids with learning difficulties. Things like autism, too. Yeah, I got a lot out of that.

I draw from these data two observations. First, as mentioned above, the participants levelled their criticisms in this instance at the in-field component of the BLM, claiming that they had not been able to witness and experience ways of coping with the diversity of learners they would encounter. That is, they believed they had not gained essential experience in the context of application, the school environment. Second, despite valuing the on-campus work they had done in this area, they did not view this work as capable of equipping them with requisite skills for the workplace. Rather, they saw it as providing them with theoretical understanding.

These observations lead me to suggest that my informants differentiated between in-field experience as practical, real and immediate and on-campus work as theoretical and remote. In short, they seemed to associate in-field experience with practice and on-campus work with theory, demonstrably valuing the former over the latter. I add support to this argument from data provided above where participants credited their in-field experiences with facilitating their university-school transition and preparedness to teach. I elaborate below on this proposition and what it potentially signifies for the BLM. Before doing so, I now discuss another of the factors that participants perceived to have impeded their readiness for the workplace.

Isolated in the classroom

Six participants in this study expressed their disconcertment about finding themselves alone and isolated in the classroom. Claiming that none of her training had, nor could have, prepared her for the solitary nature of teaching, Desley commented that:

> I just think until you're actually in there and doing it by yourself, you don't realise what it's like. You do it for ten weeks [during internship] but you've still got a teacher helping you and you've still got all that support around you. But when you, well, I'm by myself, I don't have anyone to plan with. I don't have anyone. So you are by yourself and you have to do it all from the beginning to the end. … I don't think anything actually gets you ready for it.

Likewise, Helen remarked that:

The first day rocks around and that's it, you're there, you're by yourself, you know, and I think all through my internship I wasn't by myself. I might have been left in the room by myself for ten or fifteen minutes but I was never kind of left there. And the first day it was "oh, oh, oh, it's just me now."

Two participants (Carl and Inez), on the contrary, appreciated the opportunity of being alone with the class. Carl in particular liked the freedom that came with being what he termed "the real teacher" rather than the "prac student":

Life in the classroom is excellent because I like the fact of having ownership of what you do and how you choose to teach your specific topics and stuff like that. I can alter whatever I like to make myself comfortable and other ways for the kids to feel comfortable with what we're trying to get across to them. So, rather than having someone down the back of the classroom and their piercing eyes looking at you, you can sort of just relax a little bit and go in the direction that you choose rather than what somebody else wants you to do.

Carl's emotive use of "their piercing eyes" in reference to the presence of supervising teachers suggests that he found supervision intrusive. Elsewhere in the interview, he also spoke of his desire at the time to move away from supervision and to be on his own in the classroom, to teach in the way he saw fit. The difference between Carl's and Inez' response to being alone in the classroom and that of many of my other informants is an

example of the same factors being perceived in one way by some participants and in another way by others. In interacting with the classroom environment, they constructed different meanings in relation to the same phenomenon and thus defined their situations differently (Blumer, 1969).

In both the interview and the focus group discussions, Carl spoke positively of his training and initial teaching experiences. He was one of seven participants who said they had a smooth or reasonable transition into teaching. However, like all but one of the other participants, Carl claimed that he was not workplace ready, explaining that he depended on his next-door colleague with seventeen years' experience for planning ideas and providing teaching strategies. It would seem that despite his self-assurance as a teacher, Carl nonetheless placed a higher priority on the knowledge and skills of an experienced teacher than on his own.

Several of those participants who struggled with the solitary nature of their work suggested that having a mentor and/or period of induction would be beneficial. Helen, for example, commented that:

> You learn by experience and you are going to make mistakes and, hopefully, you constantly reflect on what you do and you learn through that, but I think having a mentor in there with you would certainly be a big help to new teachers until they get on their feet.

Brendan put forward similar reasons for wanting to have a mentor, adding that a person in such a role would be able to provide advice about accessing resources and suggesting teaching strategies. Three other participants mentioned the mentor and induction programs in their schools that were obligatory for beginning teachers. All three spoke highly of the programs and said they felt reassured through the feedback they received that they were "on the right track" (Earl).

This sub-section discussed participants' perceptions of readiness and several of the reasons why some participants believed themselves to be unprepared or to have limited preparation for the workplace. These data raise issues about the efficacy of the BLM in producing workplace ready graduates to date. They also suggest that there are dimensions of workplace readiness that were not yet encompassed within the BLM or that might have been difficult to address, for example, time demands or the specific requirements of individual schools.

The BLM approach proposes that teaching prowess and expertise are refined over time rather than being necessarily developed over a long period of experience. As such, the approach challenges the notion that new graduates must have or require induction programs[16] into the workplace, the need for such programs signalling a deficit model of teacher preparation (Smith & Moore, 2006). Rather, it is expected that they are able to perform the roles of teaching to a professional standard as soon as they enter the classroom. The idea is that BLM students will have gained requisite experience through

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[16] The term "induction" is understood here to mean a program providing substantive knowledge about the "how to" of teaching. It does not imply an orientation into workplace procedures and processes.

portal tasks and internship in Teaching Schools before they graduate. Hence, lack of experience, according to the creators of the BLM, is no longer a useful alibi for new graduates who flounder in the classroom (Smith & Moore, 2006). Participants in this study clearly had difficulty with the demands that come with taking up the role of the teacher, which suggests that this particular cohort of graduates from across two campuses did not acquire the necessary experience to teach in ways compatible with BLM precepts.

Also evident in these data is that participants had a different notion of "workplace readiness" than that postulated by the BLM. According to the program, workplace readiness means that graduates are able to demonstrate capability in the application of specific skills. Participants in this study, however, seemingly perceived the notion as "being ready to teach" in a general sense, with little reference to BLM concepts. I exemplify this through Carl's statements. Carl believed himself to have had only limited preparation for the workplace because he had none of the experience of his teaching partner who had spent seventeen years in the classroom. That is, Carl clearly saw readiness as emanating from teaching experience and not with having the capability to implement pre-service preparation theory on entry to the new school. This understanding of workplace readiness as synonymous with acquired experience was evident in the responses of many other participants. When entering the classroom, they compared their own level of readiness with that of experienced teachers and, for the most part, my participants believed they had much to learn before becoming a "real" teacher and ready for the workplace.

In order to further explore participants' experiences of workplace readiness, I considered it important to gauge the level of their understanding of some of the key concepts associated with the BLM. I now turn to this task.

Understanding key concepts

My reason for presenting and discussing the ensuing data concerned with the understanding of key concepts is as follows. First, I reiterate that the concept of workplace readiness according to the BLM model does not simply signify being ready to cope in the workplace, but rather being ready to teach in ways that align with the core premises of the BLM (Smith & Moore, 2006). This implies the establishment of a common language, core concepts and responsibilities (Smith & Moore, 2006). In order to establish the level of workplace readiness of my informants, I therefore sought to discover the extent to which they had engaged with the key concepts of the BLM. In doing so, I was also cognisant of Pfeffer and Sutton's (2000, p. 246) guideline for turning theory into practice: that the "why" should come before the "how" and that "philosophy is important." Unless graduates have integrated into their belief system a philosophy or set of guidelines about the fundamental principles of their pre-service preparation, then their attempts and/or motivation to turn theory from their training into practice in the workplace will be stymied.

My focus in examining the data was on participants' perceptions of two core concepts of the BLM, namely, learning management (and how it differs from "teaching") and what the key measures of a BLM graduate are.

Learning Management

Smith and Moore (2006, p. 11) describe learning management as "a coordinated course of action for achieving learning outcomes. It is best rendered … as 'design with intent.' The concept implies a technical language, a tool kit of capacities, to achieve desired outcomes." The "design" approach signals a change in the emphasis placed on curriculum development and pedagogy, implying a shift in the balance towards coherent pedagogical practice and the science of learning (Smith & Moore, 2006). Learning management provides a movement away from the discourse of the previous BEd model with its focus on what pre-service teacher education students know, to a discourse focusing on how students use that knowledge (Smith & Moore, 2006).

Evident in this study is the disparity between the understanding that participants articulated about the concept of learning management and that espoused by its creators (Smith & Lynch, 2006b). For example, in response to interview Q3: *What is your understanding of "learning management" as espoused by CQU?* all my informants provided a rather literal answer, equating learning management with the task of managing or facilitating students' learning. These comments are representative:

> [Learning management] has given me a different view of what a teacher should be. We're there not to tell the students what they need to know; we're there to guide them in finding the information for themselves. (Earl)

We are all learners in the school environment. I'm not so much the person to go to for information, but as a mentor to help students to find information and help them in their learning environment. (Gay)

It's more the idea of managing their learning as opposed to being the dictator within the classroom. (Bianca)

It's a different terminology from teaching or just standing up in front of a class and teaching. You are actually managing their learning. (Anthony)

Essentially, my informants defined learning management through differentiating it from teaching, and did likewise in describing their concepts of "learning manager" and "teacher." Elizabeth, for example, explained the difference as she saw it in these terms:

Learning management is not actually standing up there and teaching, rather [it's] helping students to manage their own learning, helping them extend their own learning. When you're a learning manager, you're more a facilitator for their learning. You know, it's not like you stand up in front of them and do chalk and talk. You sort of guide their learning rather than just saying, "this is what you need to know."

Similarly, Inez understood the role of the teacher to be a "fountain of knowledge" whereas the learning manager's role is to work collaboratively with students:

Well, I see the teacher as one with all the knowledge, you know, the "fountain of knowledge" and all that. It's different being a learning manager. It's not "this is what we're doing," but moving with the kids and going where they want to go … [learning management] is much more fluid than teaching.

Two issues are noteworthy in these data. First, the participants' use of language here presents simplistic and clichéd views of teachers, as evident in the use of phrases such as "dictator in the classroom," "chalk and talk" and "just standing up in front of a class and teaching." This language implies that participants attached negative connotations to the concept of teaching. They seemed to view it as authoritarian and outdated. By contrast, they generally projected affirmatory views about learning management and, with the exception of one participant (Anthony), contrasted it positively to teaching. Anthony, however, believed the learning management discourse to be rhetorical:

In CQU terms, it's more about managing a student's learning but it just doesn't seem to happen; it doesn't actually take place in the classroom. From what I've experienced, you still have to do a lot of teaching. I'm still a teacher, not a learning manager.

Anthony attributed his rejection of the learning management concept to the circumstances under which he worked. He did not have enough physical resources to enable him to provide the level of negotiated learning activities that he believed learning management

involved and the difficulties he encountered in teaching his first class meant that he conducted structured and teacher-focused learning activities that he equated with teaching, not learning management. Given these and other data, I would posit that (a) Anthony did not have a clear understanding of what learning management involves and (b) the difficulties he experienced in transition and as a first-year teacher informed the development of his negative perception of learning management.

The second important issue emerging from the data presented in this sub-section is participants' narrow conceptualisation of learning management. That is, while learning management, as explained above and in previous chapters, signifies a distinct departure from previous teacher education models (Smith, Lynch, & Knight, 2007a), participants in this study perceived the learning management concept as involving a significant but only one-dimensional change from previous practice. They saw learning management as a move away from the teacher-focused, fountain-of-knowledge approach to teaching to an approach that facilitates or manages students' learning. In short, their comments suggest that they had not fully grasped the core intent of their pre-service program.

A number of reasons for this are feasible. First, participants might not have gained a clear understanding of the concept when it was articulated during their training, prompting them to provide a "commonsense," literal answer. Second, participants might have forgotten or at least not clearly remembered what learning management signifies, given the time that had elapsed between the completion of their program and my data collection. Moreover, the powerful influence of workplace culture might have altered or

diminished their understanding of the concept during this time. Third, the university-school partnership arrangements, ostensibly in place during participants' training, might have been deficient or non-existent, such that common understanding informing the arrangements was not espoused across the two fields of the university and the Teaching Schools. Fourth, despite program documentation, such as course profiles and the like, indicating that the notion of learning management is clearly enunciated throughout the program, it is possible that this did not eventuate for this particular cohort of students. That is, conveying this notion to students was conceivably provided little or uneven attention by staff, despite the rhetoric of the program.

While there is insufficient evidence in the data to determine whether one or a combination of these proposed factors contributed to participants' limited understanding of learning management, findings in the sections below might lend further credibility to one or a number of these factors. I now turn to a discussion of the lacuna that seems to exist between what the BLM espouses as the key measures of a teacher (Smith & Moore, 2006) and what my informants believed their core business to be.

Key measures of a teacher

The BLM literature states unequivocally that the key measure of a teacher is to produce learning outcomes in the learners under his/her care (Lynch & Smith, 2006a; Smith et al., 2003). It will be recalled that the expectation is that every graduate will have acquired a repertoire of pedagogical knowledge and skills that he/she can apply to learning situations regardless of the age of the learner or the particular learning site (Smith &

Moore, 2006). It is through the application of this repertoire of skills and knowledge that the teacher is expected to achieve learning outcomes in students.

Participants in this study had differing views about what comprise the key measures of a teacher. Interview questions that addressed this issue were met with perplexity by four participants who professed to have given it little thought. For example, in response to Q21: *During the BLM, what messages did you get about what the key measures of a teacher are?* Fiona said:

> It's hard to quantify. Everyone knows what a good teacher is, but I don't know how I'd describe it.

All but two of the other ten participants referred to the importance of establishing a positive classroom climate and/or developing positive relationships with their students, believing this to be the key measure of a teacher. Anita, for example, made this comment:

> I would say the key measures are probably about the relationships with your students. That you do your best for each individual and that you don't compare them, but accept that each child is an individual with their own needs, their own problems.

Brendan believed the key measure to be "the general feel that is coming from the class itself," while Desley noted that:

It's about making sure I'm there for them, at any time. If they need to come and see me they know they can and if they don't get a concept, they know to come and see me because I'll make time when they're ready, to actually sit down and make sure they understand it.

These beliefs do not stand in contradiction with what the BLM espouses as the key measures of a teacher. On the contrary, research evidence informing the BLM shows that it is essential for a teacher to establish a positive classroom climate and strong relationships with students if learning outcomes are to be achieved (Marzano, 2000; Marzano et al., 1997). Further, these beliefs as articulated by participants could quite reasonably have been developed or reinforced during their pre-service program. Dimensions of Learning (Marzano et al., 1997), an essential component of the BLM Learning Design that was studied by all members of this cohort, emphasises these features of teaching practice. However, there is nevertheless a sense here that participants were providing their own personal opinions about what the key measures of a teacher are as distinct from the definition of key measures proposed by the BLM.

Of concern in terms of the BLM philosophy, but of interest in terms of participants' meaning-making, is that participants saw these features as an end in themselves, not as a conduit to producing learning outcomes in their students. One participant even made the observation:

I would say that I was definitely given the impression [during the BLM] that it wasn't a thing about student performance. You know, it's not about whether you've got all kids that are getting top marks but I don't know if I could tell you exactly what impression I was given of what a teacher's key measures are. At the end of the day, if my kids go away saying they had a great day then I just think that I'm doing all right. (Helen)

Only two of fourteen participants enunciated understanding that essentially aligned with the BLM perspective. David said he understood the key measure of a teacher to be:

They can get as much out [of students] as they possibly can and work with students so that they improve in all areas, you know, subjects.

