

The heart of quality teaching: A values-based pedagogy for pre-service teacher education

Elizabeth Mary Curtis

BA; Grad.Dip.Sec.Ed; ATCL

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Centre for Learning Innovation

Faculty of Education

Queensland University of Technology

[March 2012]

Keywords

Philosophy in the Classroom, pre-service teacher education, productive pedagogies, quality teaching, values, values education.

Abstract

In an ever changing world the adults of the future will be faced with many challenges. To cope with these challenges it seems apparent that values education will need to become paramount within a child's education. A considerable number of research studies have indicated that values education is a critical component within education (Lovat & Toomey, 2007b). Building on this research Lovat (2006) claimed that values education was the missing link in quality teaching. The concept of quality teaching had risen to the fore within educational research literature in the late 20th century with the claim that it is the teacher who makes the difference in schooling (Hattie, 2004). Thus, if teachers make such a difference to student learning, achievement and well-being, then it must hold true that pre-service teacher education programmes are vital in ensuring the development of quality teachers for our schools.

The gap that this current research programme addressed was to link the fields of values education, quality teaching and pre-service teacher education. This research programme aimed to determine the impact of a values-based pedagogy on the development of quality teaching dimensions within pre-service teacher education. The values-based pedagogy that was investigated in this research programme was Philosophy in the Classroom.

The research programme adopted a nested case study design based on the constructivist-interpretative paradigm in examining a unit within a pre-service teacher education programme at a Queensland university. The methodology utilised was qualitative where the main source of data was via interviews. In total, 43 pre-service teachers participated in three studies in order to determine if their involvement in a unit where the focus was on introducing pre-service teachers to an explicit values-based pedagogy impacted on their knowledge, skills and confidence in terms of quality teaching dimensions.

The research programme was divided into three separate studies in order to address the two research questions:

1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?

2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understanding of quality teaching?

Study One provided insight into 21 pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching. These 21 participants had not engaged in an explicit values-based pedagogy. Study Two involved the interviewing of 22 pre-service teachers at two separate points in time – prior to exposure to a unit that employed a values-explicit pedagogy and post this subject's lecture content delivery. Study Three reported on and analysed individual case studies of five pre-service teachers who had participated in Study Two Time 1 and Time 2, as well as a third time following their field experience where they had practice in teaching the values explicit pedagogy.

The results of the research demonstrate that an explicit values-based pedagogy introduced into a teacher education programme has a positive impact on the development of pre-service teachers' understanding of quality teaching skills and knowledge. The teaching and practice of a values-based pedagogy positively impacted on pre-service teachers with increases of knowledge, skills and confidence demonstrated on the quality teaching dimensions of intellectual quality, a supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference, connectedness and values. These findings were reinforced through the comparison of pre-service teachers who had participated in the explicit values-based pedagogical approach, with a sample of pre-service teachers who had not engaged in this same values-based pedagogical approach. A solid values-based pedagogy and practice can and does enhance pre-service teachers' understanding of quality teaching. These findings surrounding the use of a values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education to enhance quality teaching knowledge and skills has contributed theoretically to the field of educational research, as well having practical implications for teacher education institutions and teacher educators.

Table of Contents

Keywords	i
Abstract	ii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables.....	ix
List of Abbreviations.....	xi
Statement of Original Authorship	xii
Acknowledgements	xiii
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Background	3
Context	4
Purpose and Research Problem	5
Significance of the Research Programme	8
Thesis Outline	9
Chapter 2: Literature Review	11
Introduction	11
Part One: Quality Education	12
<i>The Purpose of Education</i>	12
<i>Holistic Education</i>	12
<i>Quality of Education</i>	15
<i>Values in Education</i>	16
<i>Philosophy in the Classroom</i>	21
Part Two: Quality Teaching	29
<i>Defining Quality Teaching</i>	30
<i>History of Quality Teaching</i>	32
<i>Dimensions of Quality Teaching and Quality Teachers</i>	33
<i>Productive Pedagogy Model of Quality Teaching</i>	40
<i>Relationship between Quality Teaching and Values in Education</i>	46
<i>Values – A Fifth Dimension</i>	49
<i>Quality Teaching and Philosophy in the Classroom</i>	51
Part Three: Pre-service Teacher Education	57
<i>History of Pre-Service Teacher Education</i>	57
<i>Importance of Pre-Service Teacher Education</i>	61
<i>Requirements for Pre-Service Teacher Education in the 21st Century</i>	62
<i>Pre-Service Teacher Education Programmes in the 21st Century</i>	63
<i>Values Education in Pre-Service Teacher Education</i>	72
Summary	76
Chapter 3: Research Design	78

Introduction	78
A Research Paradigm	78
<i>A Constructivist-Interpretative Paradigm</i>	78
<i>What is Qualitative Research?</i>	80
<i>Qualitative Research as Real World</i>	80
<i>Researcher as Instrument</i>	81
<i>An Inductive Strategy</i>	82
<i>Product of Qualitative Research</i>	83
Choice of Methodology.....	84
<i>Case Study Design</i>	84
<i>Qualitative Longitudinal Research</i>	86
Overview of Research Design.....	87
Sampling	89
<i>Purposive Sampling</i>	89
<i>Sample Size</i>	90
<i>The Sample in a Case Study Design</i>	91
<i>The Setting</i>	92
<i>Sample Selection for Study One</i>	93
<i>Sample Selection for Study Two</i>	94
<i>Sample Selection for Study Three</i>	96
<i>Overall Sample</i>	96
Study One.....	97
Study Two	97
Study Three	97
Approaches to Data Collection	97
<i>Interviews</i>	97
<i>Examination of Documents</i>	104
Ethical Considerations	104
<i>Issues of Trustworthiness</i>	106
<i>Credibility</i>	106
<i>Dependability</i>	108
<i>Confirmability</i>	108
<i>Transferability</i>	109
Overview of Data Analyses	109
Summary	112
Chapter 4: Study One	113
Overview	113
Method	115
<i>Participants</i>	115
<i>Rationale for Utilising Group Interviews</i>	115
<i>Procedure</i>	115
Analysis of Focus Group Data	116
Findings and Discussion	119

