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CREATING WAVES: TOWARDS AN EDUCOLOGICAL PARADIGM OF TEACHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

In this paper it is argued that teacher education has already gone through two major stages (or 'waves') in its development, and is perhaps about to embark on a third. The first part presents a broad history of various models in terms of three major variables: where pre-service learning is located, how the study of education is constituted, and who controls accreditation. It is suggested that Australia is likely to return to an earlier model of teacher education unless teacher educators themselves produce a better way in which to meet current criticisms. A new 'educological' model is proposed which involves a wider definition of the professional teacher, a pre- and in- service concentration of the development of professional judgement, and a radical reconstruction of educational knowledge.

Introduction: Current Constraints

Many people, particularly teachers, administrators, and government, now believe that current teacher education programs are an inadequate preparation for teaching, mainly because the wrong things are being taught by the wrong people and in the wrong setting. On the whole, teacher educators acknowledge that there are problems in teacher education, but believe that the major problem is not with the form and content of the programs, rather that it is the lack of time: the single year of specifically education studies that is available in most programs is totally inadequate both to introduce students to all the academic knowledge about teaching that they need to know, and also to give them sufficient practice to enable them to enter the workforce upon graduation as immediately effective and competent practitioners. Some, like myself, believe both groups are right, and that we not only need more time to prepare teachers, but we do also need to teach beginning teachers different things, and we need to teach them in a very different way.

I see two reasons for this: first, teaching itself is now very different to what it was when a teaching qualification was first introduced. Not only are there a great many new expectations of teachers with regard to their actual teaching (make learning

relevant to pupils, assist personal development, individualise teaching, use affirmative action with disadvantaged minority pupils, and so on), but there are also many other things teachers are expected to do in the school in general (such as involve the community, develop curricula to suit particular needs, take responsibility for pastoral care or work-experience programs). As a result, student teachers to-day have a great deal more to learn about teaching before they are competent teachers, and the knowledge base will continue to increase for the foreseeable future. And as the nature of teaching has changed, so also the kinds and amount of our knowledge about teaching have changed and vastly increased. So the second major reason for change in teacher preparation is that we simply no longer have the time necessary to teach to undergraduates what they need to know about teaching.

1951	320
1961	920
1971	980
1981	1150

Table 1: Number of New Books Published in Education In a Given Year

One doesn't have to look far for evidence of this. Table 1 shows the number of new books published in English in a single year specifically in Education; one can easily extrapolate for the intervening years. There is simply a great deal more knowledge around than there was when the one-year Dip. Ed. was initiated. The knowledge explosion is not unique to education, of course, but the way it has been ignored, is. Table 2 shows how another disciplinary area has dealt with a similar increase in knowledge: everyone recognises that no one can read all the new fields that have grown out of what used to be English, so they have divided it up into a whole new set of different degree programs of which an undergraduate will take but one.

Original Discipline	Modern Programs	
ENGLISH LITERATURE	Communication Studies	Culture
		Language
		Media
	English and Comp. Lit	
	Theatre and Drama	
Lit. and Communication		
Journalism		

Table 2: Murdoch Subdivision of Undergraduate Degrees in 'English Literature' 1992

In contrast, education at the undergraduate level is still treated as a single field, and it still has the same amount of time allocated to it that it had in 1950. Isn't it time the expectation that teachers can be prepared with one year of educational studies was seen for the farce that it is? People who complain that newly graduated teachers are not well prepared for teaching should recognise that it's not that we couldn't prepare them better within our current system, but that we aren't allowed to.

Universities have not been listened to by the Commonwealth about this matter, so they have done the best they can within this wholly unreasonable time constraint, though not without cost to their programs: it has meant continually paring content down further, and increasing the number of courses studied in the Dip.Ed. year. For instance, at present a full time university student is expected to devote about 1040 hours to study per year. At Murdoch, our Dip. Ed. students not only already spend 1170 hours per year in academic courses on campus (a 10% overload), but they also have an extra 420 hours in schools. Taken together, this gives them a 50% overload, in spite of which we teach less than the bare minimum that a competent beginning teacher needs to know. Primary school teachers do not have a full course in the teaching of reading, and they get but a single lecture on literature for beginning readers; secondary school teachers have nothing on language as such, let alone on the impact and use of media. Clearly it is not possible to simply further increase the length or intensity of the existing courses within the single year. So the problem of the shortage of time is relatively easy to deal with - more is necessary.

Unfortunately, there is no such simple answer to the question of the content of undergraduate teacher education programs: just how much of what should be taught, by whom, and where, is a less visible but a greater and more fundamental

crisis. One way of facing a crisis is to examine what has brought it on; here it might therefore be useful to step back from the immediate threats for a moment in order to consider the big picture of our past. Teacher education could be seen to have already grown through two stages (or 'waves', as I shall call them) and now be on the threshold of a third, though whether a third wave will be created and allowed to run its course or not is very uncertain. It is uncertain not so much because teacher educators do not know how to cope with the proposed changes, but because they do not have their own agenda for change. Because teacher educators have ignored (or dismissed as uninformed) the many criticisms of their work that have come from teachers and Ministries alike, teacher educators have had very little input into the nature of the changes which are now being forced upon them by the initiatives of the Government via the DEET (Department of Employment, Education and Training) bureaucracy. Through the combination of a lack of response and vision, teacher educators have lost control of the change agenda for their own profession.²

A very short history of teacher education

1. The First Wave

The Apprenticeship Model

Table 3 is an attempt to summarise in a visual mode what I see as the major changes in trend that have occurred in teacher education since the early days of universal compulsory elementary schooling. The first stage was a straight apprenticeship model in which teachers learned teaching in schools by teaching at reduced rates of pay under the supervision of more experienced teachers, being accredited when deemed competent by the school inspectorate. Many teachers were allowed to dispense with the formal apprenticeship altogether: they simply entered the profession on full pay without preparation or certification, achieving permanency rather than qualification. So highly regarded are teaching and teacher

education that some teachers still manage to enter the profession into private schools along that route today. However, that process could hardly be called a model of preparation for new teachers, so I have not included it on the table.