Elizabeth expressed it this way:

It's about how far your students have come from the beginning of the year to where they are now. That's what's important.

Interestingly, both these teachers worked in the same small, remote school where they were given strong and regular guidance by the principal. It is possible that their understanding came from this source, rather than from their pre-service preparation.

As with the concept of learning management, these data again demonstrate discrepancies between informants' understanding and that associated with the BLM philosophy. This has implications for the degree and nature of participants' workplace readiness. I pointed out earlier that workplace readiness, a key feature of the BLM, does not imply simply "being ready" to teach but being ready to enter the workplace with a defined repertoire of skills, knowledge and understanding, as espoused by the program (Smith & Moore, 2006). When a BLM graduate enters the new school, he/she should be prepared to deal with the sorts of issues emerging in the creative knowledge society while also being able to offer new solutions to old issues (Smith & Moore, 2006). For this to occur, it is essential that graduates have a common and shared philosophy about what their training signifies (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). Evidence presented thus far suggests that the philosophy and understanding of this particular cohort of BLM graduates, while at times common and shared, were essentially at odds with those espoused by the BLM program.

Accordingly, there are clear implications for both the capacity of the program at that time (2005) to produce workplace ready graduates and for how the program could be modified in the future to reinforce students' understanding of key BLM concepts. This thread is picked up later. I now turn to a discussion of my data as they relate to participants' experiences of pre-service preparation on campus and in schools, and what these data reveal about their level of workplace readiness.

Preparation for the workplace

It will be recalled that central to the arrangement of the BLM are university-industry partnerships that seek to ensure, inter alia, that during portal tasks and internship students

have the opportunity to apply in the workplace the teaching practices learned on campus (Smith & Moore, 2006). That is, in-field experiences in the BLM are "not 'pracs' in a conventional sense, but structured experiences with stringent outcome requirements linked to on-campus courses" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 20). The objective is to eradicate the theory-practice gap that has been endemic in teacher preparation since its establishment as a profession in the 1960s (Lynch, 2003). Participants in this study expressed their beliefs about the extent to which both facets of the program, the on-campus work and the in-field experience, contributed to their sense of workplace readiness. I discuss each in turn.

Campus experience

My informants credited a number of features of their on-campus program with preparing them for the workplace. The most salient of these were developing skills in unit and lesson planning, instruction in behaviour management and learning to work collaboratively. They also valued being taught by staff members with recent teaching experience. I now elaborate on these features.

The majority of participants (11 of 14) mentioned the benefit they derived from instruction and practice in unit and lesson planning (henceforth, "planning"). They valued the pragmatism of the style of planning they were taught and were able, in some instances, to implement the lessons and some components of the units they had planned on campus in classrooms during in-field experiences. Elizabeth's comments typify participants' responses:

Writing units and lesson plans and things like that were very helpful. Like, they weren't all theory-based. There were a few that were based on theory but I found they were quite practical and useful.

These comments reflect Elizabeth's privileging of the practical over the theoretical aspects of the instruction she received in planning. Further, this privileging of practice was iterated by other participants, such as Carl who commented that:

When it came to doing lesson planning, if I thought I could use it in the classroom then I sat up and took notice.

Two participants, however, provided a contrary view in questioning the merit of the planning skills they had learned on campus. On the one hand, Brendan, for example, said he found writing lesson plans the most difficult thing that he had done during his university courses and that he would have had to make a lot of changes before implementing them: "How do I write them when I don't have the experience of doing them?" On the other hand, Earl said he saw little use in developing planning skills when exemplars and templates were readily available on the Internet and from colleagues. The disparity between the responses of these two participants and others could be attributed to a number of factors. Perhaps these participants had different preconceptions about what

lesson planning should entail; perhaps they did not assimilate the lesson planning skills as others did. The explanation is not evident in the data[17].

As with learning how to plan units and lessons, most participants mentioned the practical value they attributed to behaviour management skills taught on campus. These comments are illustrative:

> I have spoken to other people and their university degrees were very prescriptive and theoretical and theory-based. I think learning management is practical and hands on with not so much theory. For example, you learn strategies for managing students' behaviour, you go into the classroom and do what you've been taught and it works. (Gay)

> I do believe what's offered through CQU is very much school-appropriate. I think that what you are engaging in at uni should work when you go into a school. I've used lots of behaviour management strategies that I learned in, can't remember the name of the subject, but I've used them from Day One, and I have to say I haven't had any trouble with discipline in my class. (Carl)

Other informants echo the importance that these participants attributed to being able to implement the skills acquired on campus. Nine participants mentioned the merit of

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[17] I did not identify this disparity in the first cut of the interview data, which I carried out before conducting the focus groups. Had I done so, I would have pursued this issue further in the focus group discussions.

learning to work collaboratively in terms of preparing them for the workplace. Of these, all but one said they had been initially dubious about the concept. Helen commented:

It was our first year and there was a lot of group work, which was very difficult. I couldn't understand why [we were doing group work].

She then added:

At the same time, it was probably good because teaching is a lot of group work. We don't go out and do all our planning on our own so the group work at the beginning of the course is probably good to get you ready for that.

Similarly, Inez said:

We did this subject, Networks and Partnerships, that I thought was really nothing to do with teaching. Now in hindsight, though, I can see how important it is to be able to work in teams and with other people. Getting on with parents, too.

Again, it is clear that participants by and large only attached importance to their on-campus work when they could see it as useful in implementation. They no longer questioned the value of developing collaborative skills when they witnessed or experienced them in practice.

Participants' privileging of practice over theory could also explain why a number of participants said they had found being taught by university staff members with recent teaching experience to be beneficial. Indeed, included in their answers to Q10: *Reflecting on the BLM, which aspects of the program do you value most now that you are in the workplace?* six participants mentioned the value of having teachers with currency in the school system. These comments are representative:

> You have so much contact with your lecturers who are, at times, recent teachers. I think they're very knowledgeable in their areas [and] you can constantly gain information and resources off these people that you seem to encounter often in the three years that you are there. (Bianca)

> I really appreciated having teachers who were teachers themselves and who came in to uni to teach us. Like, they hadn't just been at uni forever. They helped me understand how to do things. Yeah, I got a lot out of their lessons. (Elizabeth)

In particular, participants were impressed by the wealth of anecdotal information about "real life scenarios" (Catherine) that these teachers shared with their classes. They seemed to be valued for bringing "practice" into the BLM.

Several participants also mentioned family members, friends and colleagues who provided practical advice. Bianca sought counsel from her mother and sister, also teachers, and Earl regularly asked his teacher wife for feedback:

> I would sit at the dinner table and talk to my wife and say, look, this is happening.
>
> What can I do or how can I possibly get this across?

Anthony asked his eight-year old son's teacher for the "secret of his [classroom] success" and Desley regularly contacted teachers she had met in others schools to discover "how to get to know the ropes" of teaching.

There is nothing unusual in these data as the literature lends strong support to the importance that pre-service and beginning teachers attach to the practical component of their teacher preparation (Britzman, 2003; Griffiths & Tann, 1992; Segall, 2002). Further, the data show that participants in this study had developed some "disdain for theory" (Segall, 2002, p. 155), dismissing almost out of hand skills and knowledge taught on campus that they considered as "only theoretical stuff" (Helen). In light of the current study, it is clear that participants considered only the practical features of their on-campus program, or those features they deemed to have a practical application, as attributing to their workplace readiness. I now turn to a discussion of the extent to which participants believed in-field experience attributed to their workplace readiness.

In-field experience

All participants in this study deemed their in-field experiences pivotal in preparing them for their professional careers. They valued both the opportunity to witness and experience classroom teaching and the chance to see in practice some of the theoretical concepts they had learned on campus.

Without exception, participants said they appreciated the opportunity to spend time in the classroom, to observe seasoned teachers' practice and to "have a go at teaching" (David). Either in direct response to interview questions (such as Q10, *Which aspects of the program do you value most now that you are in the workplace?*) or in discussion emanating from other questions (for example, Q8, *How do you believe the BLM helped you to develop skills to build professional partnerships?*), each participant referred to the benefit of their practical experience in relation to workplace readiness. These responses are typical:

> I found it better coming out of that ten-week [internship], because we'd been in there full time and I found the practical side of it beneficial. I think I learned more from actually being in there and doing it rather than just going to a lecture. [The lectures] were helpful too, but I think you need to actually be in the situation. It's like a real life experience, you know, not the same as learning about it. Being in the schools was like a different world. I didn't really think about uni. [One of my lecturers] visited during one of my portal tasks, I think it was the second one, but she didn't stay long. That was the only contact I ever had and the teachers had no idea of what I was doing at uni. I was really disappointed about that. (Fiona)

> There should be more opportunity to spend more time at school and the more time you spend away from uni at school the better. (Brendan)

I learned a lot from being in schools. Things teachers taught me [that] I use now. The supervising teachers I had said they had no idea about what we were doing at uni. None of them had had much contact at all with the uni, I don't think. I found it more practical to follow what my supervising teachers suggested. (Catherine)

It made me appreciate what teaching is all about. I always try to have a positive outlook and enjoyed my work at uni. But being in the classroom gives you a sense of what real teaching is like. (Gay)

Most notably, participants said they benefited from the opportunity to practise classroom management and to receive feedback from their supervising teachers. Even in the two cases where participants encountered difficulties in relating to their supervising teachers, this did not, in these participants' view, detract significantly from the in-field experience. Bianca, for example, observed that although she struggled to relate to her supervising teacher during her second portal task, "I still had the chance to reflect on what I was doing at uni and that was a real positive."

Nonetheless, although acknowledging the value of the portal task and internship, four participants felt handicapped by not having taught the same year level of students as that which they were assigned in the new school. Brendan, for example, commented:

I am a lot more comfortable at school now than I was at first but, yeah, it was especially hard at first since I had never really been in a Year Five classroom for

any period of time during my portal tasks so I found that to be a lot bigger class and I didn't really know the routine.

Overwhelmingly, however, participants endorsed the in-field experience as an essential feature of the program and many questioned why, as students, they had not spent more time in schools. Anita and Fiona, for example, suggested that teacher education should move towards an apprenticeship model to enable prospective teachers to progressively take on more responsibility and to adapt to the social context of the school. As elsewhere in the data, participants used terms such as "real life" and "real teaching" when relating their experiences in portal tasks and internships. This is again indicative of the high value participants placed on the in-field component of their pre-service preparation and adds credence to the observations I made earlier about participants' privileging of practice over theory in enabling their workplace readiness.

Section conclusion

In this section, I have presented and discussed the data concerning participants' perceptions of their workplace readiness. There are two principal observations that I draw from these data. First, participants overwhelmingly privileged the in-field experience over the on-campus component of their pre-service preparation in preparing them for the workplace. Second, they devalued and at times denigrated the theory they were taught, finding it to be of limited use as they progressively took on the role of the teacher. From a theoretical perspective, I propose this means that, in interacting with the pre-service teacher education environment, there was an imbalance between how the participants interacted with the two different fields of the program (the university and the Teaching

Schools) and that the "emergent" (Mead, 1934), the graduate teacher, reflects this imbalance in how he/she acts at the outset of his/her career. I now turn to the second section of this analysis to seek to provide evidence to support this tentative finding and to discuss other issues that have emerged from the data.

Futures orientation

This section presents the data as they relate to participants' futures orientation. The discussion is organised into two areas. First, I examine participants' self-concept as futures oriented educators and, second, I discuss the types of teacher characteristics and capabilities evident in the data that imply (or otherwise) a futures orientation.

Self-concept as futures oriented educators

Lynch and Smith (2006a) identify three attributes of futures oriented teachers. First, they are able to think of futures scenarios and their implications. Second, the exploration of futures scenarios provides them with the criteria to judge the fit between the students under their care and their future circumstances and plans and the corresponding implementation strategies. Third, a futures orientation enables them to imagine and manipulate possible conditions and outcomes. In short, according to Lynch and Smith (2006a, p. 42), "a 'futures' orientation' in practice is the learning manager engaged in a process of higher order thinking, so that traditional teaching is disrupted." It is anticipated that BLM students will develop futures oriented attributes through course work and in-field experiences during the program. Moreover, the expectation is that they will develop an awareness of a futures orientation and be able to recognise it in themselves and others. That is to say, they will not develop the skills and knowledge associated with a futures

orientation in an implicit, incidental way but, rather, through university teaching that addresses these concepts in a deliberate and intentional manner (Lynch & Smith, 2006a).

Data in this study show that some participants saw themselves as futures oriented educators. However, six of the fourteen participants had no demonstrable understanding of the concept, as defined by the BLM (Lynch & Smith, 2006a) and seemed quite perplexed when asked about it. In response to Q5: *In the BLM, can you describe what is meant by a "futures orientation"?* David said: "Sorry, you've got me there," while Helen replied:

> Helen: I guess I'm stumped on that one.
>
> Jeanne: Is it a concept you came across during the BLM?
>
> Helen: Yeah, I guess so, sort of. I suppose it's [about] looking at teaching things and coming into the future with different things. Like we did a lot of technology sort of things through uni and that has kind of helped a lot.

Of those who believed themselves to be futures oriented in their work, every informant referred to the importance of being cognisant of futures in their planning and teaching. Representative comments include:

> We need to engage our students in what's going to happen in the future … you really do have to, I think, be futures orientated yourself. (Anthony)

Basically you're not looking at what's happening now, that you're getting [the students] ready for the years ahead. (Desley)

When I spoke to these participants about how they incorporated a futures orientation in their planning and teaching, the resounding response (7 of 8) was through the use of technology. Indeed, their comments suggest that they considered the use of technology synonymous with a futures orientation, to wit:

With an ever-changing society, we've got to find different means of guiding our children in their learning, with the use of data projectors or the use of the Internet. (Earl)

I do lots of slide shows and plan lessons that are more visually appealing. I do this with my simple computer screen and that seems to work fine. (Catherine)

I think a futures orientation means having an idea of the future perspective or how teaching is going to be in the future or how learning management is going to be in the future. And technology, big time! Keeping up with the time, keeping up with technology is a big thing in a futures perspective, I think. (Inez)

Other participants echoed Earl's mention of the changing nature of society:

It's about being able to take your students from the classroom and get them ready for beyond the classroom experiences. So, really, giving them skills in areas that are useful, especially in a world that's changing so often. (Carl)

Teaching them the skills and knowledge required for things that we probably won't even know about until they happen in the future. Technologically, [the world] is very advanced and things are going to be invented and we just need to give them the basic skills so that they can be confident in career paths that probably haven't even been invented yet. (Gay)

Apart from the incorporation of technology into teaching and an awareness of the changed world into which their students would enter, participants essentially offered no other explanations for their understanding of what a futures orientation entailed.