<i>Intellectual Quality</i>	120
<i>Supportive Classroom Environment</i>	125
<i>Connectedness</i>	130
<i>Recognition of Difference</i>	135
<i>Values</i>	138
Summary	145
Chapter 5: Study Two.....	148
Overview	148
Method	150
<i>Participants</i>	150
<i>Procedure</i>	151
<i>Analysis of Data</i>	153
Results and Discussion.....	154
<i>Time 1</i>	154
<i>Time 2</i>	172
Summary	196
Chapter 6: Study Three	199
Overview	199
Method	201
<i>Participants</i>	201
<i>Procedure</i>	202
<i>Analysis of Data</i>	203
Results and Discussion.....	204
<i>Intellectual Quality</i>	204
<i>A Supportive Classroom Environment</i>	208
<i>Recognition of Difference</i>	212
<i>Connectedness</i>	216
<i>Values</i>	219
Summary	224
Chapter 7: Conclusions.....	226
Overview	226
Overview of the Research Programme.....	226
Research Questions Revisited and Summary of Findings	228
<i>Research Question 1</i>	229
<i>Research Question 2</i>	237
Contributions to Scholarship.....	248
Limitations	249
Recommendations	251
<i>Recommendations for Further Research</i>	251
<i>Recommendations for Pre-service Teacher Educators and Programme</i> <i>Developers</i>	252
Summary	253

References	255
Appendices	275
Appendix A	275
<i>Professional Standards for Queensland Teachers</i>	<i>275</i>
Appendix B	276
<i>National Professional Standards for Teachers.....</i>	<i>276</i>
Appendix C	277
<i>Bloom’s Revised Taxonomy.....</i>	<i>277</i>
Appendix D	278
<i>Pre-Service Teacher Focus Group Participant Information Sheet</i>	<i>278</i>
Appendix E	280
<i>Participant Consent Form</i>	<i>280</i>
Appendix F.....	281
<i>Productive Pedagogies Dimensions</i>	<i>281</i>
Appendix G	282
<i>Study One Focus Group Questions.....</i>	<i>282</i>
Appendix H.....	284
<i>Study Two Time 1 Focus Group Questions</i>	<i>284</i>
Appendix I.....	286
<i>Study Two Time 2 Focus Group Questions</i>	<i>286</i>
Appendix J	288
<i>Study Three Guiding Questions for the Interviews.....</i>	<i>288</i>
Appendix K.....	289
<i>De Bono’s Six Thinking Hats.....</i>	<i>289</i>

List of Figures

Figure 2.1 <i>Quality Teaching Model used in this Research Programme</i>	32
Figure 3.1 <i>Nested Case Study Design</i>	91
Figure 4.1 <i>Quality Teaching Model</i>	119
Figure 7.1 <i>Quality Teaching Model</i>	227

List of Tables

Table 1.1 <i>Overview of Research Programme</i>	7
Table 3.1 <i>Overview of Research Design</i>	88
Table 3.2 <i>Sampling across Studies One, Two and Three</i>	97
Table 4.1 <i>Overview of Research Programme Highlighting Study One</i>	114
Table 4.2 <i>Intellectual Quality Themes (as reported by participants)</i>	121
Table 4.3 <i>Supportive Classroom Environment Themes (as reported by participants)</i>	126
Table 4.4 <i>Relationships (as reported by participants)</i>	127
Table 4.5 <i>Connectedness Themes (as reported by participants)</i>	131
Table 4.6 <i>Recognition of Difference Themes (as reported by participants)</i>	135
Table 4.7 <i>Values Themes (as reported by participants)</i>	139
Table 5.1 <i>Overview of Research Programme Highlighting Study Two</i>	149
Table 5.2 <i>Participants in Study Two</i>	153
Table 5.3 <i>Intellectual Quality Thematic Comparison as reported by participants</i>	155
Table 5.4 <i>A Supportive Classroom Environment Thematic Comparison as reported by participants</i>	158
Table 5.5 <i>Connectedness Thematic Comparison as reported by participants</i>	163
Table 5.6 <i>Recognition of Difference Thematic Comparison as reported by participants</i>	167
Table 5.7 <i>Values Thematic Comparison as reported by participants</i>	170
Table 5.8 <i>Intellectual Quality Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 (as reported by participants)</i>	174
Table 5.9 <i>A Supportive Classroom Environment Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 as reported by the participants</i>	179
Table 5.10 <i>Connectedness Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 as reported by participants</i>	184
Table 5.11 <i>Recognition of Difference Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 as reported by participants</i>	188
Table 5.12 <i>Values Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 as reported by participants</i>	191
Table 6.1 <i>Overview of Research Programme Highlighting Study Three</i>	200
Table 6.2 <i>Study Three Participants</i>	201
Table 6.3 <i>Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to Intellectual Quality across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3</i>	205

Table 6.4 <i>Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to a Supportive Classroom Environment across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3</i>	209
Table 6.5 <i>Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to Recognition of Difference across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3</i>	213
Table 6.6 <i>Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to Connectedness across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3</i>	217
Table 6.7 <i>Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to Values across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3</i>	220
Table 7.1 <i>Comparison of Participants' Understandings of the Intellectual Quality Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit</i>	238
Table 7.2 <i>Comparison of Participants' Understandings of the Supportive Classroom Environment Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit</i>	240
Table 7.3 <i>Comparison of Participants' Understandings of the Recognition of Difference Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit</i>	242
Table 7.4 <i>Comparison of Participants' Understandings of the Connectedness Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit</i>	243
Table 7.5 <i>Comparison of Participants' Understandings in the Values Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit</i>	245
Table 7.6 <i>Overview of Quality Teaching Elements in Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit Subjects</i>	247

List of Abbreviations

ACARA	Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority
ACDE	Australian Council of Deans of Education
COI	Community of Inquiry
DEST	Department of Education, Science and Training
ESL	English as a Second Language
FE3	Field Experience 3 (values-based subject)
HBTE	Humanistic Based Teacher Education
ICT	Integrated Computer Technology
KLA	Key Learning Area
NAPLAN	National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy
NCLB	No Child Left Behind Act
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
P4C	Philosophy for Children
PP	Productive Pedagogies
QCoT	Queensland College of Teachers
QSRLS	Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study
UK	United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
US	United States [of America]
USSR	United Soviet Socialist Republic
VEGPSP	Values Education Good Practice Schools Project

Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Acknowledgements

As I am certain others can attest, the PhD journey is a long and tiring one fraught with difficulties and challenges. This I certainly know, but I was able to overcome these challenges with the support and friendship of some very special people to whom I am profoundly grateful.