Key Variables	Location of Learning		Content of Education Studies		Accreditation
	University Departments	Teacher Training College	Prim. & Sec. Schools	Information about school teaching practices	
Models of Teacher Education					
1880 Apprenticeship Model			■	■	■
1990 Apprenticeship Model (Britain)		■	■	■	■
Tertiary Institution Models	Teachers' College	■	■	■	■
	University Faculty	■	■	■	■
	Unified	■	■	■	■
Third Wave Models		■	■	■	■

Table 3: The Three Waves of Teacher Education 1850 - 1992

2. The Second Wave

The University Model

The second wave came when a professional preparation was offered outside schools by tertiary institutions who took control of the certification process. It evolved from two separate institutional sources, the schools and the universities. They produced two very different approaches which varied most in their construction of education as a field of study. The universities developed a strongly academic approach in which the study of education meant studying how the existing university disciplines could be applied to schooling. University departments mainly taught aspects of the *foundational disciplines*³ as a one-year post-graduate Dip.Ed. during which the student teachers spent one school term in schools at the most, the rest of their four year preparation being entirely within the university. In that sense, the universities retained the idea that the professional skills of teaching were best learned in the job; their responsibility was to produce liberally-educated and right-minded individuals who could and would not only learn the routines of teaching by teaching during their first year of employment, but

would use their sense of vocation, their general academic ability and liberal knowledge base to inform and produce their own best practices. Thus, although they were fully qualified teachers on completion of the Dip.Ed. in the sense that they were not required to complete further formal training, they were sometimes initially incompetent in the schools for the first year or so with regard to some practices, and they had to pass the employer's hurdle of permanency.

The College Model

In contrast, the teachers' colleges taught a 3-year certificate in which the educational studies component consisted principally of information about schools' *requirements of practice*. The source of the college model, indeed, the genesis of the colleges themselves, was the idea that good teaching was a set of good practices which could be reproduced by following established routines. It was obviously important to expose student teachers to best practices, but because practices were performed by individual teachers, some schools and some teachers were better than others; it therefore made sense to concentrate expert practitioners in specialist institutions. Thus the teacher training colleges were established and run by the employing authorities (governments and religious groups), who staffed them with some of their best teachers, often on secondment. These colleges often had their own 'demonstration schools' in which best practices could be modelled. So, although gestures toward the established university disciplines were made, the content of educational studies in the teacher training colleges was primarily information about practice - the learning 'how to do' of it. When students had completed this training, they were fully qualified teachers, not just in the certificated sense, but in terms of the competency of their performance: without further learning they could immediately begin successful teaching.

The Unified Model

Just as the first wave approach continues to-day, even before the formal abolition of the binary divide there was a gradual coming together of the two tertiary models of teacher education. Universities began to provide 'methods' courses, and resourced longer periods and better supervision of school experience; they also began to offer Primary school teacher education. Brian Hill's design of the programs for the Murdoch University School of Education provided a best practice paradigm for these initiatives. Meanwhile, the colleges were strengthening their academic side with increased offerings in the ' - of education

subjects' which meant that students spent more time on campus being taught by highly qualified academic staff more interested in disciplinary research, and with the award of degrees instead of teaching certificates. However, in the Second Wave the old and yet to be resolved struggle between the 'relevant disciplines' and 'requirements of practice' constructions of educational studies, was (and is) still played out, though more between departments within faculties rather than between institutions.

Unresolved Problems

There were, of course, problems with both the second wave college and university models, some of which, because of their histories, have been exacerbated in the unified system. In universities it was those who were busily developing the new 'scientific' disciplines of psychology and sociology, and others in already established relevant humanities disciplines such as philosophy and history, who applied their academic interests to the burgeoning universal education system to construct disciplinary rather than practical knowledge about schools, children, curriculum, school learning, and so on, but as objects of study. These interests produced the -of education subjects, which, though more obviously related to the practices of teaching than the original related disciplines, do not actually offer a foundation for teaching, partly because much of the knowledge generated is a response to the concerns of the original disciplines rather than those of teachers (Tripp, 1990). This was not a real concern to universities, however - it didn't much matter that actual teaching practices weren't founded on those so-called foundational disciplines because the aim was simply to prepare people to learn how to practice in and from schools, which most did, after a difficult first year, becoming highly competent practical teachers. In so doing they demonstrated the dispensability of much of the practical competency skilling that went on in the colleges.

The college model also appeared to work well, so long as teaching practices and what was expected of teachers didn't change much. When everyone knew what constituted good practice, and the set of routine competencies which needed to be followed to reproduce it were well established, it didn't much matter that the teachers who were coming out of the college system were not highly academically trained, nor that they knew very little about the historical and philosophical and theoretical considerations underpinning the rationales for the competencies they learned. They were required to reproduce established practices, not to continually learn new ones, or to critique,

improve upon or re-design the practices themselves, though many have gone on to do just those things, in so doing demonstrating the irrelevance of much of the university disciplines to teaching.

So, at the risk of further oversimplification, one could characterise the university model as producing beginning teachers who had a broad understanding of some of the disciplines related to education; the college model as producing beginning teachers who had sets of best practice lesson notes. Although neither were adequate, each produced people with different but equally essential skills for and attitudes towards teaching. One of the tragedies of the college model was that, whereas products of the university system were required to acquire the necessary practical skills whilst working in the job, the college students were never expected or given the opportunity to become liberally educated persons as a part of their job, though many did manage it through part-time university education on top of their teaching commitments. The unified system has always been something of an impossible dream because it aims to equip every new graduate with the best of both worlds; it is a dream because both have to be done within the time it took to do either one or the other approach in the old binary system. The reality is that it has done neither well, nor has it resolved the fundamental problem of the construction of educational studies. Together these problems have brought about the current crisis.