Evident in these indicative data are two issues. First, some participants were unable to articulate an understanding of futures orientation, a core feature of the BLM. This has implications for their classroom practice and their capacity to implement BLM theory. Second, there is a misalignment between what the BLM espouses as a futures orientation in teachers (Lynch & Smith, 2006a) and what this sample of graduates understood as a futures orientation in their daily practice. This is another example of participants articulating a narrow conceptualisation of one of the core concepts of the BLM. That is, while futures orientation implies a broad range of skills and knowledge (Smith & Moore,

2006), my informants equated it with the use of technology and an awareness of a changing world.

Futures capabilities

The BLM literature defines certain capabilities as exemplifying a futures orientation (Lynch & Smith, 2006a). These include: higher order thinking skills; learning design strategies based on individual learners; learning outcomes that articulate learner readiness for transition and learning goals; learning experiences commensurate to the individual student profile and circumstance; behaviour management strategies based on learners' needs; collaborations with stakeholders to formulate program strategies; multi-modal delivery methods; using ICTs as part-and-parcel of learning strategies; and planned risk taking and courage (Lynch & Smith, 2006a). Teachers with these capabilities would be expected to display resourcefulness, adaptability and flexibility. I examined the data to find evidence of these types of capabilities in the experiences conveyed to me by my informants.

Most participants recounted experiences and discussed classroom practices that implied futures orientation capabilities. Across the whole data set, two capabilities were particularly evident. First, all but one participant said they were committed to incorporating ICTs into learning strategies and, where possible[18], did so regularly. Earl, for example, introduced his class (and other teachers) to "Inspiration" software in a "life cycles" unit. He commented that:

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[18] Some participants' schools had limited access to ICTs.

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We'd already done charts on life cycles so I decided to introduce "Inspiration" into the unit. This is something none of the teachers had used before, but it was something we'd touched on at university. We looked at an earlier version and then sat down and thought, well how can we do this? And that was a great example of how we were prepared to learn something new to put into our teaching.

Similarly, Brendan and Fiona used ICTs regularly in their teaching and advocated the use of all the technologies available to them. Brendan remarked that:

These days technology is such a wonderful thing. I had one parent, actually a lecturer from uni, show me an Internet site called Google Earth and it's such a great resource for kids to realise just how big a world we are. If we can utilise these sorts of things, then kids can benefit.

The only participant who claimed not to see a place for ICTs in her teaching was Anita, who said she preferred "tried and true" methods to innovative ones. As discussed earlier in this chapter, Anita showed a preference for traditional teaching methods and was sceptical about innovative practice. Given this, her rejection of ICTs in her teaching is not surprising.

The other capability salient in participants' discussions was designing learning strategies based on individual learner profile, needs and circumstance. Without exception,

participants spoke of their belief in and commitment to structuring learning experiences around the individual learners in their class. Some comments were:

> I believe the key measure of a teacher is the way you approach each and every student … their learning is a direct result of how you're accommodating their learning and making the classroom inclusive. (Gay)

> Learning management to me is the way you can manage every child's learning. I try to take account of all different cultures and also students' prior knowledge when I work out my teaching strategies. (Inez)

> I spent the first few weeks getting to know the kids. I try to plan my lessons to cater for all different learners. You know, different learning styles, different ways of understanding stuff. I have to keep my lessons pretty structured because of those few restless kids [mentioned earlier] but I still try to keep each one of them interested and learning. (David)

Three teachers attributed their capability in this area to work they had done during the BLM. For example, Fiona remarked that:

> I find planning takes such a lot of time but I'm getting better at it now that I know the kids and their learning styles and so forth. We had that drilled into us at uni. I can understand [why] now.

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There is ample evidence of these and, to a lesser extent, other futures orientation capabilities, such as flexibility and adaptability, in the data. So, while participants did not essentially see themselves as futures oriented as the BLM defines it (Lynch & Smith, 2006a), they displayed capabilities associated with this mindset. Whether they developed these capabilities to a lesser or greater extent, if at all, in the BLM is impossible to discern in the data. However, I would make the observation that, in line with theoretical insights (Lynch & Smith, 2006a; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000), having these capabilities is advantageous for this sample of graduate teachers in turning their BLM theory into practice. Pfeffer and Sutton (2000), for example, emphasise the importance of being open-minded and prepared to adapt to the circumstances within a given context if theory is to be successfully implemented.

The reported evidence of these participants' capabilities raises questions about how they are manifested. For example, how do participants go about designing learning strategies based on individual learner needs? How do they source materials to assist them in teaching ICTs? In the following section, I seek to provide answers to these questions, as well as present and discuss data concerning the implementation of BLM pedagogical design.

Capacity to implement BLM pedagogical design

A major feature that differentiates the BLM from the traditional BEd program is an emphasis on pedagogical strategies identified within both teacher education research and expert mentors in the field (Smith & Moore, 2006). As described earlier, the aim of the

BLM is to graduate teachers who have a defined repertoire of pedagogical knowledge and skills, encapsulated within the BLM Learning Design (BLM LD) that they can apply in any learning situation, no matter what the age of the learner or particular site (Smith & Moore, 2006). This repertoire is acquired during pre-service preparation through structured, intentional and designed activities taught on campus and attempted under the supervision of a skilled mentor in the Teaching School. Through partnership arrangements between the university and Teaching Schools (Allen & Butler-Mader, 2007), the in-school supervisor is trained in the details of what the attempt is supposed to achieve during in-field experiences, namely the portal tasks and internship.

There are three parts to this section. First, I discuss the opportunities and constraints that participants encountered in implementing BLM pedagogical design during their pre-service preparation. Second, I follow the same procedure in examining opportunities and constraints they experienced in the new school. In the third part, I attempt to explain participants' reported practice as novitiate teachers in the new school.

Opportunities and constraints during pre-service preparation

All participants in this study expressed an understanding about the BLM LD and believed it to be useful. However, responses were mixed when asked about its implementation during their in-field experiences, with only five of fourteen participants using the strategies learned on campus. Of those who did, support by the supervising teacher proved crucial. Anthony noted that:

My supervising teacher and I pretty much followed the guidelines of what was in the portal task booklets. We did try to apply some of the strategies and so forth that we were shown at university.

Fiona commented that her supervising teacher did lecturing work at the university and, being experienced in BLM strategies, helped her to incorporate them into her lessons. On the contrary, Helen expressed her disappointment about not having more opportunities to "try out" what she had been learning on campus, adding that:

You had to make sure you did what the teacher did, not what you were taught at uni. When the teacher was away I could try some things, generally what we'd learned, although a lot of what I did was emulating the teachers. Yes, it is usually what the teacher does.

Other participants, however, had no experience of implementing the BLM LD during their in-field experiences although three believed that the strategies were "implicit" in their planning and teaching. For example, when I asked Catherine whether she used components of the BLM LD during her portal tasks and internship, she replied:

Probably not consciously. But, you know, it was probably implicit in what I was doing. But consciously I didn't use them, no.

Similarly, Gay responded that:

I think you do, you use [the BLM LD]. During pracs, I found I was using it without even knowing, if you know what I mean. It's all there, I think, but implicit. I couldn't really tell you how I used it.

There were essentially three reasons given by the nine participants who said they did not put their theory into practice during in-field training. First, several seemed unsure about what was expected of them. Earl said he did not really grasp what he was supposed to implement and that he did what his supervising teachers expected of him. David expressed the same sort of concerns, commenting that:

I could see the advantage of Dimensions of Learning and the other frameworks but I didn't really see the place for them in the schools I was in.

Second, four participants said they preferred to follow the practice of the supervising teacher. For example, Brendan was guided in how to teach through "just watching the other teachers and talking to them." Anita made similar comments and was quite dismissive of what she had been studying on campus:

Just talking to other teachers helped. Sometimes watching them, too. I can't think of anything from the uni that really helped me.

Elizabeth, likewise, was grateful for the direction provided by her supervising teachers and adopted elements of their practice rather than implementing what she had learned on campus:

> Well, they're sort of supposed to guide you and teach you and help you, because they're the ones with the hands on work.

Third, others (6 of 14) were constrained in what they could do, on the one hand, because of expectations placed on them by their supervising teachers and, on the other hand, because of what they believed was expected of them within the school context. These comments are indicative:

> I wasn't really given that creative licence, I suppose, to kind of go out and do the sorts of things I'd learned at uni. In one school, for example, I was in a group of three teachers who taught together. There were certain things the classes had to learn so it was a bit more restricted in that I couldn't just kind of go out and use as much [of the BLM LD] as I would have liked. (Bianca)

> [*Laughing*] I couldn't use BLM strategies because my teacher in two of the portal tasks hadn't even heard of half the stuff that we had been taught. One even said to me, "This is rubbish. I don't know about this." (Inez)

There's no way I would have gone in using the Eight Learning Management Questions and that stuff. No one knew anything about it. I talked a bit about stuff I'd learned [at uni] but there was always so much to do and we had to keep on track. There was just so much else going on that you just sort of push those things aside and do the basics like the other teachers do … and teachers are going to teach differently anyway. It's your teachers who are going to influence the way you teach because that's what they know. And you're trying to work with them. (Desley)

Desley made this latter comment in a focus group and the other three group members agreed strongly with her viewpoint.

Participants were asked to reflect on whether their experiences in portal tasks and internship had changed their understanding of the BLM learning frameworks and pedagogical strategies that they had been studying on campus. Nine participants commented that, while the in-field experience had not changed their understanding, it did reinforce some of what they had learned at university. Generally, they believed this to be beneficial as it showed the "real life" (Bianca) application of what they had been learning on campus. Representative comments included:

It definitely reinforced what we'd been doing at uni. If you didn't have that practical experience, it would be very difficult. It's easy to talk about at uni but

until you get out there and can apply it, it means nothing. It's so much easier to understand things when you're actually doing them. (Fiona)

I guess you'd go into lectures and stuff like that and you hear a lot about this stuff, and you're sort of thinking, oh yeah, whatever, but until you're actually out there and you're one-on-one or whatever it may be, you actually don't realise that it's effective. (Carl)

However, several other participants said they saw little connection between their university and school work. For example, Desley could not see the practical application of what she had been learning on campus because:

It's different in schools. Schools tend to focus on content. Uni focuses on psychology of why rather than the content. There are different ways of teaching the lessons, but in the end, it's the content.

Pfeffer and Sutton (2000) are informative in light of these data. They demonstrate that it is through doing the work, implementing what has been learned, that teachers develop a broader and more profound level of knowledge. What had been considered theoretical and distant by some teachers in this study assumed a greater and more practical relevance when witnessed and experienced in the classroom.

Several issues emerge from these data. Teacher education literature has clearly identified that the gap between the realities of teaching and on-campus courses becomes evident from the first practice teaching session undertaken by pre-service teachers (Allen & Peach, 2007; Smith & Moore, 2006). It is little wonder then, as identified elsewhere by Korthagen et al. (2006), that the evidence in this study suggests that when making instructional decisions prospective teachers tend to devalue and, in many cases, rarely draw upon the kind of theory that is presented to them in their pre-service preparation. Boud (2001) cautions that the practicum presents considerable challenges for pre-service teachers as they have to deal with the complexities of being both worker and learner and of having increased responsibility in the learning process.

Evident in these data is that participants were engaged in a continuous process of attributing meaning to the BLM LD, adjusting their actions and perspectives according to each new attribution of meaning. This is consistent with the symbolic interactionist perspective that all meanings are assigned and modified through an interpretive process that is ever changing and subject to redefinition, relocation and realignments (Blumer, 1969).

However, the BLM was designed to militate against the disparity between university and in-field learning through a reconceptualisation of teacher preparation aimed at overcoming the gap between pre-service teacher education and the work of teaching (Smith & Moore, 2006). The data in this study suggest that during their training participants valued the theory that they learned on campus but were in many cases unable

or unprepared to implement key features of it during their portal tasks and internship. Many had little choice but to conform to the status quo with supervising teachers unaware of or unconvinced by the types of strategies students were instructed to implement by their university teachers. Others, however, actively sought to follow the pedagogy of the supervising teacher, crediting this as being "real practice" (David). In other words, in the "rub" between theory taught on campus and practice observed and experienced in schools, participants clearly privileged the latter.

One possible reason for this, implied in the data, is that during their in-field experience my informants positioned themselves as inferior to their supervising teachers, such that they abandoned the pedagogy learned at university in favour of emulating the practice of their supervising teachers. This positioning can be discerned in comments such as:

> You had to make sure you did what the teacher did. A lot of what I did was emulating the teachers. (Helen)

> I wasn't really given that creative licence, to kind of go out and do the sorts of things I'd learned at uni. Basically, I followed the teacher's advice. (Bianca)

The literature lends strong support to this type of dyadic power arrangement during pre-service in-field teacher preparation and the deleterious implications it has for the implementation of innovative practice by pre-service and, subsequently, novitiate teachers (Mitchell & Schwager, 1993; Smith & Moore, 2006). Bullough and Draper

(2004) point out that, given the cultural and institutional pressures on teachers to teach in certain ways, the expectation of supervising teachers is that student teachers will conform to accepted school practices. On their part, student teachers generally view supervising teachers as experienced professionals who can help them develop as teachers and who, perhaps more importantly, can guarantee (or otherwise) their future employment possibilities by providing positive evaluations (Bullough & Draper, 2004). The problem with students emulating their supervising teachers' practice is, as evinced in this study, that this leads to a reproduction of the status quo (Reid, 2001), which is of particular concern given that seasoned practitioners often fail to seek out new evidence for best practice because they trust their own practical experience more than they trust research (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). I now continue to examine participants' capacity to implement BLM pedagogical design by presenting and discussing data concerned with opportunities and constraints they encountered in the new school.

Opportunities and constraints in the new school

Of interest to this study are the types of pedagogical design beginning BLM graduates employed in the new school and how these aligned with core BLM concepts. The data reveal some differences between what participants believed to be core principles of the BLM LD and what is actually the case. Essentially this means that while some claimed to be guided by BLM theoretical principles, they showed limited understanding of core pedagogical frameworks such as the Eight Learning Management Questions and Dimensions of Learning. My informants' responses reveal that their pedagogy was varied and guided by different philosophies and understanding. None used the BLM LD in an explicit way.

As in their in-field experiences, some (4 of 14) participants believed that the BLM LD was implicit in what they were doing in planning and teaching, as evidenced in these comments by Brendan and Carl:

> Whether you realise you are practising a lot of those frameworks or not, a lot of the time you don't, I think somewhere in the back of your mind, they're there [but] unless you are actually sitting down and reflecting on it, you probably don't realise that they are there. (Brendan)

> It's not like I go every day and look at the Dimensions of Learning and stuff like that and say, yes, we're doing this and this or anything like that. I guess, well, putting it into practice … I think you do it and sometimes you're unaware that you are doing it. But I think sometimes it becomes second nature to you, that you have previously learned it and through your prac you have developed it and it sort of comes out and you don't realise. (Carl)

On the contrary, others consciously avoided using the BLM LD, preferring instead strategies that they themselves had experienced as young learners. Anita, a mature age participant whose comments were noted earlier, was quite dismissive of the BLM LD, claiming that:

So while I haven't been at school myself in twenty, in thirty, over thirty years, I still perhaps do some of the things that were done to me. You go back to that, you go back to what you think will work. Rather than doing whatever is supposedly the current trend.