Foremost, I want to extend my gratitude to my principal supervisor Dr. Rebecca Spooner-Lane. Rebecca encouraged, supported and guided me on my journey and was with me from start to finish. I would not have completed this journey without her friendship, warmth and unfailing support. Thank you Rebecca – words will never express my gratitude to you, Chris and Lucy for all that you have given and mean to me.

As well as the wonderful support provided by Rebecca I was tremendously fortunate to have had the support and encouragement of Professor Wendy Patton. Wendy deserves many thanks for her role in my academic development. She shared her amazing expertise with me and always challenged me to approach things differently and to overcome obstacles in my path. Wendy's role as Executive Dean of the Faculty of Education means her time is short and valuable, so to give me so much of that time is truly a measure of her selflessness and generosity of spirit. Thank you, Wendy.

Very importantly, I would like to thank the pre-service teachers who participated in this research programme. While they need to remain anonymous, the giving of their time and sharing of their stories was crucial to the success of this research programme and I am deeply indebted. Thank you.

Thanks to Lynne Hinton who introduced me to Philosophy in the Classroom and to Dr. Sarah Davey Chesters who extended my knowledge of Philosophy in the Classroom. Without Lynne's and Sarah's passion and enthusiasm I would not have understood the benefits of this pedagogical practice.

To my colleagues and friends at QUT, thank you for supporting me on my journey and sharing your stories, friendship and laughter with me. I will really miss the CLI corridor and the real sense of camaraderie – it was a joy to come into university and share time with you all. Thanks to my fellow PhD students: Lutz Hoff,

Adawiah Mohd Yusof , Carly Lassig, Julie Dillon-Wallace, Anna Kilderry, Hossein Bozorgian, Zui Neofa, Uke Kombra, Augustian Sutrisno, Susan Sim and Yaxing Zhang. Thanks to research fellows: Dr. Kerryann Walsh and Dr. Cathy Doherty. Thanks to CLI staff Jennifer Yared, Mary Clowes and Briony Wainman. Thanks to LAPS staff Katherine Eddings and May Reyes.

A special thank you to academic staff members across the Faculty of Education at QUT – Dr. Amanda Mergler, Dr. Donna Tangen, Dr. Sarah Davey-Chesters, Associate Professor Deborah Henderson, Associate Professor Joanne Brownlee and Michele Moon. The support and encouragement you gave me has been invaluable. If ever I was feeling low each one of you would pick me up with words of encouragement and your unwavering confidence in me was truly a great support.

Finally, I am deeply grateful to my family who have been by my side every day. The love you have given me has provided me with the strength to complete this journey. The values which I hold and which were so crucial to the development of this research programme are due, in no small part, to the loving and caring environment in which I was raised and continue to belong thanks to my family. To my Dad and Mum, Jim and Jan Curtis, to my sister Majella Curtis, and to my husband, Greg Hallam, thank you for your steadfast love, encouragement and sense of humour. The four of you are the most special people in my life – thank you.

This thesis is dedicated to all teachers who are committed to making a positive and care-filled difference to the lives of their students.

Chapter 1: **Introduction**

Dear Teacher,

I am a survivor of a concentration camp. My eyes saw what no man should witness:

Gas chambers built by learned engineers.

Children poisoned by educated physicians.

Infants killed by trained nurses.

Women and babies shot and burned by high school and college graduates.

So, I am suspicious of education.

My request is: Help your students become human.

Your efforts must never produce learned monsters, skilled psychopaths, educated Eichmanns.

Reading, writing, arithmetic are important only if they serve to make our children more human.

(cited in Pring, 2001, pp. 111-112)

This letter was written by a school principal in Boston in the US. The school was large, had a sizeable intake of new teachers each year, and each new teacher would receive the same letter. To me, this letter and its sentiments sum up the purpose of education and what we should be teaching to society's youth. If we want education to help students become more human, then society needs to address not just student education but also the quality of teachers, which means addressing pre-service teacher education. In both of these we need to address not just academic or cognitive outcomes but also social and emotional ones, or in other words, the affective domain. One way of achieving this is through a focus on values in education.

“Not all teachers are effective, not all teachers are experts, and not all teachers have powerful effects on students” (Hattie, 2009, p. 108). A widely-held view is that teaching is primarily associated with academic outcomes and that an effective teacher is one who has a good content knowledge in terms of curriculum and good pedagogical content knowledge (Masters, 2009). Whilst this view of teaching may be rejected by many, myself included, recent research on teacher quality has also focused on intellectual competence as opposed to more personal dispositions and

behaviours (Zumwalt & Craig, 2005). Concerns raised in the research about teacher quality have led to research into the quality of programmes that prepare candidates to teach (Zumwalt & Craig, 2005), demonstrating that pre-service teacher education is a crucial link in producing quality teachers, indeed “the quality of tomorrow will be no better than the quality of our teacher force”(Levine, 2006, p. 11).

Whilst it might be a crucial link, teacher education has been described as “the Dodge City of the education world” (Levine, 2006, p. 109) – unruly and disordered. Whilst this may be an exaggeration, there is some truth that there is no real standard approach to how teachers should be prepared (Walsh, 2006 as cited in Hattie, 2009). In discussing this Hattie (2009) posited that pre-service teacher education programmes have little impact on how future teachers influence the achievement of their students, and doubts whether pre-service teacher education is even the place to make a difference. A number of writers (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2010; Hattie, 2009) suggest that a large overhaul of teacher education is overdue. Whilst the discussion of a complete review of pre-service teacher education programmes is beyond the confines of this research programme, I would agree that if we want to enhance the quality of our nation’s teachers, and in so doing positively increase student achievement (see for example Hattie, 2004, 2009; Rowe, 2004a, 2004b), then we need to turn our attention to pre-service teacher education programmes. I hope that the results of this research programme demonstrate that pre-service teacher education programmes can make a difference to the development of quality teachers and that this difference will manifest itself on these future teachers’ future students in terms of not only academic achievement but in terms of more holistic outcomes. It will be argued that the ‘difference’ in pre-service teacher education can come from explicit values-based pedagogies.