3. Future Models

Assuming then that the present unified tertiary model is marked for radical change by a disenchanted teaching profession, unions shifting attention from purely industrial matters towards professional issues, a government intent on quality control and fiscal savings, and some teacher educators, the choice appears to be between returning to a new variation of the first and second wave models (with all that such a course implies for the deprofessionalisation of both teaching and teacher education), or to make some kind of a radical departure to create some new third wave models. The second course implies some kind of a reconceptualisation and unification of the study of education in order to overcome the contradictions in the unified model and so to enable the reversal or redirection of the trends that have brought us to crisis point-to-day. So let us now examine those two options, the latter in some detail.

The Current DEET Initiative

It is difficult to know precisely what those in government and the policy forming departments of DEET see as the problems with the current teacher education programs because they have not actually defined them in any detail. Instead we have some solutions in the form of a commitment to maintain and enhance the following seven aspects of teacher education:

- a wide diversity of high quality teacher education courses between universities;
- partnerships between schools and universities which strengthen teacher education programs;
- the integration of pedagogy, research and discipline knowledge with teaching practice;
- a knowledge base which ensures that Australian teachers are given a strong grounding in their subjects and are exposed to recent developments in the relevant disciplines;
- flexibility within teacher education programs to facilitate appropriate shifts in the mix of theoretical and practical education;
- closer links between universities and teachers and trainers in their catchment areas, thereby encouraging the development of teacher education courses which are relevant and responsive to their professional needs and career development; and
- recognition by universities of teacher employer needs and the most appropriate ways to respond to them. (Beazley, 1993: 9)

These are all aspects that most teacher educators would endorse in principal, and in fact many are already developing all these in their work. The serious disagreements are arising over how best to implement and achieve them. As is so often the case, such a list of desiderata incorporates elements of a number of different views of teacher education. So as an overall policy it reflects the kind of pluralistic thinking that offers a framework within which considerable innovation and development could take place. DEET's current idea of competency-based learning in schools is but one approach. This paper suggests another which is different but would incorporate aspects of the competency approach. Certainly, both approaches assume that teachers could and should be better prepared for teaching.

However, it is a measure of the way in which academics are regarded by Government that university teacher education was not represented by a single appointment to the governing board of the National Project on the Quality of Teaching and Learning (NPQTL) that is examining the whole system. Academics are likely to be further excluded from the policy process because DEET seems set to move straight to the initiation of a set of changes that are, presumably, designed to overcome specific problems they do see but which they haven't yet laid out. One therefore has to deduce DEET's view of the nature of good teaching (and thereby good teacher education) by working backwards from the proposed changes (such as a competency-based approach to teacher education) to the problems that these changes might mitigate. That is what I attempt to do here, though the process makes it is necessarily rather speculative.

Beginning with DEET's view of what teacher education is about, the ideas of increased in-school preparation with greater involvement of practising teachers, and an accreditation system based upon a set of pre-specified competencies, could open the way for a new apprenticeship approach similar to the old college model, in spite of a formal rejection of the idea (Beazley, 1993: 8). Certainly the earlier discussion paper suggested that DEET espoused the view common to all the first and second wave models that the actual process of teaching is a practical rather than an intellectual endeavour which consists of a set of skills (such as programming and classroom management), about which there is little coherent relevant academic knowledge that should be extensively taught in universities. Whilst those holding this view recognise that all teachers do require sound academic skills, these are seen as required mainly for the subject matter that they teach, and as being acquired by student teachers in their first degree studies. Though intelligence and a thorough grasp of subject matter provide a useful background to practice (and are good reasons for making it an all-degree profession), the essential characteristic of the view is that the practice of teaching itself is not itself an intellectual discipline, though some ideas of the related disciplines (such as the stages of child development and the sociology of peer group relations) would be useful if meaningfully related to practice.

This view of teaching obviously leads to the criticisms that the unified tertiary model of teacher education does not deliver the goods and is unnecessarily expensive. Current teacher education programs do not deliver the goods because they do not produce fully competent practitioners upon graduation, but people who

require further experience and induction programs to learn what they've not been taught in university. It is expensive to employ highly paid academics to teach things that are either largely irrelevant to practice (such as history or statistics) or which are relevant (such as how to teach reading) and which could therefore be better learned in the actual job situation. The best way of re-organising initial teacher education to bring it more into line with this view is therefore to relocate much of the learning from the universities back into schools where one can use practising teachers as much cheaper mentors, and to form an independent certificating authority drawn principally from union and employer groups that will determine exactly what a student has to be able to do to be considered a competent teacher.

Teacher Educators' Response

Unfortunately, most of those in university teacher education faculties seem to oppose DEET's moves towards both increasing the practical content of pre-service teacher education and the in-service competency-based learning and monitoring of teaching and learning standards. Although there are some very good reasons to be wary, some aspects would be improved by elements of both these initiatives. For instance, it does make sense to believe that the requirements of practice are best learned through practice, for which reason I also think that both the original college and university construction of educational knowledge are now anachronistic and somewhat irrelevant to a professional preparation. But one can give greater priority to that element of the apprenticeship model in many different ways of which the competency approach is but one. Another way to improve practice is to shift from using schools as a place to put into practice what's learned in universities to using universities as a way of understanding and improving what one does in schools. Personally I would look forward to school-based teacher education if it facilitated increased and more meaningful collaboration between student teachers, academics, practising teachers, and employers. I would also like to see responsibility for the accreditation of teachers shared with other interested parties.