Interestingly, this particular student graduated with distinction and earned the highest grade point average of final-year students on her campus. Despite this high achievement, her comments reflect some disdain towards her preparation program.

Relating similar experiences to Anita, four participants said they would do whatever was needed to get through the day and that this usually meant asking other teachers for advice in how to plan lessons. On this note, two mentioned prescient comments that had been made during their pre-service program by university staff:

I remember [teaching staff] saying to us at uni that you'll go into survival mode rather than do what you've been taught. You will teach how you were taught. (Helen)

They said to us at uni that when you go into your first year, you are just going to survive. You are not going to follow anything we taught you here, you are going to survive. That is what you do. You go into survival mode. (Desley)

Other participants drew from a number of different pedagogical sources and frameworks in what amounted to an ad hoc approach to teaching, which is precisely what the BLM strives to overcome (Smith & Moore, 2006). For example, Gay and Fiona claimed to implement "the full extent" of what they had learned at university, yet mentioned a number of different pedagogical strategies, none of which aligned with the fundamental pedagogy of the BLM LD.

Similarly, Catherine mentioned a number of disparate pedagogical strategies, noting that her capacity to implement BLM strategies was thwarted by team planning which was "really, really structured" and overseen by the Assistant Principal (Curriculum) who provided pedagogical protocols and exemplars that were to be followed by all teaching staff. Inez commented that, while rarely using the BLM strategies, they provided a good "backstop" when things weren't working well in class:

> If you can see something's not working, you can sometimes go back to some of [the BLM LD] to help you think of new ways or get new ideas to change it so it might work better.

In a similar vein, Desley suggested she might use BLM strategies later, when things had "settled down":

> Maybe further down the track when I sort of have a grasp of everything else that needs to be done during the day. They don't do those things here, you know, like

Dimensions of Learning and stuff like that, so why would I use them? I don't think about things I was taught any more. I don't know if that's a bad thing or a good thing.

Both Inez and Desley said they saw value in the BLM LD but thought of it as something they could perhaps utilise at some point in the future. That is, they did not view the BLM LD as core to their pedagogical practice, as is intended in the BLM model, but rather as a possible addition to it.

Several important issues concerning the implementation of BLM theory emerge from these data, which lead me to make the following propositions. First, I suggest that, at the time when my participants were training, some of the partnership arrangements between the university (on two campuses) and Teaching Schools were at best inadequate and at worst non-existent. Specifically, the success of the BLM depends in large part on all participants having a common and shared understanding about the "how to" of teaching. As Smith and Moore (2006, p. 21) point out, "a partnership with employers, schools and with each teacher mentor, where all are contributing, participating and learning, is the core of the BLM model." This study shows that, during their training, many participants felt they had to or indeed preferred to conform to the supervising teacher's modus operandi, which in many cases differed substantially from their own envisioned pedagogical practice. Clearly, this suggests that partners were not following "the same script" (Smith & Moore, 2006, p. 21), which in turn had serious implications for these

BLM students' experiences of turning theory into practice[19]. Having had insufficient practice in implementing BLM theory during their pre-service preparation arguably accounts, at least in part, for the dearth of BLM learning design evinced in participants' accounts of their graduate teaching practice in the new school. Participants in this study showed a tendency to revert to traditional teaching practices, influenced by factors such as anticipatory socialisation (Lortie, 1975) and, as strongly supported in the literature, a fight for survival (Kyriacou & Kunc, 2007; Liston et al., 2006).

In symbolic interactionist terms, I propose that my informants redefined their teaching approach when they entered the new school environment. Just as they generated new meanings associated with the BLM LD to cope with the contingent situations of the university and Teaching School during their pre-service training, they again attributed new meaning to the BLM LD when they took on the role of the teacher (Mead, 1934). The new school represented a "universe of discourse" (Mead, 1934, p. 89), or system of common meanings, dissimilar in many ways to that in which they had engaged during their pre-service training. Through interactions with others, in particular their teaching colleagues, my informants sought to develop a teaching approach that belonged within the school's universe of discourse. In this way, they privileged other ways of teaching, predominantly those of their colleagues, over the BLM LD.

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[19] Graduates in this study entered the BLM in the third year of its implementation. One could speculate that the program would be unlikely to have total subscription of all its participants at such an early stage of its existence. This could account for some of the disparate practices advocated by the university and schools.

Also significant in this discussion are the contradictory messages about the nature and purpose of the BLM that some participants claimed to have received. That is, in these participants' view, there was some disaccord between what the BLM espouses as its core principles and the messages delivered by some university staff members to their students. Clearly, it would be unwise to extrapolate from comments made by only two participants (above), but it is interesting to note that these participants studied at different campuses and yet received the same contradictory message, in BLM terms. Other participants gave accounts of their teaching practice that they believed aligned with the BLM LD but which in fact bore little resemblance to what the BLM espouses as its core principles. Indeed, there was a sense of the ad hoc in the reported teaching approach of a number of my informants.

These data lend credence to my observation in the first section of this chapter that the core philosophy and conceptual underpinning of the BLM were possibly afforded little or uneven attention by some university staff, despite the rhetoric of the program. Teaching happened, but perhaps not always according to BLM principles. Further, I would suggest that the inconsistencies and contradictions about the BLM encountered by some participants exacerbated their difficulties as novitiate teachers in turning theory into practice. I now present and discuss data to further explain BLM graduate practice.

Explaining BLM graduate practice

Manifest in the analysis of the data to this point is that the sample of BLM graduates in this study rarely, if at all, incorporated into their teaching elements of the learning design integral to their pre-service training. In this section, I therefore seek to identify reasons

for this in the data. I present this discussion under three themes: reluctance and fear in the workplace; collaborative practice; and using resources. The main reasons for this design are that these themes are important in Pfeffer and Sutton's (2000) model for turning theory into practice and it will be recalled that this model informed the composition of interview questions in this study. Accordingly, there are ample data related to these topics, data that proved valuable in terms of explaining BLM graduate practice.

Reluctance and fear in the workplace

When I asked participants whether there were teaching practices learned in the BLM that they would be reluctant to implement in the classroom, none of them believed this to be so. That is, they did not feel they would be sanctioned by members of the leadership team or by colleagues if they chose to use the type of pedagogy they had learned and practised at university. Typical responses were:

> No, no. All the strategies apply. It's just a matter of which ones you favour and adopt. I mean all of them would probably work, there's no problem with any of them. (Anthony)

> I guess I would give anything a go. I can say pretty confidently that most things we found out about at uni I could use if I wanted to. In this environment, there's no one saying, "Do this, do that." (Inez)

> No, the school has been very good. Very open to suggestions and they are really keen to hear your opinion about what you've learned at uni. (Earl)

Nor did most participants feel they were unable to implement the BLM LD because of school procedures or protocols. With the exception of Catherine whose pedagogy was largely prescribed by her Assistant Principal (Curriculum), the other thirteen informants said that they were free to use whatever teaching practices they preferred, provided syllabus outcomes were met. Anthony, for example, floundered in one of his Religious Education lessons when he tried a teamwork strategy in which "everything went completely wrong." He immediately "debriefed" with a colleague who was "very approachable" and gave him ideas and strategies for how to deal with similar situations in the future. Similarly, Bianca and Desley commented that they felt free to "give anything a go" (Desley). They made these comments:

I wouldn't say there is anything that I wouldn't try because of the school. The school I am in is very, um, very willing to try things. I have lots of discussions with my principal about different ways of doing different things and she's really encouraged me to try things and to look outside the box. (Bianca)

Everyone's really supportive and, if you want to try something new, they're all going to get behind you. And if it fails, they'll all laugh along with you. I've tried different things and they haven't worked and so I say, "Oh, I'll maybe try it again next year." (Desley)

This latter comment is particularly interesting given that Desley, like other participants, claimed not to have used any of the components of the BLM LD in her first three terms of teaching. Instead, she sourced "new" materials and ideas from other teachers, the school's resource room and the Internet.

Emerging from these data are several points of interest, which I now consider in light of observations made by Pfeffer and Sutton (2000). Of the guidelines that these critics argue need to be in place for theory to be turned into practice, two in particular are pertinent here. First, they posit that fear fosters knowing-doing gaps and that organisations need to have a "forgiveness framework" (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, p. 254), without which employees will be reluctant to implement new and innovative practices. Second, organisations should condone employee errors for "there is no doing without mistakes" (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, p. 253). All learning necessarily involves some failure and it is through failing that one can continue to learn (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000).

Data in this study show that my informants were not fearful of trying innovative practice. On the contrary, colleagues and leadership team members often supported them in doing so. Participants were given leeway to implement pedagogical strategies as they wished and they often discussed these afterwards with their colleagues, whether the strategies and teaching practices had been successful or not. The "forgiveness framework" to which Pfeffer and Sutton (2000, p. 254) refer seemed to form part of the organisational fabric of these participants' schools. Participants also indicated that making mistakes was not

something for which they were castigated and that other year-level teachers and/or members of the leadership team invariably supported them when they did so.

However, it is the type of innovative practice to which participants claimed to subscribe that has implications for this study. For example, Desley's comments above show that she rejected the BLM LD in favour of other teaching frameworks and strategies while Elizabeth claimed she had complete freedom to implement the learning design she had studied during the BLM yet, when asked to elaborate on what this involved, mentioned an array of teaching strategies unaligned with those comprising the BLM LD.

Given the indicative data presented above, I would propose that graduates did not implement the BLM LD in their classroom practice for reasons other than a sense of reluctance or fear of possible ramifications among colleagues and leaders. I now present and discuss data as they relate to participants' experiences of collaborative practice.

Collaborative practice

The BLM expectation is that graduates will have developed skills in working constructively with others and be able to incorporate collaborative practices into their daily work (Lynch & Smith, 2006a). Pfeffer and Sutton (2000) support this need for collaborative and cooperative working arrangements in order for theory to be turned into practice. These types of working arrangements mean that "the result is the product of common effort, the goal is shared, and each member's success is linked with every other's" (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000, p. 257). This sub-section investigates the types of

collaborative practices undertaken by participants in this study and the extent to which these practices facilitated the implementation of BLM theory.

With the exception of one teacher whose pedagogical practice was informed only by individual knowledge, all other participants worked collaboratively in planning and regularly discussed aspects of their pedagogy with other staff. Social interaction of this nature generally involves bringing into the shared situation contrary ideas, which are then debated until a sharing of a new stock of knowledge is developed (Blumer, 1969). However, the nature of participants' collaborative practice is worthy of note. Seven participants indicated that they discussed the BLM LD with their peers and in collaborative planning, but not extensively so, as evident in comments such as:

Sometimes I talk about some of the things we did at uni, but generally I just get into the flow of what the other [year level] teachers are discussing. I feel I can learn more that way. (Fiona)

If there is something relevant, yes, I pass that on. Yeah, I think we can learn from each other and so I share knowledge and ideas with other people, but mainly I take on board what they say. (Anita)

I try to contribute to discussions although they know a lot more than me. It's easier than it was at the start. (Inez)

Overwhelmingly, participants indicated that they deferred to experienced colleagues when making decisions about pedagogical design. Carl's comments epitomise their responses:

> [My teacher partner] has been in education for seventeen years now, so quite regularly he and I discuss how a lesson went. So a lot of it is just talking with the teaching partner [which] I think really opens your eyes, and especially with someone with that much experience as well. So, I'm gaining stuff all the time. I'm still gaining experience, so it's never ending really. It's just constantly adding to the knowledge in your head. So, a lot of that would be my main basis, I would say, for the strategies [I use].

Similarly, Gay remarked that she used the pedagogical strategies suggested by the other Year Two teacher:

> [She's] the one who knows her stuff. I sometimes make suggestions but in the end I do what she does. She has some really good ideas and she's seen them work. She's been teaching for over ten years so what would I know?

However, she went on to comment later that:

It's only now [in third term] that I'm starting to gain any confidence [and] I feel like I can contribute a bit more now. It's nice when the others seem really interested.

Catherine saw little value in talking about what she had learned at university and deferred to her two year-level colleagues:

Both of them are kind of old. The one next door, he didn't even know there was a technology syllabus, well, not until last term when we were discussing it. So, they are pretty old-fashioned and we don't talk much about uni stuff. They've got everything set up and we all follow the same schedule.

These types of responses imply a devaluing by participants of their own knowledge and understanding in favour of the knowledge, experience and length of experience of the Other (Mead, 1934). Being conscious of their novice status and lack of experience seemed to erode the new teachers' confidence, causing them to emulate the practice of other, more seasoned practitioners. This is an example of interactions within the group moulding the individual (Blumer, 1969; Mead, 1934).

Accessing resources

The expectation of BLM graduates is that, among other attributes, they will be adaptable, resourceful, flexible and capable of producing and accessing resources that are appropriate for the learners in their care (Smith & Moore, 2006). It will also be recalled that, upon graduation, they should have developed a repertoire of skills and knowledge

that implies new and innovative caches of resources and modes of delivery for classroom use. No longer is the "chalk and talk" routine and an abundance of worksheet materials appropriate. Rather, graduates should be engaged in multi-modal delivery methods, in using ICTs, and the like (Smith & Moore, 2006).

I reported above that participants said that, where possible, they incorporated ICTs into their teaching to varying degrees. However, the data show that, for the most part, when it came to using resources needed in their everyday teaching, my informants relied upon those developed by other teachers in the school. This reliance seemed to emanate from participants' lack of confidence in being able to produce resources of a similar standard to those of their colleagues. Only one of the participants mentioned using specific planning and teaching resources he had learned at university:

> I've used the three ways of planning in maths: the visual, numerical and verbal. It's called the Rathmell model. And, um, that's probably the sort of strategy I try to use, you know, those three things in the Rathmell model to explain what happens in maths. (Anthony)

Seven participants expressed concern that they were unsure or not confident about drawing on the sorts of resources they had used in their training. For example, Brendan was troubled by his inexperience and lack of "teacher material" compared to his more experienced colleagues:

The things they have in their cupboard are amazing. [When I began] I had an empty cupboard, which is quarter full now so it's much better now than it was. I try to add something every week and it's great to gather things from the other teachers.

Brendan's comments typify participant responses in his overtly high regard for the cache of resources that experienced teachers had acquired, seeming to equate this with good practice. Bianca and Carl, for instance, felt privileged in being able to share the resources of their more experienced team teachers, commenting, "we have resources just bursting out of cupboards in our room" (Bianca) and "he's got more than enough resources after seventeen years in the field" (Carl). Catherine mentioned a resource room with "heaps of stuff" that she accessed when planning a unit of work, while David was able "to get something out of the [principal's] cupboard" when he wanted resources and teaching ideas. Gay referred to the "shelf laden with resources" which she regularly accessed, while Earl expressed an interest in acquiring as many resources as his year-level colleagues, stating, "collecting resources is a big thing in the first year."