This chapter begins with some personal background on myself as researcher and the reasons behind the decision to undertake this current study in quality teaching and values in pre-service teacher education. The context, purpose and significance of the present study are then examined, before concluding this chapter with an outline of the remainder of this thesis.

Background

In this thesis I have adopted a qualitative case study approach where the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 1998; Rossman & Rallis, 2003). This means that the data is collected via the researcher through such instruments as interviews, and as a result the researcher is quite responsive to the context and circumstances under investigation (Merriam, 1998). This is discussed in further detail in Chapter Three, but a concern that often emerges from such an approach is the bias that may result (Merriam, 1998) and the fact that case studies are often selective, personal and subjective (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). In this section I reflect on the way my personal values, beliefs and experiences have shaped the present study.

My working career has been spent as a classroom teacher. My philosophy has always been to prioritise the caring, relational aspect of teaching – to me this is the most important aspect of being a teacher. I was, and still am, passionate about teaching and the important role that teachers play in the development of young people. To hear other teachers talk down to their students; to treat them in uncaring ways; to treat them as numbers in the system; to treat them as empty vessels to merely fill with knowledge, all damage the positive potency of teachers. Surely a teacher's role is to care and nurture and to help make his/her students more fully human? This is why the letter quoted at the beginning of this chapter touched me. The sentiments of this letter are something that I hold in the forefront of my mind when teaching and it is this that inspires me to face the day to day difficulties teachers everywhere face. So I came to this study passionate about teaching and having been involved in sessional teaching at a university with a large pre-service teacher education programme and cohort, this passion was fuelled further through my interactions with future teachers. Teacher education and helping to create caring quality teachers is important to me.

On reflection, it was these passionate beliefs and my desire to make a difference that led me onto the path of this study and certainly helped me to complete the journey. The purpose of this study was to explore pre-service teacher education and to determine if a values explicit pedagogy increases the understanding of and confidence in aspects of quality teaching for pre-service teachers. The study utilises a nested case study design of one specific pre-service teacher education programme.

Context

Prior to this current research programme, research had been completed linking quality teaching and values education here in Australia predominantly by Lovat, Toomey and Clement. The *Values Education Good Practice Schools Project* (VEGPSP) as part of *The National Framework for Values Education in Australian Schools* (Department of Education Science and Training, 2005) and the ensuing publication *Values Education and Quality Teaching: The Double Helix Effect* (Lovat & Toomey, 2007c) contributed greatly to the conceptualisation of this study. Lovat and Toomey ascertained that quality teaching and values education were two sides of the same coin (Lovat, 2007b). The published research at this stage though, was centred on values education from school students' perspectives and as stated earlier my interest was in pre-service teacher education. So the present research programme commenced with the aim of helping to fill this gap. During the progression of the current research programme other research was published which looked at; a troika for effective teacher and teacher education (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, Crotty, & Nielsen, 2009); teacher education and values-based pedagogies (Toomey, Lovat, Clement, & Dally, 2010b); and the link between values education and student wellbeing (Lovat, Toomey, & Clement, 2010). All of this published research, apart from the *Teacher Education and Values Pedagogy: A Student Wellbeing Approach* (Toomey et al., 2010b), in which I contributed a chapter (see Curtis, 2010) did not specifically address pre-service teacher education, links to quality teaching and a values-based pedagogical approach. It is this area that the present research programme aims to address.

Before progressing any further it is first necessary to briefly explain pedagogy and, specifically a values-based pedagogy. The word *pedagogy* refers to the science of teaching and is derived from the Greek word *paidagogia*, which means 'to lead the child'. Pedagogy is more than just methodology or curriculum, rather it is an underpinning philosophy of teaching and learning (Davey Chesters, forthcoming). A values-based pedagogy sees effective teaching and learning being "enhanced by the positive human relationships and explicit values-oriented transactions that are forged within quality values-laden programmes" (Lovat, Dally, Clement, & Toomey, 2011, p. 86). The specific values-based pedagogy that is being utilised in this research programme is Philosophy in the Classroom. Philosophical inquiry initiates children

into open discussion concerning values and meaning and it encourages them to make moral judgements. By participating in a philosophical community of inquiry a moral culture is created, where thinking and acting together cultivates virtues such as respect for others, sincerity and open-mindedness (Fisher, 2000). Philosophy in the Classroom is a pedagogy and not simply a discipline that is taught. It is pedagogy because it needs to underpin how and why we teach (Davey Chesters, forthcoming).

Purpose and Research Problem

The findings of this research programme then are new and thus will contribute to scholarship in this field. The fields of study for this current research programme are quite broad in that it draws upon literature from the fields of teacher education, quality teaching, values education and, Philosophy for Children, though all fields are situated within the discipline of Education. Each of these fields of study within education and specifically pre-service teacher education is addressed in some detail in the literature review in the following chapter.

This present research programme attempts to contribute to a better understanding of the importance of values-education within a pre-service teacher education programme in order to produce better quality teachers. It attempts to do this by investigating the following research questions:

1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?
2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?

Through addressing these questions, the present research programme will identify that explicit values-based pedagogies are crucial in pre-service teacher education in terms of enhancing quality teaching dimensions. As Toomey et al (2010a, p. vii) suggest, a values-based holistic pedagogical approach to education “has the potential to enable students to be more self-knowing, self-managing and reflective people, not only capable of dealing with such issues but also with greater capacity in academic diligence, perseverance and attainment”.