However, except for agreement about the lengthening of the pre-service teacher preparation programs, almost all of what I have heard from universities thus far is opposition. I think this is because the universities have not thought out the problems and possibilities of their position any better than DEET has its current initiatives. The principal arguments against the proposed changes I have heard seem to be variations of, (a) "We don't

like it;" (b) "It'll be a disaster;" and (c) "You don't know what you're talking about!" If anything, these will lend impetus to the kind changes that are being implemented in Britain right now. There the government appears to be moving towards a straightforward new apprenticeship model in which the universities' role is limited mainly to the provision of classroom mentors and a general background to teaching drawn from what are deemed to be certain relevant disciplines. That is not the kind of approach Beazley intends for Australia (1993: 8), but we have to face the fact that there are enough problems with current approaches to make such changes seem a plausible and worthwhile strategy.

DEET's response appears to a competency-based approach, and although the learning of specific competencies is, and always has been, essential, I do not believe it can take us far enough. What we really need is a broader 'third wave' model for teacher education that will both address the valid criticisms of DEET and other sections of the teaching profession, and will move us forward towards new possibilities for the reformation of the teaching profession as a whole. I would argue that the development of a third wave will depend upon how teaching is viewed by the profession itself, by government, the universities, business and the community as a whole, and that will depend upon how we reconstruct the study of teaching. Some ideas about that issue constitute the remainder of this paper.

4. Possibilities for a Third Wave of Teacher Education

As with any process, it is necessary to specify exactly what can be considered an effective outcome. Clearly the outcome of an initial teacher education program is professionally competent newly qualified teachers, but what does that mean? In the remainder of this paper I want to attempt an answer, and to do so by dealing very briefly with three aspects essential to such a specification: (a) What are the qualities of a professionally qualified teacher? (b) What are they able to do upon graduation? (c) What is the nature of their professional knowledge? I want to provide just one answer each of these questions, though there must be many more, to give an idea of the kinds of possibility that are opened up by moving our thinking on from where we are. The answers I suggest to those three questions are (a) a broad set of personal-professional qualities⁴ as well as specific competencies, (b) a diagnostic approach to professional judgement in teaching, and (c) the development of educology. I will deal with them in that order.

Essential Teacher Qualities

Unfortunately it is not at all clear from the literature exactly what the defining characteristics of a good teacher are. In the absence of this specification, and in the wake of the Finn and Myer reports, DEET decided to concentrate upon what it is that good teachers need to be able to do, and hence it embarked on a program to specify teaching in terms of the practical competencies necessary to good teaching. That is an important aspect, and, in spite of the difficulties associated with the enterprise (Education Links, 1993, Collins, 1993), one which should have been done long ago. It is an important starting point in that, if one is not basically competent in the practical aspects of teaching, other features of professional expertise cannot be developed. But it is only a starting point. Teaching is such an 'indeterminate activity' (Pratte, 1986) that the success of much of what one does depends more upon professional judgement than upon the performance of certain prescribed behaviours. Professional judgement cannot be

reduced to specified competencies because in teaching the outcome of a particular behaviour depends on a very complex and often unknowable set of circumstances that cannot be covered by a set of 'range statements', without which a competency is meaningless. As the quality of professional judgement depends a great deal upon personal qualities such as the knowledge, values and experiences of the judge, any prescription for a competent teacher must be specified in terms which are wider than merely what actions they should be able to perform - it must specify the characteristics of a teacher in terms of who they are and what they have to draw on, as well as what they can do. The interdependency of these two aspects cannot be ignored.

Hill (1974) is one of the few teacher educators to have attempted to encapsulate a specification for a professional educator, and it is on his work that I based the following. A good teacher is one who has all of the following characteristics:

	12 Characteristics of a good professional teacher (A good professional teacher is one who . . .)	Area of Professional Expertise
(1)	is academically well educated in their teaching subjects; and	(First Degree Studies)
(2)	is liberally educated in other relevant arts and sciences;	
(3)	is well educated in the general sense of being knowledgeable about Australian and other cultures (their language, institutions, activities, values, controversies, disputes, history, minorities, strengths and weaknesses, and so on);	1 Cultural Literacy
(4)	is well educated in the profession - specific sense of being knowledgeable about learners and their culture (development, interests, world view, fears, abilities, hopes, relationships, values, and so on);	2 Learner Studies
(5)	is a 'safe' person for children to be with (namely, patient and understanding, never negative, cynical or abusive in their behaviour, communication, judgements or relations);	3 Personal - Professional Interaction
(6)	is a positively good influence on children (meaning that they are helpful to children, assist in the development of their esteem, emotions, selfhood, sexuality, values, relations, and so on, and are fun to be with);	
(7)	has specific practical professional competencies (such as management, communication, and curriculum planning and evaluation skills);	4 Manag't of teaching
(8)	is able to decisively make successful professional (practical) judgements while teaching, and	Personal-5 Professional Judgement
(9)	is able to understand and account for those judgements (to describe, explain, critique, evaluate, and justify them);	
(10)	practises a variety of different approaches (such as diagnostic teaching, student-centred, and teacher-centred learning);	6 Approaches to Teaching-Learning
(11)	develops and regularly subjects to critique professional characteristics (such as a code of ethics, keeping abreast of developments, serving the clients' best interests, and so on);	7 Critical Professional Development
(12)	develops and regularly subjects to critique humane characteristics (such as valuing pupils, a sense of social justice, and so on).	