The level of discernment regarding the quality and/or relevance of resources shown by participants did not appear particularly high. For example, participants accessed and borrowed from other members of staff resources that were quite dated or that needed to be modified for a particular class. Desley commented that:

I can always go up to any teacher and they're able to give me something that they did four, five, six years ago, that they found worked and I can use that. Sometimes I change it a bit for my kids but it still works.

Similarly, Bianca said:

Resource-wise, we're very lucky in the fact we have resources just bursting out of our cupboards in our rooms. So, I'm very lucky in that way because there were a lot of resources there already [when I began]. There's stuff there from years and years ago and so much to choose from.

Seemingly crucial to these and other informants was that other teachers had used particular resources and done so successfully. Taking up the role of teacher for these graduates included not so much resourcefulness, as the BLM proposes (Lynch & Smith, 2006b), but rather acquiring ample physical resources. The trappings of practice were evidently central to their interactions.

Section conclusion

Data presented in this section demonstrate that BLM graduates in this study rarely implemented the learning frameworks and pedagogies that formed part of their pre-service training. All believed they had the freedom to do so, but chose not to. In collaborative planning with other teachers they tended to defer to more seasoned teachers, only occasionally contributing ideas from their training. Similarly, they utilised planning materials and resources used by their experienced colleagues in preference to those they

used in the BLM. Further, they showed little discernment about the resources that informed their experienced colleagues' practice. These data therefore lend support to my earlier observation that the novitiate teachers in this study privileged the practice of experienced teachers and, in consequence, intentionally or not, devalued the skills and knowledge of their own pre-service training.

The literature on the professional development and socialisation of teachers confirms that there is nothing surprising in what these data reveal about the pedagogical practice of the novitiate teacher (Berliner, 1986; Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Fuller, 1969; Hogan et al., 2003; van den Berg, 2002). Fuller (1969), for example, identifies the beginning teacher as one whose concern with survival and personal adequacy leads him/her to emulate the practice of expert teachers. Likewise, Berliner's (1986) model of teacher development views the beginning teacher as consciously learning the tasks of teaching and developing strategies by following the practice of colleagues.

However, it is precisely this emulation or mimicking of traditional teacher practice that the BLM seeks to prevent through providing graduates with the capability to implement innovative practice (Smith & Moore, 2006). By contrast, an earlier evaluation of the BLM[20] demonstrated that teachers graduating from the BLM were adept in implementing core BLM pedagogical principles (Ingvarson, Beavis, Danielson et al., 2005). I attribute these contradictions in findings to participant sampling. Participants in the Ingvarson et

[20] This study, initiated by the university and carried out by the Australian Council of Educational Research, consisted of: a survey study of all teachers who graduated from Queensland teacher education programs in 2003 and taught in 2004; a survey of all Queensland school principals; and an observational study which compared the performance of BLM-trained elementary teachers with graduates from other Queensland teacher education programs (Ingvarson, 2006).

al. study were predominantly drawn from a campus of the university that had strong industry partnerships and shared understanding of pedagogy on campus and in the Teaching Schools (Turner, 2006). Participants in this study, however, were drawn from two campuses whose partnership arrangements with schools at the time were encountering some tensions (Allen & Butler-Mader, 2007). Further, there were discrepancies between what the university and schools valued in terms of pedagogical design (Allen & Peach, 2007). The data in this section add credence to my suggestion earlier in the chapter that flaws in the partnership arrangements contributed to the BLM graduates in this study abandoning practices learned on campus in favour of emulating the work of the seasoned practitioner, thus succumbing to traditional practices.

Chapter conclusion

In this chapter, I presented and discussed data that enable me to answer the problem of this study: *How do teachers experience turning theory into practice during training and initial employment?* I now summarise the main empirical findings of this thesis before proposing a theoretical interpretation of the data in Chapter Six.

First, seven of fourteen participants experienced difficulties in transitioning between their pre-service training program and the new school. Reasons provided for this included the enormity of the task of teaching and the responsibility involved. By contrast, half the participants found the transition relatively smooth and credited this to their in-field experiences undertaken during the program. For these participants, the initiation into teaching seemed to have begun before their entry into the new school.

Second, only one participant believed herself to be workplace ready upon graduation. The apparent anomaly between this figure and the number of participants who said they had a relatively smooth transition into teaching (7 of 14) can be attributed to two factors. The first factor is that the concept of workplace readiness in the BLM model implies a specific set of skills, knowledge and capabilities (Lynch & Smith, 2006a) but my informants seemed to interpret the concept to mean ready to deal proficiently with any situation in the workplace and equated it with expertise generated through experience. The second associated factor is that the majority of participants compared themselves unfavourably to other, more seasoned and expert teachers, believing them to epitomise workplace readiness and, accordingly, did not consider themselves to have the requisite skills to be workplace ready. Many questioned whether pre-service training could possibly enable novitiate teachers to be workplace ready.

Third, more than half the participants considered themselves to be futures oriented, but provided a very limited understanding of this concept as it is defined in the BLM (Smith & Moore, 2006) (see the sixth finding below). Nevertheless, the data suggest that participants displayed capabilities associated with a futures oriented mindset. In particular, they were committed to incorporating ICTs into learning strategies and to designing learning strategies based on individual learner profile, needs and circumstance. They also showed some flexibility and adaptability in their teaching approaches.

Fourth, participants differentiated between in-field experience as practical, real and immediate and on-campus work as theoretical and remote. Some demonstrably privileged

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the former over the latter and devalued and at times denigrated the theory they were taught, finding it to be of limited use as they progressively took on the role of the teacher. The majority, however, saw value in what they had learned on campus for the theoretical insights that it offered. Nonetheless, unless they witnessed or experienced on-campus skills and knowledge in application, this cache of knowledge remained distant and of little value in becoming a "real teacher."

Fifth, during their pre-service training my informants emulated the practice of their supervising teachers and other seasoned practitioners in the school environment and, once in the new school, continued to value the practice of other, more experienced staff over their own. For many participants, this meant that they abandoned their practice learned at university in favour of following and, at times, mimicking the teaching practice of their supervising teachers and colleagues. In many cases, they also utilised planning materials and resources used by more experienced and expert staff in preference to those they used in the BLM. Participants showed little discernment about these materials insofar as their use by experienced teachers seemed to imply they were valuable resources in the view of many informants.

Sixth, there was a disparity between the understanding that participants articulated about some of the key concepts of the BLM and those espoused by the creators of the program (Smith & Lynch, 2006b). Participants tended to provide a narrow and traditional conceptualisation of concepts that are intended to represent a distinct departure from previous teacher education models (Smith, Lynch, & Knight, 2007b). This suggests that

university-school partnerships, ostensibly in place during participants' training, might have been deficient or non-existent in that common understanding informing the partnership arrangements was not espoused across the two contexts of the university and the Teaching Schools. This suggestion is supported in the data by the in-field experiences of many participants. Specifically, despite the articulated conceptual synergies between the university and school partners about what the work of student teachers in school should entail, many participants were unable or unprepared to implement key features of their on-campus learning during portal tasks and internship. Many had little choice but to conform to the status quo with supervising teachers unaware of or unconvinced by the types of strategies my informants were instructed to implement by their university teachers.

Chapter Six

Interpretation of the Data

Purpose of the chapter

The purpose of this chapter is twofold. The primary objective is to provide further purchase on the research problem through the application of the theory of emergence to the categorical analysis reported in Chapter Five. This will extend the analysis and draw out new insights. A secondary objective is to demonstrate the applicability of the theory to the context of teacher education in ways that have not been examined previously from the perspective of emergence theory.

Introduction

In this chapter, I show how the use of Mead's position on human agency and social structure provides an explanation of the reflexive adjustments of pre-service/beginning teachers to the environmental conditions reported earlier. There are two major parts to this discussion. First, the pre-existing environmental and individual conditions of student teachers are related to interaction within the pre-service program. Second, pre-existing conditions that affect interaction for graduate teachers in the new school are analysed. Before discussing each of these, I provide an overview of the theoretical framework used to explain the data.

How the theory is applied

The discussion in this section of the chapter is based on the research problem of the thesis and makes use of the theoretical constructs established in Chapter Three. Drawing on Mead's theory of emergence, the graduate teacher is a kind of effect of the interaction between the pre-service situations of undergraduates and the environment under specific pre-existing conditions. The pre-existing environmental conditions include social and institutional influences, anticipatory socialisation and the pre-service teacher education program. Following Mead, it is then necessary to tease out these pre-existing conditions and show how they shape the actions of the pre-service and beginning teachers. To do this, I also consider the dynamic and formative role of human agency, that of the generalised other in different social settings, in shaping the expression of these environmental influences and the characteristics of the pre-service/beginning teacher responses to them. This application of the Meadian perspective reveals the decisive impact of particular social groups on the differential responses of the pre-service and beginning teacher. Figure 6.1 contains the model developed to explain the data.

Figure 6.1 shows three primary interaction environments related to the training of pre-service teachers and their transitions to novitiates. For the purposes of this study, I focus on participants' interactions in Environment Two (E2), the BLM, and Environment Three (E3), the new school. Environment One (E1), pre-training socialisation, provides the preconditions for subsequent environments. Therefore, I identify and interpret E1 preconditions through participants' reported interactions in E2 and E3.

Figure 6.1: Framework of emergence
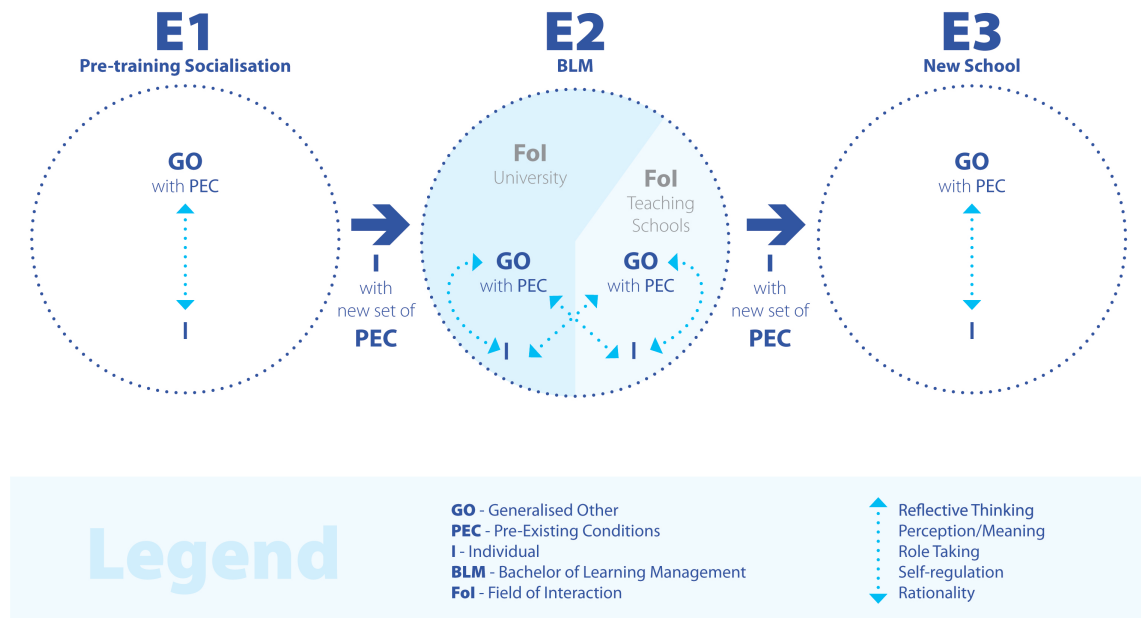
The use of this interpretive model does not imply that participants followed a linear, one-directional trajectory through the three environments. Rather, as the interpretation shows, environmental preconditioning of the individual and collective *I* is a complex and iterative process. I now turn to the interpretation of the data.

E2: Nature of the interaction

In Mead's schema, the pre-existing conditions of the individual are constantly mediated through interaction. In short, pre-existing conditions contribute to the nature of the emergent. Taking the BLM as an example, students enter the program and encounter conditions such as the expectation that graduates develop skills and knowledge associated with workplace readiness, futures orientation and capacity to design and implement pedagogical strategies. These environmental preconditions have an impact on how

individual students interact with others and influence their meaning-making and subsequent teaching behaviour. The university sector, the school sector and the relationships between these are fundamental preconditions.

Environmental pre-existing conditions

It will be recalled that the environmental preconditions of the BLM involve two fields of interaction (FoI): the university (FoIa) and the Teaching Schools (FoIb). Teaching Schools set up students and teachers to interact in order to devise teaching experiences for the classroom, based around pedagogical practices. They do this through interaction in the school. While this potentially brings together the pre-existing conditions of the two FoI, it also involves pre-existing conditions of the two *I*s: the teacher and the student teacher. These two examples provide evidence of how this process unfolds:

> I couldn't use BLM strategies because my teacher in two of the portal tasks hadn't even heard of half the stuff we'd been taught. (Inez)

> There's no way I would have gone in using the Eight Learning Management Questions and that stuff. No one knew anything about it. I talked a bit about stuff I'd learned [at uni] but there was always so much to do and we had to keep on track. (Desley)

In these examples, neither Inez nor Desley had substantive conversations about practices learned at university in the Teaching Schools field. While they both mentioned some BLM practices in their meeting with teachers, neither pursued the issue of implementing

these. They had encountered what Blumer (1969, p. 22) refers to as an "obdurate effect" in the environment whereby their understanding of pedagogical practice learned at university did not match the reality of others in the different FoI.

Also evident in Inez' and Desley's remarks is that their supervising teachers did not engage them in further conversation on the topic. The responses of the *I*s in the school context were such that the desired pre-existing conditions of the university were difficult to achieve through interaction in the Teaching Schools. The pre-service teachers' behaviour can be explained through the regulation of their *I* by their *Me* as they started to see themselves as they believed significant others saw them, adapting their behaviour accordingly. As aspirants to the group in which their supervising teachers belonged, Inez and Desley were seeking to adopt similar perspectives about what counted as pedagogical strategies. They regulated their interactional behaviour by following the practices they observed in order to become more like the other, to belong to the social group. It was their ability to define teaching situations from the same standpoint as their supervising teachers that made their personal controls possible (Mead, 1934).

The responses of the supervising teachers to the students' talk about BLM pedagogical practices reflect their own pre-existing conditions and sense of self as teachers. The student demands on their knowledge of the BLM requirements did not fit preconceptions of "teaching." By filtering out these ideas, their own identities as professionals who know what needs to be known about teaching were protected. The imbalance in the power arrangements between the supervising teacher and the novitiate ensured that, in this

relationship, the teachers' views held sway and the pre-existing conditions of the university did not wield substantial power over the meaning-making of participants (Bullough & Draper, 2004; D. H. Hargreaves, 2000).