The purpose of this research programme, then, is to explore perceptions of a sample of pre-service teachers about the dimensions of quality teaching and how these pre-service teachers perceive an explicit values-based pedagogy influences quality teaching dimensions. The specific case study under investigation is the third year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme field experience unit FE3. This unit was selected as the case study as it contained a values-explicit pedagogy in the form of Philosophy in the Classroom. The use of philosophy to enhance children’s thinking skills has been utilised for over forty years with Matthew Lipman’s Philosophy for Children (P4C) programme (Lipman, Sharp, & Oscanyan, 1980). This thesis has used the term Philosophy in the Classroom to make a distinction between Lipman’s P4C and the modifications that have been made to his programme to fit in more with the Australian context. In order to determine if the values-explicit pedagogy did influence quality teaching dimensions as perceived by pre-service teachers it was necessary to conduct a study with pre-service teachers who were not involved in a specific values-based pedagogy. As well as the primary case study of pre-service teachers’ perceptions of the subject FE3 there was also an examination of five case studies of individual students at three points in time – before the subject FE3, after the university content delivery of the subject, and following the trialling of teaching philosophy whilst on field experience. Thus the present research programme consisted of three separate studies.

Table 1.1
Overview of Research Programme

Study	Time	Research Question	Participants
One	Semester Two, 2009	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	21 (19 female + 2 male) Fourth Year Bachelor of Education students
Two	<p>Semester Two, 2010</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> – prior to commencement of subject FE3 (Week 1)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – post course content and delivery of subject FE3 (Week 10-11)</p>	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	<p>Third Year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme students enrolled in subject FE3.</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> – 11 (10 female + 1 male)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – 18 (14 female + 4 male)</p> <p>22 (18 female + 4 male) in total as 7 participants were the same in <i>Time 1</i> and <i>Time 2</i>.</p>
Three	<p>Semester Two, 2010</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> - prior to commencement of subject FE3 (Week 1)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – post course content and delivery of subject FE3 (Week 10-11)</p> <p><i>Time 3</i> – post field experience (Week 16)</p>	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	5 female Third Year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme students enrolled in subject FE3.

My aim was to gather participant perceptions of quality teaching and to determine if the inclusion of a values explicit pedagogy into a pre-service teacher education programme made any difference to understandings of quality teaching. The primary data therefore was the participants' own words from the interviews, and

these excerpts have been used extensively in the current study. Following data collection and transcription, analysis of the data occurred following the analytic procedures outlined by Marshall and Rossman (2006). This procedure falls into seven phases: (1) organising the data; (2) immersion in the data; (3) generating categories and themes; (4) coding the data; (5) offering interpretations; (6) searching for alternative understandings; and (7) writing up of the report. Issues of trustworthiness are important considerations in qualitative research (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008) and steps were taken to ensure this research was trustworthy by adhering to the five criteria of trustworthiness; credibility; dependability; transferability and; confirmability as outlined by Lincoln and Guba (1985). This is discussed further in Chapter Three.

Significance of the Research Programme

The findings of this research are important for a variety of reasons. The link between quality teaching and values education has only recently emerged (2007) as an object of scholarly attention with the work, primarily, of Lovat and Toomey and associates (see for example Lovat & Clement, 2008; Lovat & Toomey, 2007a; Lovat & Toomey, 2007c). This work, whilst highlighting implications for teacher education, was focused on values education in relation to school curriculum and children's learning. Toomey (2007b, p. 164) noted that values education requires an in-depth knowledge that penetrates below surface understandings and asked the question, "How can teacher education accommodate such things?"

The present research programme attempts to explore this question by viewing values education as an holistic pedagogy which impacts on the entire school curriculum and the way teachers teach. By viewing values education in this light, as opposed to seeing it as a discrete subject or unit, means all teachers need to be provided with knowledge and skills in values education. This research programme describes one way that an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education can become a more prominent feature of teacher education. In doing so, it provides opportunities for beginning teachers to engage with values as part of their professional learning and in so doing contributes to better understanding and growth in quality teaching dimensions. In researching how a values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher programmes can assist with quality teaching, this research

programme may encourage teacher education institutions and teacher educators to more seriously consider the role of values in pre-service teacher education and the important contributions it can make to producing better quality teachers.

Thesis Outline

Chapter Two contains the literature review where the present research programme is situated within the existing research literature in the fields of quality education, values education, Philosophy for Children, quality teaching and pre-service teacher education. As this research programme sits across all these quite distinct fields within the broad field of education it was necessary to investigate the literature for all of them, though I have demonstrated the links between these fields. This research programme aims to demonstrate that through an holistic understanding of all of these fields one might be able to gain a better understanding of how to produce better quality teachers, which in turn improves student well-being and student outcomes.

Following this, I then draw implications for the theoretical framework and research design which is developed in Chapter Three. Here I present my research paradigm and argue for a qualitative approach to the research problem that can be best explored through a case study of a specific unit in a pre-service teacher education programme.

The next three chapters are devoted to the three separate studies within the present research programme. Chapters Four, Five and Six are all structurally similar in that each of these chapters begins with the method of the study followed by the findings and discussion. These findings and discussion sections in all three chapters are presented under the five quality teaching dimensions of intellectual quality, connectedness, a supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference and values.

Chapter Four examines 21 pre-service teachers' beliefs about and perceptions of quality teaching in Study One. None of these participants had been engaged in a subject within their pre-service teacher education programme that was devoted to a values-based pedagogy. Thus, this chapter is concerned with establishing a base for Study Two in order to determine whether or not the introduction of a values explicit pedagogy does make a difference to understandings of and skills in quality teaching.

Chapter Five examines the interview data of 22 pre-service teachers who had participated in a values-based subject, namely FE3, at two separate points in time. Time 1 data was collected prior to the subject beginning and was thus directly comparable with Study One. Time 2 data was collected at the end of the 10 week teaching component of the subject. This chapter, therefore, is concerned with analysing the two sets of data in order to determine if a values-based pedagogy does make a difference to quality teaching.

Chapter Six presents five case studies of individual students who were enrolled in the subject FE3, these five participants were part of Study Two, but in Study Three they were interviewed post their field experience so were interviewed at three discrete points in time. By examining five case studies, the progression of individual journeys and thus any changes could easily be tracked and relationships made between the introduction of the values explicit pedagogy and quality teaching dimensions. The findings from the Time 3 interviews in this chapter also make some contributions to the research on the importance of field experience on the development of pre-service teachers.