As that specification shows, the difference between a merely technically competent teacher and a professional educator is that the latter is one who not only has a great deal of profession-specific knowledge to draw on, but who also has developed and maintains an informed and critical stance towards themselves, their work and society. The key to that kind of professionalism is expert judgement because, although all good teachers use good techniques and routines, competent use of approved techniques and routines alone does not produce good teaching. The real art of teaching lies in teachers' professional judgement. Practitioners of the major professions are valued for their ability to act in situations where a lack of knowledge (there not being a 'the right answer') demands that they make a sound judgement. Professionals are highly flexible and creative, frequently developing their own techniques and change routines to suit a situation; they make 'expert guesses' through reflection rather than the simple recall of prescribed answers; they use their judgement to choose a most likely 'best possibility' from a number of good ones, and they continually monitor their own professional performance. These abilities are not easily developed, but they are achieved through experience with what are variously called interpretive, reflective or diagnostic approaches to teaching⁵ which are also productive of student centred learning. The essential characteristic common to all these approaches is that they are ways in which teachers use their own examination of their own practice to develop their professional judgement. Needless to say, this requires considerable academic ability, a great deal of knowledge that is specific to teaching, and a life-long commitment to practising it.

The general picture to emerge, however, is that the first and second waves of teacher education really only prepared teachers in (1) and (7), and only partially in those aspects, depending on what model was used. I would argue that all the qualities I have listed are essential to professional teaching, and that we should therefore immediately take steps to ensure that teachers do possess them. It may well be expensive and take half a century, but the question is whether, for the general good of our society, we can afford not to embark upon such a program.

Professional Judgement

The purpose of a competency-based approach to work is to ensure certain outcomes: if a practitioner can and does perform certain actions, then certain effects will ensue. But I do not think that teaching can be reduced to a narrow set of identifiable competencies for two reasons: (a) because the

outcomes of any action in teaching are always multiple, one produces a whole package of outcomes, and often has to decide what to do on the basis of a judgement of the mix of desired and undesired consequences; (b) because of some aspects of the previous point (a), it is impossible to accurately define their range: as we shall see, the effects of teacher behaviour which could be encapsulated as a competency such as, "Deals effectively with disruptive pupil behaviour," can be beneficial for a group but have devastating effect on a particular pupil; in such a case, judgement is necessary. If reproducing a stated competency does not guarantee a desired outcome, one should seriously question the adequacy of the competency statement.

This is not to say that a competency approach to teaching is necessarily invalid. Rather it means that one should pay separate attention to (a) whether one can do something and (b) whether it's the right thing to do. The former are more easily reduced to competency specifications. Many of the competencies associated with teacher qualities (4), (5), (7) and (10) above, for instance, are already clearly identified in the literature. There are also competencies associated with what's a good thing to do because professional judgement involves some specifiable competencies, though they are of a different order, having to do with how one thinks about what one ought to do, rather than what one actually does. But such competencies can still provide only a partial specification for professional judgement, because what one is thinking about will determine the outcome of one's thinking processes. The kind of knowledge one has is therefore the key to professional judgement and as such it is essential to any reformation of teacher education, so I will return to it later. Meanwhile, let me further examine and illustrate the difference between a competency and professional judgement.

In teaching, few decisions are simple matters in which the teacher can identify a situation and recall and apply 'the' correct course of action. And as in law and medicine, the judgements teachers have to make concern the well-being of their pupils, and so they are not merely practical or epistemological, but also ethical decisions (Lyons, 1990). Contrary to law and medicine, however, teaching judgements cannot be made on a purely individual basis: every dealing a teacher has with one pupil will affect the other pupils in the class in one way or another, which vastly increases the complexity and stress of the situation. The following incident (taken from Tripp, 1993a) is about just such a situation: when a pupil misbehaves and one decides how to extinguish the behaviour, one may also be deciding who should benefit and who

should suffer and in what ways. Because it was such a dramatic incident there was no difficulty in recognising the problems with the outcome. Although the teacher was not diagnosing the matter, she was thinking in a reflective fashion that involved judging the effects of her action and weighing up (future) alternative strategies. This process is typical of reflective judgements.

Spitting

A secondary science teacher in one of my groups told us how, when she asked a class to line up outside the laboratory before a lesson, one boy at the front of the line, a notorious trouble maker, spat 'a great gob of slime' at her feet. "If you want to clear your throat" she said, "it is usual to use a hanky." Everyone laughed. "OK. In you go", she said, and they all filed in. The boy who spat then spent the whole lesson writing over and over again in his science book, "I hate (name of the) school". The teacher ignored him, quite pleased that he was keeping to himself and not needing further discipline. During recess, however, he was involved in a serious fight, and had to be suspended from the school. The teacher then felt she was partly responsible. On the one hand she felt she had quietly and effectively controlled the boy in a way that only capable and experienced teachers are so effortlessly able to do, but on the other she felt that the effect of her having done so had led the boy to seek some other outlet for his fury. (Tripp, Critical Incident File, 1988.)

The teacher was not happy with how she had handled her client's well-being; what really bothered her (and which her reflective skills had led her to articulate) was whether she should have accepted the boy's challenge, thus in one way dealing with him much less competently with regard to her discipline, but meeting at not inconsiderable personal expense his personal need to be seen as an effective troublemaker. As she put it,

*If I'd said to him, 'How dare you spit at me? Stand outside until I can take you straight to the deputy principal', would he still be at the school? And if he were, how would I deal with him next time, how would the others' learning suffer from the constant interruptions, and might others follow his lead more easily?*⁶

It is the nature of teaching that one has to act instantly and ask such questions afterwards, which is why practical judgements (the instant and technical kind) are so important. It is also the nature of teaching that there are no correct answers to such questions – they are always matters of

professional judgement. A (necessarily subsequent) professional analysis of the incident can achieve two purposes: first, it demonstrates the complex, stressful and problematic nature of teaching (which is a vital first step towards public recognition of the professionalism required). And second, it provides the teacher with a better understanding of the 'how' and 'why' of what happened. This does not just help her to deal with the reverberations of this incident, but it further develops her professional knowledge and experience (thereby increasing her control over her professional practice), and it facilitates any moral deliberation that should occur (because that depends upon a sound diagnosis of what actually happened). The competencies required to produce an analysis (and so too a sound professional judgement) are more discursive and overtly 'academic' (diagnostic) than merely reflective.