The situation was different in Teaching Schools. The following comments show how students encountered a different frame of reference in this FoI:

> Being in the schools was like a different world. I didn't really think about uni. [One of my lecturers] visited during one of my portal tasks, I think it was the second one, but she didn't stay long. That was the only contact I ever had and the teachers had no idea of what I was doing at uni. I was really disappointed about that. (Fiona)

> The supervising teachers I had said they had no idea about what we were doing at uni. None of them had had much contact at all with the uni, I don't think. I found it more practical to follow what my supervising teachers suggested. (Catherine)

These remarks highlight an important issue in any professional program where people undertake study before or at the same time as going into a practice situation. If the principles for in-school experience in the teacher education program are not well established in both fields there are going to be consequential effects. Graduate comments show a differentiation between the two fields of interaction: that of the university and that of the school. Their remarks are evidence of a university-school divide. I interpret this as

the theory-practice gap defined by Pfeffer and Sutton (2000), wherein key players in associated institutions hold conflicting views about best practice. Students and, by extension, some teachers were unable to put into practice the preferred BLM theory because the pre-existing conditions of the fields of interaction were in conflict.

Whereas the literature generally portrays the university-school divide as an effect of faulty or imprecise communication between the two sectors (Goodlad, 1990; A. Taylor, 2008), graduate comments suggest that a larger mechanism is at work. The gap can only be alleviated or eliminated if there are common sets of expectations of the generalised other about teaching practices in both fields of the university and schools.

Reproduction of the theory-practice gap

A key feature of the interpretation of analysis is that participants both as individuals and as part of a collective contributed to the reproduction of the gap between theory and practice. The data illustrate this in two ways. First, my informants made clear distinctions between the educational function of the university and the school in their development as professionals, as exemplified in Desley's comments:

> Desley: A lot of the theory was a bit out there. It would depend on the lecturer.
>
> Jeanne: What is your concept of what theory means?
>
> Desley: Reading and writing. Theorists. The why you do things rather than how. What we did at uni. Learning it has been useful in some ways.

Jeanne: Did you believe it was useful when you were at uni?

Desley: No, because you couldn't see it happening. It's different in schools. School tends to focus on content. Uni focuses on psychology of why rather than the content. There are different ways of teaching the lessons but, in the end, it's content.

These data indicate a contextual association of theory with university and practice with schools. This is despite an acknowledgement by participants that the university program included both practical components and links with practice. For example, they appreciated the practical application of what they learned in KLA courses and commented on the value of being taught by teachers who "came in" (Elizabeth) to the university environment as seconded and sessional staff. The program also entailed students going out into the school environment through regular portal tasks and internship. Nevertheless, despite these acknowledged pre-existing conditions of the environment, what was strongly maintained was that the university did not present the "practice" of teaching that was perceived of as the jurisdiction of schools. My informants reproduced and sustained the gap between the university and schools when they associated one environment with theory and the other with practice.

Second, some participants upheld the belief that much of what goes on in teacher education courses is not relevant. The claim and indications of what is meant by relevancy are contained in the following comments about first-year courses:

The Futures course was a load of rot. How will that kind of thing help me to teach? I really wonder why we did it. (Anita)

That course that was out there at the university for SOSE was totally ridiculous as far as I'm concerned. We had a couple of lessons and they took us to North Keppel Island and as far as I'm concerned I got nothing out of it. Definitely a general feeling, I would say. (Anthony)

This type of meaning-making can be explained through the pre-existing conditions of the individuals. Anticipatory socialisation and prior attitudes and beliefs about the role of teacher education allow only a restricted set of interactions to take place between participants and others in the environment (Chang, 2004). In their interactions with others, participants' judgments and perceptions were regulated by the beliefs they had already formed about the nature and value of teacher education. Gay, for example, said she believed that "training can only take you to a certain point" and Inez noted that:

Uni is important for all the background stuff but I always knew I'd learn more from being in the classroom.

In theoretical terms, these participants could not be "talked out" of what they already believed (Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1991, p. 103). Their pre-existing beliefs had generated a cultural expectation that there would be a theory-practice gap between the

university and the school. They acknowledged and accepted that cultural and institutional barriers between the two environments were not theirs to overcome.

The data under discussion reinforce the long history of anticipatory socialisation as a strong determining feature in shaping participants' interpretation and definition of situations during training and in the new school (D. S. Anderson & Western, 1970; Blase, 1986; Feiman-Nemser, 1983; Loewenberg Ball & Cohen, 1999; Lunenberg et al., 2007). Both institutions contribute individually and collectively to sustaining the gap between the two. The strength of pre-existing conditions on participants' social interactions and role taking indicates that the university-school nexus is complex.

The perspective on teacher education afforded by emergence theory implies that programs such as the BLM that attempt to be disruptive might, because of social and power arrangements between the university and school environments, extenuate the theory-practice gap unless rigorous social predispositions are in place. The literature has long established that teacher education is inhabited by people who are highly selective and that the profession attracts students who are more conservative on a number of social issues than those in other faculties (D. S. Anderson & Western, 1970).

Response to the generalised other

The human response to the generalised other is not dependent on contextual proximity. The individual can define situations in the absence of other people (Shibutani, 1955). During training, pre-service teachers' beliefs and actions were continuously influenced and shaped by what they judged to inform the attitude of those in the school setting. That

is, they reacted to their expectation of that particular generalised other. I draw two examples from the data to provide evidence for this. In the university setting, Carl selected out from all the practices he was taught those he saw as having application in the school setting:

> When it came to doing lesson planning, if I thought I could use it in the classroom then I sat up and took notice.

In interacting with one environment, the university, Carl made deliberate choices about the types of practices and activities that he believed would facilitate his orientation in another environment, the school. Although belonging to one group, his frame of reference was that of another, his decision-making informed by his aspiration to adopt the attitudes of the generalised other in the school environment. He selected out from the university environment those things that he believed would help him gain membership in the school environment at some time in the future. Assuming the generalised attitudes of this social group involved taking their attitudes toward the various aspects of the common social activity in which all members of the groups were engaged (Coser, 1977), namely, teaching practices.

The second example shows that expectations about the generalised other were powerful in the identity formation of some pre-service teachers:

Some stuff [in the BLM] I couldn't see myself using as a teacher. Wasn't sure it would work. I talked to mum and my sister about things like the planning templates and they both said they'd never use them. Other things I was more interested in. (Bianca)

In eliciting the opinions of other teachers in her family, Bianca was searching for the attitudes of the group whose perspectives she wanted to assume. In doing so, she displayed a capability for vicarious role taking ("I couldn't see myself …"), projecting herself into a future role defined by her expectation of what her membership of the group in the school environment would mean. In the case of both Carl and Bianca, the participants' *I* determined what kind of environment was relevant to them as prospective teachers.

Bianca's remarks also illustrate the breadth of the representation of the generalised other school teacher for this group of participants. Her mother and sister represent the collective. Consistent with Mead's view that the generalised other comprises a range of disparate attitudes, beliefs and behaviour, participants actively sought out and referred to perspectives of a number of others. Family member teachers featured in the discourse of several other informants as well as Bianca, such as Earl whose wife had been teaching for five years:

I would sit at the dinner table and talk to my wife and say, look, this is happening. What can I do or how can I possibly get this across? Or this child just doesn't

understand it. I explained it this way and this way and she would suggest, have you tried it this way? Have you done it another way?

Influential in shaping Anthony's perspectives were the practices of his son's teacher in a local elementary school:

I was so impressed with what [my son] was doing for this unit on Egypt that I rang his teacher and asked him how he did it, you know, the secret of his success.

These are instances of novitiates defining objects (e.g. teacher practice) and other people (family members) from the perspective that they were seeking to share with them. Informants visualised their proposed lines of action from this generalised standpoint (how to teach the unit on Egypt) and anticipating the reactions of others ("wasn't sure it would work"), thus regulating their professional behaviour (Shibutani, 1955).

These data support Mead's contention that individuals relate to a number of generalised others, often simultaneously. In so doing, participants constructed more than one perspective on how to deal with the same environmental contingencies. Given that each perspective represents one pattern of interaction with the environment, the different perspectives, when implemented, generate different patterns of interaction and yield different sets of emergents (Chang, 2004). Students' interactions with significant others in the two FoI in the BLM resulted in a tussle between membership of the two different groups. They were agents in an environment that glossed two separate institutions. Once

they were caught up in the day-to-day life of the Teaching School, participants regulated their behaviour according to the environmental preconditions in that setting. This is evidence that, despite the changed pre-existing conditions of the BLM from its predecessor BEd, the agency of the individual with his/her set of pre-existing conditions had power over the effects of the program structure (Chang, 2004).

In summary, I conclude that pre-existing conditions across a range of individual characteristics and institutional arrangements, in the university and the school, have a defining effect on people in the liminal period between being a "student" and, later, a "teacher."

E3: Nature of the interaction

In transitioning from the university into the new school environment, graduates almost immediately started searching for the perspectives and rules of the group (Mead, 1934) they had entered. The data lend weight to Mead's claim that this process of role taking involves taking account of various things, assessing and interpreting what is noted and forging appropriate lines of conduct:

> I had a really tough first week but then I started getting to know what happens in the school, what other teachers do. Things gradually got easier. I spent hours talking to the other [teachers] and had a weekly meeting with the principal who gave me lots of ideas. (Inez)

I spent so much time in the school when I began. Often most of the weekend too. I really wanted to get on top of what needed to be done. But the teachers were really supportive and gave me lots of resources to use. (Fiona)

These examples provide evidence that participants' self as teacher was on the move, reaching beyond itself and beginning to turn into another (Shalin, 2000). Their social status had changed and a new set of expectations had fallen on them. This changed social status affected their teacher behaviour. While the graduate can be seen as an emergent at a point in time, the process of emergence is nonetheless continual. There is never a point at which one is; rather one is always becoming or emerging into another (Mead, 1934). These individuals had begun the process of emergence as classroom teachers in a particular school environment.

Patterns of interaction

The data analysis resulted in three views about how well prepared graduates believed themselves to be for the workplace. These included being unprepared, having limited preparation and being prepared. Environmental factors, both during training and as beginning teachers, were such that their pre-existing beliefs about teaching were mediated in different ways.

The four participants who believed themselves to be unprepared for the workplace drew regularly from their prior life experience when making decisions about classroom management and pedagogical practice. Both Desley and Catherine used "reliable" teaching methods recalled from their schooling while Anita preferred the "tried and true"

approaches that she had used both as a parent and as a teacher's aide. In applying these ways of teaching, participants found their actions affirmed by others in the workplace:

You go back to that, you go back to what you think will work. Rather than doing whatever is supposedly the current trend [and] that kind of puts me on the same wavelength with the other teachers and that's important. (Anita)

After that disastrous R.E. lesson, I've tended to stick with the safer strategies, you know, things that I've seen or used in the past. I've talked with some of the other teachers and they seem to be doing similar things. (Anthony)

Both Anita's and Anthony's pre-existing beliefs about teaching and experience of strategies that work (their pre-existing conditions) could be operationalised in the new setting because of the confirmation and reinforcement of their conduct by the generalised other. That is, they found that others in the social group shared some of their judgments about appropriate ways to teach, and responded to this discovery of shared perspectives by continuing to teach in similar ways. Thus, a pre-existing condition was materialised (Chang, 2004).

In regulating their behaviour to fit the common contextual modes of action (Mead, 1934), these informants also made choices about how not to act. For example, they rarely drew on aspects of their training undertaken at university because they did not perceive them as appropriate for the environment:

They don't do those things here, you know, like DoL and stuff like that, so why would I use them? (Desley)

I liked most of the things I learned at uni but they don't use them here. The principal has her own ideas about what we should use. Because we're in such a small school, we all tend to do the same sorts of things. (David)

In the case of these participants, the pre-existing conditions from the university field of interaction were not materialised in the interaction between the *I* and the school environment. Conversely, their attitudes and behaviour were shaped by ways of teaching they had observed and practised in the Teaching Schools, indicating that pre-existing conditions from this particular field of interaction were materialised:

I learned a lot from being in schools. Things teachers taught me [that] I use now. (Catherine).

These data provide evidence for the fundamental role played by pre-existing conditions in shaping human action and the way in which pre-existing conditions were mediated for this particular group of graduates. Specifically, participants held beliefs acquired before their training (in E1) and during their engagement with the BLM (E2). However, in this latter environment the two fields of interaction had a different impact on the meaning-making of participants, such that these graduates carried forth understanding and beliefs,

a subjective view of professional life, associated more with their experiences in the Teaching Schools than in the university. Hence, when participants entered the school environment (E3) they brought a "new" set of pre-existing conditions, informed both by their earlier experiences in E1 and by views of teaching upheld within the contemporary school context (E2; FoIb).

Comments by this group of participants suggest that they elected not to participate fully in the social processes at university. This leads me to speculate that these graduates did not see university staff as significant others and did not attach importance to their social and symbolic interactions in this field. Rather, they remained alienated from the process, their role taking and self-regulatory behaviour shaped by conditions external to the university. For these four graduates, the processes of emergence theory of Mead and others that explain how people interact in social environments were not operationalised. During training and on graduation, these individuals experienced and acknowledged a theory-practice gap between the university and the specific workplaces in which they interacted.

The pre-existing conditions of a second group of participants, those with reported limited preparation for the workplace, were mediated in different ways. The power of these participants' pre-existing beliefs and attitudes did not have the same strength over their individual actions in the BLM environment as did those who saw themselves as unprepared. The explanation for this lies in their capacity and preparedness (Mead, 1934)

to adopt the perspectives of others in the new social group. For example, reflecting on her on-campus work, Helen commented:

> We were taught very well, how to plan a unit, how to use outcomes and that sort of thing and I found that useful.

Like others, Helen selected out the practical components from this environment. Bianca, who had attended another university for the first year of her training, remarked that:

> So much of what we did at uni was new to me. It all made sense and I found it much more practical and, you know, engaging than what I'd done before at University [X]. I knew I could use some of these things.

Both Helen and Bianca attributed meaning to some of the practices taught in the BLM and began taking them on as their own. Their exemplary comments bear out Mead's contention that perception is selective. Ostensibly, both this group of participants and those discussed above encountered the same types of conditions in the university setting. However, each group defined these situations differently and responded selectively to the environment. The organisation of their perceptual experience depended both on what they anticipated and what they took for granted about the environment (E2), based on the pre-existing beliefs and attitudes they had developed in E1.

For the purposes of this interpretation of the data, I discuss individual pre-existing conditions as they relate to groups of participants. This is not to suggest that the pre-existing conditions of one individual can be directly paralleled with those of another. Rather, the *I* of the individuals whose words are included above show that each is different when he/she enters a new environment. Thus, the pre-existing conditions of the individual cannot be generalised; they represent a mix. While the concept of environmental pre-existing conditions is useful, the analysis shows that the individuals' pre-existing conditions will differ. For example, Bianca's experiences at another university conditioned her particular way of viewing situations (Mead, 1934) in the BLM environment.