In the final chapter, Chapter Seven, I summarise the research findings drawing together the three separate studies. This research programme is not regarded as a final or definitive study and, as in any research, is limited in its scope and scale. Thus in this chapter I discuss the research programme's limitations as well as its contributions to scholarship and practice. The chapter concludes with the presentation of some recommendations for teacher educators and for further research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Learning is a personal act, not just for the student but also the teacher (Hattie, 2009). Research has demonstrated that students often live in a personal and social world of their own within the classroom, with their teachers often not understanding this (Nuthall, 2005). As a result many students are not reaching their full potential. “In most teachers’ minds, the criteria for successful learning are the same as the criteria for successful classroom management” (Nuthall, 2005, p. 916). Those involved in teacher education, and specifically pre-service teacher education, need to be fully mindful of this assertion.

The success of a child’s education is inextricably linked to the quality of the teaching he/she receives at school (Australian Council of Deans of Education Incorporated, 2005; Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1994; Hattie, 2003, 2004, 2009). So to achieve a quality education for our children we need to address quality teaching. This chapter first addresses the purpose of education in society, especially given the challenges of the 21st century, and then moves on to discussing quality education. This study adopts an holistic view of education where there is balance between cognitive, behavioural, social and affective outcomes. It has been noted that affective outcomes are not given the same priority in education as cognitive and behavioural outcomes (Rompelman, 2002). Given this, the importance of values in education is next discussed. One particular model that has received much attention in education in terms of assisting the development of the whole child is Philosophy for Children (P4C) (Lipman et al., 1980), and this perspective is discussed in some detail.

Given the view that student outcomes are directly related to the teaching they receive, it is next important to try and qualify quality teaching. This is done by examining a myriad of dimensions that are related to quality teaching, but it must be noted these qualities are not exhaustive. Whilst there are many definitions, dimensions and models of quality teaching in educational research and literature, this study utilises the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study’s (QSRLS) *Productive Pedagogy* (PP) model (The University of Queensland, 2001), so this is discussed in some detail, as too is the importance of the link between values in

education and quality teaching. The actual model of quality teaching that this research programme employs is based on the PP model but has values as an additional dimension.

The last part of this chapter is dedicated to pre-service teacher education as I believe it is through the education of pre-service teachers that we can have the most impact on positively affecting the quality of teaching and teachers. I start by discussing the importance and history of pre-service teacher education from the second part of the 20th century to today. I then proceed to discuss implications for pre-service teacher education such as professional standards and prior beliefs of teacher candidates, before concluding with an overview at what is included in pre-service teacher education programmes.

Part One: Quality Education

The Purpose of Education

What are schools for? This question is often asked by educationalists, politicians and many others. Goodlad (1994) argues that schools have a two-part mission; firstly, they are specifically charged with enculturating the young in a social and political democracy and; secondly, they are to introduce the young to organised bodies of knowledge which discipline and enrich our lives as citizens, workers, parents and individuals. Whatever an individual child's background, capabilities or disabilities, talents or lack of them, strengths or weaknesses, each has the ability to grow and develop to become more human. The teacher who recognises this does much more than simply deliver the curriculum, but rather actively engages with the needs and interests of the learner and thus will be effective in assisting the individual to develop fully and to increase potential for wellbeing (Pring, 2010).

Holistic Education

Educational aims, "like all matters of policy, are contextual, political, normative, dynamic and *contested*" (Harris, 1999, p. 3). This is not in dispute, but surely the aims of education must be broad, and I believe, like many other educationalists (see for example Miller, 1999; Noddings, 2005a; Noddings, 2005b, 2006; Palmer, 1999) that genuine education means a holistic education. Others argue that schools should pursue academic aims and ensure that all children are proficient in literacy and numeracy. But surely there is more to an individual than merely the

ability to be literate and numerate? What about learning how to care for themselves and others; learning about the world of ideas and the exciting possibilities this brings; being happy; learning how to build sound and rewarding human relationships? Are these not also worthy aims of a genuine education?

Education and wholeness should coexist. The root of the word *education* is *educare* which means “to lead forth the hidden wholeness” (Palmer, 1999, p. 35). When considering an holistic education, one needs to consider the definition of wholeness, which is “complete and entire”. Wholeness also implies interconnectedness between all the single parts that make up the whole. Holistic education is about a total experience; the experience of having a mind – our thoughts and knowledge; the experience of having a body – our perceptions and our actions; and the experience of having a heart – our emotions and feelings. An holistic education is all about achieving balance so all aspects of being human are covered within a child’s education. Holistic educators recognise the stages of a child’s development and understand that human development occurs in two spheres: the personal, which acknowledges and allows for the individual’s exploration of his/her values, beliefs and emotions; and the universal, which speaks more to the content and knowledge aspect (Miller, 1999).

In discussing quality education, it is necessary to have some understanding of educational psychology, which as a branch of psychology and a field of science can be seen as a search for better understanding of the learning and teaching processes. (Snowman et al., 2009). I do not wish to go into any depth about educational psychology, but it is important to note for this research programme that essentially there are two major theoretical perspectives – behaviourist and cognitive. Behaviourism as an approach to learning stems largely from Pavlov’s (1849-1936) work on conditioning, which was then developed by Thorndike (1874-1949) and Watson (1878-1959) who applied it to student learning (Tangen, 2010). The behavioural domain of learning is a teacher-centred approach that involves students’ observable behaviours. This is opposite to the cognitive domain which focuses on thinking and memory, where it is assumed that learners are active in their attempts to understand the world and new understanding depends on prior learning where learners construct their own knowledge. The two main psychologists most often associated with a cognitivist view are Piaget (1896-1980) and Vygotsky, though their

work led into an offshoot of cognitivist theory – constructivism (Snowman et al., 2009).

Most psychologists support one of these two major theoretical perspectives of learning – behaviourist or cognitive (Rompelman, 2002). But there is also a third domain – the affective – which could be “described by the way in which the emotions of the individual influence his or her learning” (Rompelman, 2002, p. 1). It is difficult to separate the affective out – emotions regarding a certain task and the people involved in this task as well as the environment the task is completed in, will all influence the outcome thus demonstrating that the affective domain is a significant part of learning. Research (see for example Noddings, 2005a; Rompelman, 2002) certainly supports that the affective is a vital component of teaching and learning and its power should not be underestimated. A teacher who understands and carefully considers the relationship between the behaviourist, cognitive and affective domains should be better able to engage students in effective learning (Rompelman, 2002), as the whole person and not just a part of the person is being engaged and acknowledged.