So what did happen? First, it was clear that the teacher had in fact administered a massive put-down to the boy when he spat. Spitting is perhaps the most abusive form of challenge the boy could offer her, but she had simply pretended to read the action publicly as evidence of the unmannerly and ignorant qualities of the challenger. Spitting must always be dealt with because it is never tolerated; but coughing, sneezing, throat-clearing and even flatulence often pass entirely unremarked, or they occasionally merit a mild and often humorous desist. In reading so aberrantly the boy's spitting as a throat-clearing, the teacher was stating that she could not accept that the boy spat at her because there was no way in which he could seriously challenge her. Denying that he spat denied his ability to challenge her. The boy, expecting to be dealt with for spitting at a teacher, was too taken aback to respond. Capitalising on the laughter to move the class into the laboratory and thus terminating the exchange, the teacher then took away any opportunity the boy might have had to mount another challenge.

In one sense, the teacher had thus very adroitly dealt with the challenge, not by ignoring it, but by pretending there was no challenge. In the most immediate and practical terms, this was done as a 'competent' professional action, but it produced serious problems with regard to the well-being of the pupil concerned.

In my analysis⁷ she had downgraded the boy in at least four important aspects of his self-esteem. First, she had proved him to be so socially backward that he had not yet learned the basic manners of how people managed their bodily fluids in public; second and consequently, she had shown him to be so low in status that when he

issued a challenge it would not be recognised as such; third, he had failed to make trouble for the teacher, but instead brought it upon himself, so he was not even successful in ways that he and everyone else always expected him to be. Finally, for a black, authority defeating, chauvinistic young male, all this had been quickly and effortlessly done to him by a white, middle-aged, middle-class woman.

This teacher was operating at a level of professional concern that is well beyond the purely practical. She observed the effects of her actions and questioned her judgement and habitual practice. It was not simply a matter of registering the fact that her action had upset the boy, but of reflecting upon the priorities she had assigned in the incident, and, in a more general sense, the professional values she had espoused and which therefore led her to do certain things in particular ways. Two main points emerge from this incident, then: (a) it is an example of professional judgement in which the competencies were not so much practical but reflective and diagnostic. And (b) that though the teacher recognised and reflected upon her action, she did not have the academic knowledge or expertise necessary to diagnose it in the way or in the depth I did. So the question is, Was she a competent professional without being able to do those things? A look back at the ideal qualities of a professional teacher shows that *in this incident* she was competent in terms of (7) and (8), but she appeared not to use some competencies associated with qualities (4), (5), (6) and (9). As usual, therefore, a straight yes/no answer is not appropriate, particularly as teaching presents a continuous stream of such dilemmas in which whatever one does there will be negative as well as positive effects, and one will always wonder if one did 'the right thing'.

Clearly I have only just touched upon this notion of professional judgement, but to sum up this section I offer without further comment⁸ four kinds of professional judgement:

- 1 **Practical judgement:** practical teaching decisions; conduct and craft knowledge learned through experience;
- 2 **Diagnostic judgement:** use of profession-specific knowledge and expertise to recognise, describe, understand and explain practical judgements and the values implicit and espoused in them;
- 3 **Reflective judgement:** personal evaluation of the success of judgements made in practical

teaching decisions and approval of the values in them;

4 **Critical judgement:** the critique of judgements and values revealed by reflection from a view of benefits for learners and increased social justice.

Clearly one could not expect any beginning teacher to be equally expert in all these kinds of judgement at graduation: all the evidence is that practical judgement can only be build up through experience, for instance, so there we should expect only the most minimal competence necessary to learn through experience. On the other hand, diagnostic and reflective judgements are precisely what one could learn most effectively in a tertiary institution. But the main point is that personal and professional competencies and values come together in all of these kinds of judgement, and it is what they are, how they interact, and how they may best be learned, that initial teacher programs must therefore know and teach⁹

Developing Educology¹⁰

There is no doubt that what a teacher needs to know and be able to do to-day is very different from even the recent past, and will continue to change with increasing rapidity. For instance, Hill and Hill (1990:3) suggest that, 'Teaching the skills of collaborative learning, group management and organisation will become more important than instruction and imparting knowledge,' as we begin to take the social dimension of learning seriously. Such views are but one dimension of the greater issue: what should count as important knowledge about teaching. In spite of pioneering work such as Lee Schulman's *Knowledge Base for Beginning Teachers*, this fundamental issue has not been yet been adequately addressed. As I have recently written elsewhere about the problems with the construction of knowledge in teacher education (Tripp, 1993b), I want to do no more here than gesture at the broad outlines of an idea. First, I believe that we must develop education into a discipline *per se* (perhaps called 'educology') which is not just clearly and exclusively focussed on the study of education, but which studies teaching and learning from practitioners' viewpoints. Whilst one recognises that the '... of education' subjects have developed quite distinct lives of their own in recent years and produced a huge and ever growing amount of knowledge, much of that knowledge still belongs in, and is only used by, those working in the original 'parental' disciplines; it is peripheral, if not entirely irrelevant, to educational practitioners. Development of knowledge specifically about teaching tends to have been produced under the heading,

'curriculum', which has caused other problems. The difficulty with the present situation is to sort out what of the '... of education' fields properly belongs to educology from that which belongs in the realms of other disciplines. I think we are getting to the position where we could now begin to do that.