One participant, Elizabeth, provided an alternative view about preparedness for the workplace. This early-age graduate reported being prepared for all facets of teaching:

> not just what you need to teach them and how to teach it, sort of being ready for the whole job.

Elizabeth made no reference to beliefs she had previously developed about teaching (in E1), claiming instead that she had learned everything she knew about teaching through the BLM, having begun training immediately after finishing school. In particular, she credited her practical experiences in the Teaching Schools field with her knowledge about teaching:

I enjoyed all aspects of the program but it was mainly in the portal tasks and internship that I learned how to teach. Yes, especially the internship. The things I learned there seemed very fresh in my mind when I started teaching.

Elizabeth's meaning-making and self-regulation in the BLM environment differed from some other participants. While she had experienced an earlier preconditioning environment (E1) as had others, she more readily took on the role of the generalised other in the BLM environment through adopting practices observed in the Teaching Schools as her own. This can be explained through Mead's argument that individuals develop the capacity to role take in different ways. Elizabeth was able to regulate her behaviour to fit with the conduct of the group in the Teaching Schools.

Considered together, these data provide several theoretical insights. First, the pre-existing conditions of the BLM environment were such that participants interacted with different pre-existing conditions in the different fields of the university and Teaching Schools, indicating a power play between the two fields. While the BLM discourse holds that both fields contain similar and complementary frames of reference, participants differentiated between the two fields and began setting standards for themselves in ways that aligned with the attitude of the generalised other in the Teaching Schools. In many instances, the practices observed in Teaching Schools affirmed participants' pre-existing beliefs about teaching acquired in E1. Second, the agentive power of the participants was significant in determining their trajectories through the BLM. My informants made active choices

about what was important to them in terms of teaching practices and behaviour and about what they would adopt as their own.

Rationality

The data reveal the dyadic nature of interactions between informants and others in the social group. Reflecting what Mead refers to as rationality, some interactions involved a coming together and taking up of ideas from both graduates and significant others in the school setting. Rationality is a multi-faceted and disequilibratory process, evident in this study in the imbalance between the levels of engagement of teachers with students' ideas than students with teachers'. According to graduates' comments, teachers showed minimal interest in the novitiates' ideas. However, some practices caught teachers' attention, as illustrated by:

> They were really keen to hear your opinion on some things you'd learned; they were really good at that. As with the Inspiration program that I talked about before, I'd had a little bit of dealing with that so I sat down with the Assistant Principal and said, well, this is what I've sort of learned. And the other teachers I work with, they were really keen to look at the program as well so we sat down and added this [program] to what we do. (Earl)

> There was some stuff, like Google Earth, that the other [year level teachers] liked so I showed them how to use it. We use it in a couple of the second term units now. (Fiona)

These are examples of rationalised social interaction (Mead, 1934), whereby novitiates both controlled their actions through the behaviour of others and controlled others' actions through their own. The behaviour of these individuals can be explained through the dynamic nature of their selves and the co-evolution of their *I* through their mutual social interaction (Beames, 2005).

Just as my informants were evolving as professionals, the experienced teachers with whom they interacted were also undergoing the continual process of emergence. That is, while emergent in their roles as teachers, they were not a finished product. Rather, like all social beings, they were constantly evolving through their interaction with others and through their reflection on and re-interpretation of their professional selves (Blumer, 1969). Hence, graduates were not interacting with a static, defined group in the new school environment, but with others whose selves, like their own, were in a constant state of flux. The environment was exercising control over the conduct of all its individual members (Mead, 1934).

The fluid, variable nature of rationality between my participants and their reference group was such that their ways of interacting and attribution of meaning inevitably developed and changed. Moreover, the depth and breadth of rationality continuously evolved as my informants' involvement in and level of commitment to social interactions increased (Chang, 2004). For example, Gay and Inez made these comments about collaborative planning sessions:

It's only now that I'm starting to gain any confidence [and] I feel like I can contribute a bit more now. It's nice when the others seem really interested. (Gay)

I try to contribute to discussions although [the other teachers] know a lot more than me. It's easier than it was at the start. (Inez)

Others referred to their developing confidence to make a contribution as they began to feel like "real teachers."

These data bear out Mead's contention that the shared perspective of the group has a temporal dimension, the nature of the perspective changing in time as different attitudes and actions are contributed to the common understanding. Meaning is continually modified through experience, changing as a result of ongoing interaction. Research literature shows that beginning teachers tend to be reluctant to promote and in many cases implement the theory of their pre-service training during their first year of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Grossman, 2008). This is attributed to their lack of confidence as novitiates and to the "reality shock" that they face as beginning teachers (DEST, 2002). However, new teachers often overcome these hurdles to the point that they are able in their second year of teaching and beyond to apply what they learned in teacher preparation (Darling-Hammond, 2007). I posit that this occurs because the breadth and depth of role taking by beginning teachers in interaction with others gradually increases to the point where they can control others' actions through their own. That is, they see themselves as "teachers" and this self-image is symbolically reinforced by other teachers.

It is therefore conceivable that my participants would return to and begin applying BLM theory at a later date, and influence others in doing so. Thus, over time, my participants could potentially play a role in influencing change in teaching practices within their social group. By its nature, a change to the fundamental attitudes of the group occurs gradually. It involves the participant bringing up the attitude of the group toward him/herself, responding to it, and through that response changing the attitude of the group (Mead, 1934). In this and previous chapters, I identified that my informants initially had little power over the effects of the school structure when they transitioned into the workplace. I propose, however, that as their capacity to role take increases, they will potentially develop the capability to effect emergent transformation in classroom practice in their school.

Synthesis

Having interpreted the data in this chapter, I now propose the following four statements in response to the research question in its theoretical terms: *How is the "theory-practice gap" co-produced and sustained during training and initial employment?*

First, the pre-existing conditions of the individual are at times inexorable, such that the graduate retains some beliefs and attitudes about teaching and the role of the teacher that are not aligned with the principles of the BLM. Rather, actions and beliefs are informed by views of teaching from his/her own schooling and life experience. Accordingly, some participants do not define BLM theory as inherent in their role as a teacher and are therefore unable and/or unwilling to turn the theory of their pre-service preparation into practice in the workplace.

Second, it is apparent in the data of my informants' interactions that the pre-existing individual and the BLM environment conditions impose their own reference frame more on some participants than others. Reasons for this include the strength of the individual's pre-existing conditions, congruence/incongruence between the two fields of university and Teaching Schools interaction, and the individual's capacity to role take and self-regulate.

Third, the behaviours of my informants suggest that individuals tend to (re-)create their roles and self-regulate their actions as teachers in one way during interaction with the BLM environment and in another way in the environment of the new school. Through assuming the attitude of the generalised other during pre-service preparation, the individual's *Me* regulates his/her *I* in such a way that, in many instances, the individual defines BLM theory as appropriate in his/her role as a learning manager and enacts the theory accordingly. In the new school environment, role taking sensitises the novitiate teacher to a different set of "enabling and limiting properties" (2004, p. 410) from those encountered in the BLM. Most participants re-create their roles through selecting from this new environment that which is situationally meaningful to them; they then make adjustive responses in social interactions. Essentially, most participants do not define BLM theory as situationally meaningful in this environment and therefore, by and large, do not implement it.

Fourth, because emergence is a continuous process, the data show that my participants continue to evolve through their interactions with others and this influences their ongoing attribution of meaning to things within the school environment. Others in the environment are also in a process of emergence and, like my participants, are constantly evolving and seeing themselves through the eyes of others. Their interactions are a dynamic, two-way arrangement. It is conceivable that as participants' involvement in and level of commitment to social interactions increases, they will develop the capacity and/or willingness to implement the BLM theory learned in their undergraduate training.

These interpretations provide some evidence that Mead's theory of emergence is a robust explanatory model for this study. Taking Figure 6.1 as a high level summary, I propose that the pre-service and beginning teacher are affected more by the institutional, social and cultural influences of E1, pre-training socialisation, and E3, the new school, than by E2, the BLM. Within E2, preconditions of the Teaching Schools field impact more powerfully on regulating individuals' behaviour than do the preconditions of the university. As indicated in Figure 6.1, the mediation of the pre-service teacher's *I* by preconditions in E1 and E2 determines the nature of the individual in transition between the three environments. The expectation is that because of the power arrangements in the BLM, the individual is in a liminal state between E2 and E3. The common-sense reading of this set of circumstances is that the individual has a different set of preconditions to the preconditions experienced in transitioning between E1 and E2. However, this study shows that individuals carry at least some of the same preconditions between the environments.

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The conditions here illustrate why it is often difficult to apply the concepts that organise individual action to the organisation of group action. The students in my sample as they interact with teachers and lecturers form a "flexible connective tissue" that maintains the group-defined definitions of teaching in the face of a range of potentially disruptive events provided by BLM precepts (Hutchins, c1995, p. 219).

In Chapter Seven, I provide a response to the research problem posed in Chapter Three, draw conclusions to the study and suggest some directions for future work.

Chapter Seven

Conclusion to the Study

Introduction

It will be recalled that the thesis problem in its theoretical terms was: *How is the "theory-practice gap" co-produced and sustained during training and initial employment?* The context for the study was a pre-service teacher education program designed with the explicit intent of bridging the divide between theory and practice.

There are three main sections to this concluding chapter. First, I synthesise the findings from the theoretical interpretation to provide a decisive response to the research problem. The second section describes the achievement of the thesis and how it makes a substantial contribution to knowledge. Section Three details possible future directions for research in the area. I now turn to each section.

Response to the research problem

The broad response to the research question is that the theory-practice gap is co-produced and sustained through social interactions during front-end training programs in the current university and school institutional arrangements and initial employment that I studied because of individual, collective and environmental preconditioning. I support this conclusion in the following three findings.

First, the pre-existing conditions of the individual remain intransigent during social interactions in pre-service preparation. Thus, the graduate teacher (the emergent) enters the workforce with behaviour and beliefs informed by preconceived views of teaching from his/her own schooling and pre-training life experience. These views tend to reflect traditional views of teaching and not those of innovative practice.

Second, during interaction between the individual and the training environment, the pre-existing conditions of the environment are constantly mediated. This occurs through, for example, the agency of the individual, each with pre-existing conditions, the individual's capacity to role take and self-regulate within the environment, and the strength of synergies between fields of interaction within the given environment. The thesis largely illustrates the costs of ignoring the cultural nature of cognition when it is contextualised between institutions that compete for the commitment of people in an inexorable process of status change.

It follows then, third, that individuals re-create their roles and regulate their behaviour to conform to the social group whose attitudes and actions they wish to adopt. For pre- and beginning in-service teachers, the emulated group is that of the classroom teacher, not that of the university academic. Accordingly, environmental preconditions in the school have more power over individual agency than do those in the university.

In short, the central argument of this thesis is that the theory-practice gap in pre-service teacher education, under current institutional arrangements, is an inevitable phenomenon

arising as individuals undergo the process of emergence from pre-service to graduate and then beginning teachers. Environmental, social and cultural conditions in teacher education and schools inhibit the trainee and novitiate teacher from exercising the power of agency to effect change in traditional classroom practices. Thus, the gap between theory and practice is co-produced and sustained.

In light of this response to the research question, I provide the following three observations. The design and intent of innovative front-end preparation programs are such that newcomers are, in a sense, being asked to do the work of the institutions. They are the individuals who interact between the two environments and who are expected to breach traditional institutional arrangements through the strength of their agency. This is a daunting challenge for people in the least powerful position. In fact, as this study showed, it often comes down to a nineteen (or so) year-old student/novitiate teacher sitting down with an experienced teacher who says, "This is rubbish. I don't know about this," and the student retreating. This significant issue in teacher education endures (Cole & Knowles, 1993; Korthagen et al., 2006; Lunenberg et al., 2007; Wideen et al., 1998).

Second, it cannot be concluded that student and novitiate teachers simply succumb in a pre-determined manner to environmental preconditions. On the contrary, they act in powerful ways. These individuals constantly make choices about how to act and what to believe. They do not merely reject BLM concepts and constructs; they actively select what will serve their perceived interests best from the sociocultural environments in which they interact.

Finally, inherent in the theory of emergence is the concept that individuals continue to evolve through social interactions. In institutions, this is generally a process of co-evolution whereby members wield influence on the meaning- and decision-making of each other. Thus, the behaviour and attitudes of members are never "fixed." As novitiates' involvement in and level of commitment to social interactions increase, they will conceivably develop the capacity and/or willingness to implement components of their pre-service preparation.

Contribution to knowledge

The achievement of this thesis is as follows. First, the focus on the theory-practice gap expands the theoretical and empirical questions identified in the literature so far. The vast majority of work in the area of theory-practice focuses on the nature of the problem, but what teachers actually experience as they transition from training into the workplace is an important and largely overlooked outcome in the theory into practice literature. The present study in part fills this gap found in earlier work on the theory-practice gap.

Further, I propose that the use of Mead's theory of emergence provides an opportunity to understand teacher education in ways that hold promises for deeper theoretical understanding of the theory-practice gap in this area. Whereas many studies present a conceptual view of the pre-service program as a series of "black holes" that students either do or do not get through, the use of a Meadian approach in this study evinces an important part of the dynamic, namely, the program's engagement with another set of institutional arrangements (in schools). The cultural fabric of the whole matters.

The thesis is additionally significant because there has not been another study, to my knowledge, that has used Meadian emergence theory to explore this problem. The findings in the previous chapter indicate that the application of Mead's theory in this novel context provides a potent way of understanding how the theory-practice gap is co-produced and sustained. It also offers insight into the ways in which individuals transition from pre- to in-service work and how they interact as neophytes with others in the social group.

The context is also significant in that the BLM is not a conventional pre-service teacher education program but one whose explicit aim is to overcome the divide between theory and practice. That bridging the gap remains elusive in this context suggests that further investigation of both the theoretical model and its implementation are needed. Moreover, a better understanding of the structural and cultural outcomes of pre-service teacher education programs provided in this thesis holds potential to deepen the understanding of how to conceptualise new programs and reconfigure existing operations.

I conclude that these contributions constitute a contribution to the knowledge base and practices of pre-service teacher education. I now present some suggestions for future research.