An individual’s mood or emotions can significantly impact on learning. One student may experience high levels of stress and anxiety when asked to work under pressure, for example during an exam, and may even completely freeze. The same high pressure situation might bring out the best in a different student. Each individual student will have particular moods or emotions surrounding particular tasks and this will influence his/her cognitive processing and its effectiveness. So what is needed to enhance a student’s cognitive processing is actually a teacher who understands the importance and significance of the affective domain and the links between it and cognition and behaviour (Rompelman, 2002). In seeing the affective and educating to and for this, we see the whole child (Tan & Leong, 2006). In the present research programme when referring to quality education it is implied that it is an holistic approach where cognitive, behavioural and affective domains all work together and are of equal importance. So this concept of an holistic approach to quality education is seen as being useful and necessary for shaping the future of education.

Quality of Education

The troika, a Russian sleigh drawn by three horses, is a metaphor adopted to refer to a new paradigm for learning where values education is given prominence (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009). The troika is seen as a holistic framework where “an enhanced sense of personal, emotional and educational wellbeing on the part of both students and teachers” (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009, p. 2) is provided. So, in the present research programme a quality education is referring to the education of the whole person, where there is a balance between the three domains and where the academic purpose of a school should not drive everything. I also argue that values education and caring are also crucial characteristics of a quality education and should be given equal prominence. A main output of quality education surely has to be student wellbeing, especially when discussing an holistic education.

Student Wellbeing

Student wellbeing is a major output of quality of education (van Petegem, Aelterman, Van Keer, & Rosseel, 2008) with a positive classroom climate greatly contributing to a higher sense of student wellbeing, which can often lead to better impacts on academic achievement (Rowe, 2004b; Willms, 2000). One can find a myriad of definitions regarding wellbeing, but the one I wish to use stems from Aristotle’s notion of *eudaimonia*, or happiness, which identifies wellbeing as a holistic concept and sees it as a life worth living (Clement, 2010). In terms of student wellbeing at school, it means considering a wide array of indicators encompassing personal, social, cognitive, affective, physical, psychological, moral and spiritual dimensions (Clement, 2010). It is important to note that there are two types of student wellbeing: *current* and *sustainable* (Eder, 1995 as cited in van Petegem, Aelterman, Rosseel, & Creemers, 2007). Eder defines the immediate effects of being at school with its feelings, satisfaction or dissatisfaction and the various psychological and psychosomatic factors of being at school as *current*. In contrast to this, the *sustainable* model refers to general self-esteem, view of one’s capabilities, one’s self image, the academic concept of self and the social and emotional self image of students. It is the sustainable model to which the present research programme refers when discussing student wellbeing. If, as I argued earlier,

education is concerned with the development of the whole person, then personal wellbeing is crucial to this.

Values in Education

Much has been written about and discussed in education circles in recent years concerning values in education, and this revived interest reflects “the connection between so-called educational activities and systems, on the one hand, and the implicit conceptions of personal wellbeing, on the other hand” (Pring, 2010, p. xix). Values relates to quality education, and thus to quality teaching also, in that values are embodied in our understanding of what it means to be human, which is thus permeated into pedagogy, which is then reflected in individuals’ wellbeing (Pring, 2010). If we accept that education is to help children grow and develop as human beings and ‘to become more so’ (Bruner, 1966), then education needs to be inextricably linked to fostering humanity to enable the attainment of wellbeing which in itself is inextricably linked to values (Pring, 2010). This is why values in education are so crucial.

What is a Value?

Friedrich Nietzsche, the German philosopher, is reputed to have coined the term ‘values’ in 1880 (Aggarwal, 2005). In terms of what values mean in regard to 21st century education there is still no one exact and agreed upon definition, as values mean different things to different people. Generally though, it could be argued that values are the guidelines for an individual’s life. Values promote individual life and human survival without harming others or society (Zecha, 2007). Aspin (2002) writes:

Values are instantiated in every word we select and speak, every piece of clothing we wear, the ways in which we present ourselves to each other, our reading of others’ reactions to what we are saying, the cues we pick up, and the actions we take as a result (and sometimes get wrong, too!) – they are embedded and embodied in everything we do, as part of the warp and weft of our and our community’s whole form of life (p. 16).

For the purpose of this research programme, values will include, but extend beyond, religious and moral meanings; they “engage our cognition, emotions and behaviour” (Powney et al., 1995, p. 2). Values are more than just a set of beliefs,

they impinge on our very being and are intrinsically linked to our behaviour, to our decisions and to our feelings. Hill (2006) defines values as “the priorities which individuals and societies attach to certain beliefs, experiences, and objects, in deciding how they shall live and what they shall treasure” (p.53).

The Importance of Values

Values are significant in terms of society and culture and indeed human life. If values such as truth and learning, the common good, justice, mutual obligations, respect for human life, friendship and so forth are “*not* taught both in families and schools and *not* cultivated by word and action, no culture can survive. If human life is to exist on earth, these universally valid values must be followed throughout the world” (Zecha, 2007, p. 51). Pring (2010) states that the revitalisation of interest in values education is significant because it has meant that the connections between educational activities and systems, and implicit conceptions of personal wellbeing have now been recognised. This link between values and personal wellbeing has also been noted beyond the field of education and educational research with Eckersley (2004) arguing that the more materialistic and individualistic one’s values are the poorer the individual wellbeing. This ties into the link between what one values and whom one values. For example if society values high test scores then that will impact on the children who are valued. As one American superintendent of education observed:

When a low-performing child walks into a classroom, instead of being seen as a challenge, or an opportunity for improvement, for the first time since I’ve been in education, teachers are seeing him [or her] as a liability (as quoted in Kohn, 2005, p. 20).