Again, a brief contrast of past with possible practice. In the second wave models, the rhetoric was that the knowledge of the related disciplines was applied to practice through the mediation of the '- of education' subjects. The reality was that this didn't often happen, and there were several reasons for this:

1. The academic knowledge developed in faculties of education consisted principally of descriptions of educational structures and children (often things teachers could do nothing about in their classrooms); little theoretical knowledge was about teaching.
2. Educational theory tended to be the related disciplines' 'grand ideas' about the world rather than theories of teaching.
3. Rather than transforming, mediating and applying those theories in the classroom, the '- of education subjects' tended to use teaching as a field of study to illustrate, develop and refine the theories of the parental disciplines.
4. So-called educational theory tended therefore to remain located in the related disciplines where it served the interests of academics rather than teachers.
5. It was teachers who were expected to access the knowledge of the 'P of education' subjects and apply it to improve their practice: very few university academics ever applied anything of their disciplinary knowledge either to their own teaching or to school teaching-learning.

In general and in short, academics working in the '- of education' subjects were not school teachers and did not begin from or develop a classroom teaching perspective; they were practitioners of the 'related disciplines'; they tended to construct their subjects as extracts of the related disciplines; they used teaching-learning situations merely to illustrate their theories; very little application to teaching actually took place.

These processes are summarised in the following diagram.

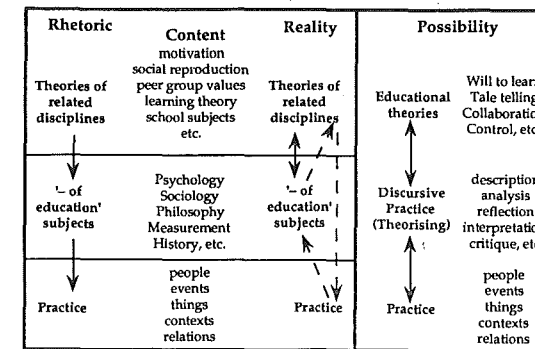


Diagram 1: Changing Constructions of Educational Knowledge

On the far left there is the espoused ideal which appeared more in rhetorical than material form. Next is a brief description of the content of practice at each situation, the teachers' realm being real people, events, things, and so on, that they deal with on a moment by moment basis in their practice. To the right of the content is a representation of what tends to happen in the second wave university teacher education model where teachers are taught the theories of the related disciplines, but attempts to get teachers to apply theories to their work usually fail because they are not taken out of their context in other disciplines, they do not engage teacher's practice. And, being already developed, they fail to develop in teachers the discursive practices necessary to translate from theory in one discipline to practice in another. On the right of the diagram is what I believe to be an emerging educological paradigm¹¹ which works both ways: some theorising is the reverse of the related disciplines approach: it begins with the material practice of classroom teachers and creates theory through involving teachers in the discursive processes of theorising their practice in a collaborative 'grounded theory' approach (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). But it also utilises the theories of the related disciplines, not to apply them to practice through a set of mediating subjects, but to gain new understandings of practice by seeing it in the light of other social and psychological theories. That process should also be transformative of the original theories. In my own research I attempt to use that paradigm, theorising teachers' written accounts of incidents in their teaching-learning experience.

If the major clients of educational knowledge should be practising teachers, then the outstanding characteristic of traditional paradigms of educational research has been the exclusion of their clients from the generation and application of the

educational knowledge they have created. In contrast, the essential characteristic of an educological paradigm is that it includes and serves the needs of teachers by helping them to (a) generate, define and follow their own knowledge interests, and (b) to be continuously active researchers and self-reflective interpreters of their own practice and situation. For academics or outside researchers, working collaboratively means that the teachers' experiences in those roles are research data, so the overall substantive outcomes for the two partners are different rather than simply asymmetrical: teachers' gains are principally in the form of improved practices and understanding of their teaching, and the researcher gains data for more general theories of schooling and teacher's practical knowledge. Collaborative research in the classroom thus takes place between two eclectic professionals who could both be called teacher-researchers: one is a school teacher who researches their own practice, the other is a university academic who researches the work of teachers. But in the partnership they also teach and learn from each other, so the former is also a researcher educator, and the latter is also a teacher educator.

Conclusion

Knowledge about teaching is fundamental to all models of teacher education. What that knowledge is depends upon whose construction it is and what their interests are. Hitherto, there have been two rather different constructions of knowledge serving different purposes: the practical craft knowledge of teachers and the academic disciplinary knowledge of academics. Each has remained largely separate and taken different kinds of power and control in different spheres. As a consequence the schools and the universities have become increasingly separated in terms of both knowledge and practices, producing the present crisis in teacher education.

If a new reformation of teacher education is to occur, then it means bringing these two kinds of knowledge together to construct a third which, as I have argued, should be called TeducologyU. Central to an educological paradigm is that academics work with and for teachers in the construction and utilisation of professional knowledge rather than the other way around. To do that means changing the ways in which teachers and teacher educators work, a change which can be achieved only through changing the power structures of teacher education, because real social change occurs only when power changes hands.

The question facing teacher educators, therefore, is whether they are actively going to begin a reconstruction of their knowledge and associated teaching practices that will produce the kind of new forms of teacher education that will be appropriate to the twenty-first century, or whether they are going to fight a rearguard action as their existing knowledge and knowledge construction practices become progressively irrelevant and marginalised.

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Note

This paper was presented at the ATEA conference, Perth, July 1993. It is an expanded version of some of the ideas originally presented at the retreat of the Murdoch University School of Education, Contacio Hotel, Perth, April, 1993.

End Notes

² I use 'change' agenda deliberately because, although the changes to teacher education are being termed 'reforms' in the current debate, they are in fact a simple variation of past practices which will return teacher education to something like the old college model, if not to the original apprenticeship model. As the current proposals contain no fundamental changes to the nature of the knowledge or teaching practices of teacher education, they are not in any way reformatory; but inasmuch as they propose a huge shift of power and purpose away from the universities, they are seriously radical.

³ The ideological purpose behind the term was so well achieved that no one seemed to notice that the 'foundational disciplines' weren't (and aren't) foundational to teaching. They were invented millennia after teaching had been (and still is) successfully practised in every culture the world over. They are foundational only to a particular way of constructing the study of education. I therefore refer to them as the 'related' disciplines, because aspects of them are relevant in important ways to the study of education; but foundational in any practical sense they are not.