Future directions

I suggest the following five areas as providing potential opportunities for complementary research to this study. First, future work could entail an investigation of what is being

asked of students in respect of what the institutions expect. This flows directly from my earlier comments about the two sets of environmental and pre-existing conditions. Second, future research should look at how students make choices about what to believe and how to behave. This study clearly indicates that the mechanisms involved are not understood but are assumed to be active in the BLM and no doubt in teacher education generally. Third, replications of this study using similar settings could be undertaken now or in the future to determine whether the devolution of the pre-service program results in different outcomes for pre- and beginning in-service teachers. Fourth, a follow-up study of the same participants could be useful to gauge whether this sample of graduates implements the theory from their pre-service preparation in the second year of teaching and beyond. This would potentially support previous findings in the literature (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Grossman, 2008). Fifth, the application of Mead's theory of emergence has implications for future research. Given that teacher education has not previously adopted this type of sociological framework, there is scope for its use in enabling researchers to approach the problem of the theory-practice gap from a different angle and to plumb the problem further.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Comparison of core components of the BEd and BLM models

BEd	BLM
Teacher education programs standardised around BEd industry rules	Teacher education as a *disruptive innovation* in industry definitions
Cultural reproduction of teacher education as a conduit to teaching	Transformation of teaching and teachers' work as *learning management*
Teaching prowess a matter of subjective preference (teacher-as-poet)	Emphasis on pedagogical practice and the science of learning
Knowing a lot about the *what* and other tangible assets	Knowing *what* with emphasis on the *how* and intangible assets
Curriculum development and planning	Design of pedagogical strategies that encompass curriculum content and context management
Proliferation of teaching approaches amongst teachers and student teachers	Establishment of a common language, core concepts and responsibilities
Professionalism a subjective, personalised and private matter	Professional identity based on a shared, systematic professional endeavour and improvisation
Immature profession	More mature profession
Novice graduates requiring induction and years of experience	Graduates workplace ready and futures-oriented
Conceptual and procedural knowledge taught on campus to be demonstrated later	Conceptual and procedural knowledge taught on campus demonstrated by students in real-life settings (portal tasks)
Semi- and informal relationships with schools and employers	*Business-to-business* relationships with employers
Academic staffing and reputational work based on teacher education	Mixed academic and practitioner staffing focused on generating capability
Governed by chunky bureaucracies	Network-centric work distributed across interdependent groups

Adapted from Smith and Moore (2006, p. 14)

Appendix B

Participant information sheet

The Translation of Theory into Practice in an Innovative Pre-Service Teacher Education Program

Information Sheet

Project Overview

The purpose of this research is to explore how the theory of a pre-service teacher education program is translated into professional practice. More specifically, this study seeks to establish how a new and innovative pre-service teacher education program equips graduate teachers with workplace ready skills, as enunciated in the design of the program. The problem of the thesis is explored through the classroom practice of first-year graduates of the Bachelor of Learning Management program.

Teacher education studies attest to the often huge disparity between the theory of the pre-service program and the practice in the workplace (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Neville, Sherman, & Cohen, 2005) while calling for more empirical evidence to demonstrate the link between student teachers' learning and their practices in the classrooms. There has been little research done on teacher preparation (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Viadero, 2005; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2001) as the research emphasis for the past few decades has been on teachers' knowledge and beliefs and thinking and learning in communities (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005). In order to gauge the efficacy of pre-service teacher education programs in enabling teacher effectiveness and ultimately in improving student outcomes, it is essential that research is carried out regarding how graduate teachers put the theory of their training into practice (Cochran-Smith, 2005; DEST, 2002).

The study uses the technique of purposive sampling to select participants. The criteria for participation are:

- completed the Bachelor of Learning Management at one of two campuses of Central Queensland University the year before data are to be collected (2005);
- first-year employment in the year of data collection (2006);
- registered to teach in Queensland;
- teaching in a Catholic elementary school in the Catholic Diocese of [X]; and
- a willingness to participate in the study.

Participation Procedure

The participation procedure involves one audio-taped interview (approx. one & a half to two hours) and possibly a follow-up group interview at a later date. The interview/s would take place at a place and time that are convenient for you.

Participation or non-participation will not affect your employment or academic standing in any way.

Benefits and Risks

It is anticipated that the research outcomes of this study will lead to recommendations about how pre-service teacher programs can be modified, changed or transformed in order to better serve graduates in the way in which they turn theory into practice.

In the event that you experience any negative responses to the research, please seek independent counselling support from Centacare, phone 07 4927 1700.

Confidentiality / Anonymity

The focus of this study is a cohort of first-year graduates of the Bachelor of Learning Management, not individual participants. Individual participants will not be identified, pseudonyms will be used for the participants and for the schools in which the participants teach and any identifying details removed from transcripts. No other data will be collected other than gender and age. All data will be kept and securely stored in accordance with CQU policy for a period of five (5) years.

Outcome / Publication of Results

It is intended that the results of the project will be used in an unpublished doctoral thesis and may be published/publicised at international conferences and in academic journals.

Consent

If you consent to take part in this project, please read and sign the consent form.

Right to Withdraw

Your participation is voluntary and, if you agree to take part, you may withdraw at any time without penalty or consequences. Your contribution will remain anonymous and your confidentiality will be maintained.

Feedback

You are invited to receive a plain English statement of the results of the research by completing the relevant section of the consent form.

Questions/ Further Information

If you have any queries relating to this project at any time you may contact Jeanne Allen at j.allen@cqu.edu.au or phone 07 4930 6518. Alternatively, you may contact my supervisor, Prof. Richard Smith at r.smith@cqu.edu.au or phone 07 4930 9620.

Concerns / Complaints

Please contact Central Queensland University's Office of Research (Tel: 07 4923 2607; email: ethics@cqu.edu.au; mailing address: Building 351, Central Queensland University, Rockhampton, QLD 4702) should there be any concerns about the nature and/or conduct of this research project.

Appendix C

Informed consent form

CQU HREC clearance number: H06/06-108

The Translation of Theory into Practice in an Innovative Pre-Service Teacher Education Program

Informed Consent Form

I consent to participation in this research project and agree that:

1. I have been provided with an information sheet about the nature and purpose of the study.

2. Any questions I had about the project have been answered to my satisfaction by the information sheet and/or verbal explanation.

3. I understand that my participation or non-participation in the research project will not affect my academic standing or my employment.

4. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the project at any time without penalty or consequence.

5. I understand the research findings will be included in the researcher's publication(s) on the project and this may include conferences and articles written for journals, as stated in the information sheet.

6. I understand that my name will not be used and that confidentiality will be maintained.

7. I am aware that a plain English statement of results will be made available to me, if requested below.

8. I agree that I am providing informed consent to participate in this project.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Name (please print): _____

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Please complete this form if you would like to receive a plain English copy of the results of this study.

Name: _____ Signature: _____

Postal/email address: _____

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Appendix D

Interview schedule for individual interviews

The Translation of Theory into Practice in an Innovative Preservice Teacher Education Program

Interview Schedule

Interviewee: _____

Interviewer: _____

School: _____

Participant No.: _____

Place: _____

Date: _____

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Teaching grade: _____

Interview starting time: _____

Interview finishing time: _____

Interview duration: _____

Interview Questions

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research project.

I would like to ask you some questions relating to the BLM and your school experience so far.

There are 26 questions. Please feel free to give as much detail as you wish in your answers. If you are unclear about the meaning of any question, please ask for clarification.

Please respond to the following questions and, where possible, provide some examples.

1. How have you found the transition from uni to teaching?

2. How are you finding life in the classroom?

3. What is your understanding of "learning management" as espoused by CQU?

4. What does the concept of "teacher workplace readiness" mean to you?

5. In the BLM, can you describe what is meant by a "futures orientation"?

6. The portal tasks and internship are compulsory elements of the BLM. Can you describe to me some of the pedagogical strategies that you used during these times?

7. Think of your experiences in the BLM portal tasks and internship. Did they change your understanding of the learning frameworks that you studied on campus?

8. How do you believe the BLM helped you to develop the skills to build professional partnerships?

9. To what extent do you put into practice in your daily work the learning management strategies dealt with in the BLM?

10. Reflecting on the BLM, which aspects of the program do you value most now that you are in the workplace?

11. Reflecting on the BLM, which aspects of the program do you find aren't particularly useful or don't work particularly well now that you are in the workplace?

12. During the BLM, can you think of something you did in relation to the program that didn't work or that was a complete failure? What was the university's response?

13. Reflecting on your portal tasks and internship, can you think of something that you did that didn't work or that was a complete failure? What was the school's response?

14. Now that you're teaching in a school, can you think of something that you've tried to do from the BLM that hasn't worked or gone as planned? What was the school's response?

15. Are there teaching practices that you learned during the BLM that you're reluctant to do now in the classroom?

16. Are there teaching practices that you learned at university that you're not prepared to do now because of how your school operates?

17. What do you think the university can learn from your experiences?

18. Is your daily pedagogical practice informed by individual or shared knowledge? Why do you say that?

19. To what extent did your teacher preparation lead you to shared knowledge and networks with other teachers and other people in the profession?

20. Think of some of the learning management strategies that you learned about during the BLM, such as the Dimensions of Learning. To what extent do you now discuss these with your colleagues?

21. During the BLM, what messages did you get about what the key measures of a teacher are?

22. Were these measures applied to you as you trained to be a teacher during the BLM?

23. Now that you're teaching, what do you think are the key measures of you as a teacher in this school?

24. How is your capability as a teacher measured in this school?

25. As a classroom teacher, how do you access the resources and support that you need in your daily teaching?

26. What are the practices of the leadership team in your school that have an impact on your work?

Appendix E

Interview schedule questions and corresponding Pfeffer and Sutton (2000) guideline

Icebreakers	
Interview questions	1. How have you found the transition from uni to teaching? 2. How are you finding life in the classroom?
Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline 1*	Why before how: Philosophy is important.
Interview questions	3. What is your understanding of "learning management" as espoused by CQU? 4. What does the concept of "teacher workplace readiness" mean to you? 5. In the BLM, can you describe what is meant by a "futures orientation"?
Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline 2*	Knowing comes from doing and teaching others how.
Interview questions	6. The portal tasks and internship are compulsory elements of the BLM. Can you describe to me some of the pedagogical strategies that you used during these times? 7. Think of your experiences in the BLM portal tasks and internship. Did they change your understanding of the learning frameworks that you studied on campus? 8. How do you believe the BLM helped you to develop the skills to build professional partnerships?
Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline 3*	Action counts more than elegant plans and concepts.
Interview questions	9. To what extent do you put into practice in your daily work the learning management strategies dealt with in the BLM? 10. Reflecting on the BLM, which aspects of the program do you value most now that you are in the workplace? 11. Reflecting on the BLM, which aspects of the program do you find aren't particularly useful or don't work particularly well now that you are in the workplace?
Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline 4*	There is no doing without mistakes. What is the organization's response?
Interview questions	12. During the BLM, can you think of something you did in relation to the program that didn't work or that was a complete failure? What was the university's response? 13. Reflecting on your portal tasks and internship, can you think of something that you did that didn't work or that was a complete failure? What was the school's response? 14. Now that you're teaching in a school, can you think of something that you've tried to do from the BLM that hasn't worked or gone as planned? What was the school's response?

Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline 5*	Fear fosters knowing-doing gaps, so drive out fear.
Interview questions	15. Are there teaching practices that you learned during the BLM that you're reluctant to do now in the classroom? 16. Are there teaching practices that you learned at university that you're not prepared to do now because of how your school operates? 17. What do you think the university can learn from your experiences?
Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline 6*	Beware of false analogies: Fight the competition, not each other.
Interview questions	18. Is your daily pedagogical practice informed by individual or shared knowledge? Why do you say that? 19. To what extent did your teacher preparation lead you to shared knowledge and networks with other teachers and other people in the profession? 20. Think of some of the learning management strategies that you learned about during the BLM, such as the Dimensions of Learning. To what extent do you now discuss these with your colleagues?
Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline 7*	Measure what matters and what can help turn knowledge into action.
Interview questions	21. During the BLM, what messages did you get about what the key measures of a teacher are? 22. Were these measures applied to you as you trained to be a teacher during the BLM? 23. Now that you're teaching, what do you think are the key measures of you as a teacher in this school? 24. How is your capability as a teacher measured in this school?
Pfeffer & Sutton *Guideline 8*	What leaders do, how they spend their time and how they allocate resources, matters.
Interview questions	25. As a classroom teacher, how do you access the resources and support that you need in your daily teaching? 26. What are the practices of the leadership team in your school that have an impact on your work?

Appendix F

Focus group interview schedule

CQU HREC clearance number: H06/06-108

The Translation of Theory into Practice in an Innovative Pre-service Teacher Education Program

Focus Group Interview Schedule

Interviewer: _____

Date: _____

Place: _____

Focus group No.: _____

Focus group participants

Name	Age	Gender	School	Teaching grade

Focus group starting time: _____

Focus group finishing time: _____

Focus group duration: _____

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this focus group.

I would again like to ask you all some questions relating to the BLM and your school experience so far.

There are ten questions. Please feel free to give as much detail as you wish in your answers. If you are unclear about the meaning of any question, please ask for clarification.

Please respond to the following questions and, where possible, provide some examples.

Focus group questions

1. When you went on portal tasks and internship, did you put into practice strategies that you had learned or were learning on campus? Can you provide some examples?

2. When you went on portal tasks and internship, did you use Dimensions of Learning and the Eight Learning Management Questions?

3. During portal tasks and internship, did you use strategies from the BLM to help you build networks and partnerships? If so, can you provide an example?

4. I'd like you to consider some of what we could term "practical" subjects that you did during the BLM. Any subjects come to mind?

5. During the portal tasks and internship, did you get to use what you were learning in these practical subjects?

6. Can you give me an idea of some of the reasons/constraints that might have prevented you from putting into practice what you were learning on campus during your portal tasks and internship?

7. Recently, you would have applied for full teacher registration with the Queensland College of Teachers. How do you believe your principal knew how you were doing as a teacher?

8. Can you give me some examples of how you are supported in your work by the leadership team in the school?

9. During the years that you were at university, you obviously learned a number of strategies and learned about different learning frameworks and strategies, etc. How regularly do you find you refer back to those things that you learned? What prevents you from doing so, do you think?

10. Finally, my research is about teacher education and whether what is taught at uni is subsequently used in teachers' practice. What are your thoughts about how successfully/unsuccessfully the BLM achieved this?

Appendix G

Examples of memos

Memo: Resources (December 03, 2006)

Resources seem to be a key concern. Participants refer to:

- Human resources: the people they access to find out how things work in the school; other teachers for advice about planning and teaching strategies
- Physical resources: the "cupboard" of the teacher next door; the need to build up more resources.

This is an issue that arises once participants enter the new school. An apparent emulation of the knowledge and resources of the seasoned practitioner. Not surprising in itself but it seems to imply a devaluing of their own knowledge and understanding as learning managers.

Memo: Number of codes (December 07, 2006)

After initial coding, I have developed 68 codes. There are some "double-ups" which I need to condense. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that a dozen or so up to 50-60 codes is acceptable. In total, I have 108 000 words across the transcripts so wonder if developing such a large number of codes is inevitable. As I begin to categorise the codes, I will no doubt be able to determine whether this number of codes is "workable."

Memo: Behaviour management (December 11, 2006)

Participants refer frequently to the issue of behaviour management. A few observations at this stage in analysis are that:

- Although none of the interview questions is about b/m, a number of participants mention it and their concern about their lack of preparedness in this area. (Need to explore this further.)
- They often confuse classroom management with b/m. When I asked broader questions about life in the classroom, they often gave responses about their in/ability to "control the class."
- They sometimes use interesting language when talking about b/m. Some self-correction, for example, Earl said, "you have to get that control, I mean, that sense of discipline in the class."

Appendix H

Alignment of codes, categories and themes