⁴ In a deep sense these are not separable of course. Our 'self' is a reification and who we are is probably best seen as a shifting nexus of (often competing) discourses. When I separate such aspects in this paper it is to draw attention in a readily intelligible fashion to some of the discourses that have hitherto been absent from academic notions of what it is to be a good teacher.

⁵ My thanks here to Sue Willis, who introduced me to this broader notion of diagnostic teaching. For an account of this approach, see Murdoch University course E277, or Tripp 1993a (Chapter 2).

⁶ One might note that this is a practice-based form of theorising very different from the way a

traditional philosopher of education would have dealt with the matter of discipline, perhaps through an analysis of the concept. It is not that the analysis is not 'philosophical', but that in it the teacher stands quite differently in relation to the subject matter of what is usually taught as the philosophy of education. It is that which has profound implications for the development of knowledge in education, and the practice of education as a discipline.

⁷ I stress 'my' because such analyses are always provisional and revisable, and they need to be negotiated and shared with the other participants before any claims of objectivity or validity are made. My analysis is offered as an example of the kind of points that should emerge from the incident as an agenda for reflection and further investigation, not to 'prove' anything in an 'objective' fashion. As Glaser and Strauss (1967) point out, hypotheses do not have to be true to be useful.

⁸ For a detailed explanation, see Tripp, 1993a, Chapter 9.

⁹ The same is that much more true for schemes which purport to evaluate and assess the performance of experienced teachers, particularly for promotion.

¹⁰ Whilst being an essentially applied discipline may be a necessary stage for any new discipline involving professional training to grow through, it seems to have become institutionalised as the end point of the development of the study of education as a discipline in its own right. It is no accident, but symptomatic of this lack of growth, that we still use the term 'education' for what ought to be called 'educology' (Steiner, 1981; Christianson, 1982). That not only causes a great deal of confusion in the lay community, but, even more important, it continues to prevent growth by tacitly maintaining the view that education can only be a field of action, not study. Many universities have recently established courses and departments of 'peace studies' or 'women's studies'; I know of no 'School of Women' or 'Department of Peace' (would that there were!), but I work in what is called 'The School of Education' as if the rest of the university were doing something different.

Incidentally, on similar grounds support for the use of the term educology also comes from other disciplines such as literature and music. The call is for terminology which registers the distinction between the 'literature' or 'music' that are the object phenomena of study, and 'literology' or 'musicology' as the disciplines which study them.

¹¹ I use the term *paradigm* rather than *model* here because I see it as such in the Kuhnian sense in which it is a matter not only developing a different kind of knowledge, but of developing the research canons and institutional power structures necessary to support it. I think the previous approaches have been mere eclectic models for the use of the paradigms of the related disciplines.

IT'S TIME FOR A TOTAL CURRICULUM APPROACH TO PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS: A PERSONAL VIEWPOINT

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ABSTRACT

This article contests the ways in which preservice teacher education programs have been conceptualised, planned and implemented in universities. The article, therefore, is NOT about responding in technocratic ways alone to institutional, practising school, and employer constraints. Rather, it is about conceptualising preservice teacher education programs so that intending graduates work towards becoming reflective practitioners with a commitment to social justice. Such a conceptualisation is considered appropriate given the increasing diversity of learners and learning settings; the increasing complexity of communities and society; the growing possibilities for engaging in truly collaborative approaches to teacher education; and the expanding challenge of fulfilling the multi-faceted role of teachers both now and in the future.

The article contests existing programs using the critical reflection/teacher as reflective practitioner literature as a lens. While certain emphases are conceded as being worthwhile in these programs, they tend to be isolated and undervalued in the contemporary context. These emphases are used as a basis for proposing and elaborating a TOTAL curriculum approach for preservice teacher education programs. The proposal focuses on four guiding principles for this curriculum approach for preservice teacher education programs. These principles (which emerge from the writer's interest in critical reflectivity in preservice teacher education programs) are contextualisation within contemporary societal trends and issues; critical reflection; collaboration or partnerships; and professional development for all persons involved in such programs. The writer concludes that it's time for this sort of TOTAL approach.

This TOTAL approach emerges as a personal view which relates to the writer's recent experiences on professional development leave in Australia, USA, Canada and UK. This, together with his long experience in coordinating and teaching in preservice programs, provide background for contesting existing programs and for proposing a

TOTAL curriculum approach for the ongoing development of preservice teacher education programs in universities.

It is teachers who, in the end, will change the world of the school by understanding it.

(A quotation from Lawrence Stenhouse chosen by some teachers who worked with him as an inscription for the memorial plaque in the grounds of the University of East Anglia).

INTRODUCTION

There have been significant emphases in preservice teacher education programs in recent years. There include the contextualisation of professional practice within contemporary societal trends and issues; critical reflection in and on professional practice; collaboration or partnerships in professional practice; and accompanying professional development for ALL persons involved in such programs. The question immediately arises: How enduring are these emphases as guiding principles in the overall ethos and the total curriculum of our preservice teacher education programs as experienced by teachers in preparation? It is the purpose of this article to contest existing programs; to propose a TOTAL curriculum approach to preservice teacher education programs; and to use these emphases as a means of elaborating four guiding principles for this approach. The article concludes that it's time for such an approach, so that teachers in preparation have the opportunity to begin a journey of professional development which will hopefully empower them to change the world of the school by understanding it.

The contemporary context is inhospitable, if not hostile, to the sort of preservice program which would be totally committed to such emphases as guiding principles. Consider the following questions, for example, as they relate to the Australian context.

- How have contemporary contextual demands from the political, social and economic arenas impacted on preservice teacher education