So values and an understanding and reflection of them are crucial not just for student education but also for teacher education. Pre-service teachers need to engage with the philosophical question of what it means to be a person – and to be one more fully and in so doing they will come to reflect on values which are embodied in our understanding of what it means to be more fully human (Pring, 2010). To do this pre-service teachers need to engage in values education and to understand the implications this then has not only on their developing teaching skills and strategies, but also on the very conception of what it means to be a teacher (Pring, 2010).

Values Education Defined

Recently in Australia, the debate around the role of values in education has focused specifically on the notion of ‘values education’. There are different terms used for values education in the literature – moral education, character education, personal and social education, citizenship education, civic education and, religious education. In Australia, values education has been defined as referring to

any explicit and/or implicit school-based activity to promote student understanding and knowledge of values, and to inculcate the skills and dispositions of students so they can enact particular values as individuals and as members of the wider community (Zbar, Brown, & Bereznicki, 2003, p. 2).

From the research explored (see for example Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Willemsse, 2007; Thornberg, 2008; Willemsse, Lunenberg, & Korthagen, 2005) it can be concluded that there is no single universally accepted and proven framework for values-based education in schools, let alone in pre-service teacher education. There are also differing opinions as to the way values in education should be implemented in the curriculum. Some see it as being integrated into other disciplines such as social studies or religion or citizenship education (see for example Howard, Berkowitz, & Schaeffer, 2004); whilst some advocate it as a separate subject within the timetable (see for example Aspin, 2002; Patry, Weyringer, & Weinberger, 2007). Others see it as being trans-disciplinary and advocate for it being taught across all Key Learning Areas (KLAs) in all year levels (see for example Edwards, 1996; Nielsen, 2005; Tudbull, 2007). These trans-disciplinary advocates argue that an across-discipline approach helps students to understand that values are important and relevant to everything they learn and the need to make value judgments can arise everywhere and at any time (Katzner & Nieman, 2006; Millet, 2004). They argue that it is unwise to separate the study of values from disciplinary knowledge bases. In the Australian Values Education Good Practice Schools Project (VEGPSP), primary schools mostly trialled values education in this trans-disciplinary sense (Zbar & Toomey, 2006).

According to Taylor (1994), “values education, in its various forms, encourages reflection on choices, exploration of opportunities and commitment to responsibilities, and for the individual in society to develop values preferences and an orientation to guide activities and behaviour” (p. 3). Values education is about

relating to others and developing the ability to apply values and rules intelligently (Aspin, 1999). Values education also aids in encouraging reflection, exploration of opportunities and commitment to responsibilities (Taylor, 1994).

Teachers though, do not always see it in this way with many defining values education as the practice used where they teach students to be nice and kind to others, to behave appropriately and to abide by rules (Thornberg, 2008). In Thornberg's (2008) study of 13 Swedish teachers, all referred to values education in terms of behaviour, rules and character. When asked to consider how they would describe their practice of values education, the main theme to emerge was how the teachers attempted to influence students' behaviour in day to day school life and activities in accordance with their own view of values (Thornberg, 2008). These results were similar to those found by Powney, Cullen, Schlapp, Glissov, Johnstone and Munn (1995) in that most of the Scottish teachers interviewed also spoke of values in terms of social relationships and the teachers' main focus in values education was on students' behaviour. Teachers have identified the essential tools in values education as "school and classroom rules, discussions and explanations, conflict management situations, class meetings, themselves as role models, and their efforts to construct a fair school milieu" (Thornberg, 2008, p. 1793).

The US has been involved in values education (referred to as character education) since the beginning of its public schooling (Howard et al., 2004). There, research has demonstrated that schools who have adopted values education as an intrinsic and explicit part of their curriculums have shown a decrease in behavioural problems, an increase in attendance, a decrease in vandalism and a decrease in teenage pregnancy rates (Nielsen, 2005). As well as the moral, personal and social benefits gained by including explicit values in education, there are also other benefits such as increased cognitive, metacognitive, and reasoning skills.

Critical thinking is at the core of values education (Millet, 2004) with critical thinkers possessing inquisitiveness, a zealotry for reasoning, a keenness of mind, an orderliness in working through problems, persistence through difficulties and a reasonableness in applying criteria (Facione, 2007). Lipman (1988) argues that reasoning skills do not vary greatly from one domain to another, so reasoning skills fostered for the purpose of improving ethical judgement can also be applied to

academic matters. So critical thinking skills utilised in a values education programme will not only have moral benefits but also academic ones.

In the present research programme, values education is defined as an awareness of the moral, social, political and aesthetic things humans believe in and intrinsic to this is the development of autonomous and life-long learners. In the current research programme, it is perceived that one of the main aims of values education is to provide students with a knowledge of themselves and a mode of relating to others. As Aspin (2007) declares, without this “we would be impoverished in our life as citizens and as individuals” (p.34). To be human necessitates reflection, deliberation, conclusion and action on key questions and this is what makes us who we are, thus values are inseparable from our lives – they are not independent entities (Aspin, 2007). Thus, values and an awareness of one’s own values are an integral part of the education process.

Values education is not promoting the use of pedagogical strategies whose aim it is to indoctrinate. The approach does not support indoctrination of children, but still children need to understand the values and expectations of society. As such a process of socialisation that does not amount to indoctrination (Tan & Leong, 2006) is sought, and this is the challenge for values education. The goal is to “both ‘educate the emotions’ and to ‘affect the intellect’. Our desires should be made ‘more intelligent’ while rational ways of thinking should be infused with more feeling” (Tan & Leong, 2006, p. 323). In values education, students should develop empathy for others, and this in turn should lead to a development of their own needs and feelings in relation to others, in other words they become morally considerate (Tan & Leong, 2006). Lickona (1991) posits a model of moral knowing, feeling and doing. This model is based on three aspects: (1) we need to know the good (moral knowing) and we do this through gaining an understanding of core values and by developing our ability to reason; (2) we need to love the good (moral feeling) by promoting the affective and developing skills of empathy and perspective-taking; and (3) we need to do the good (moral doing) by developing positive habits such as working cooperatively and serving others. This seems to be a good base for values education.

From a troika perspective, the explicit teaching of values involves three main strategies: (1) values being taught more formally using a variety of regular pedagogical techniques; (2) values embedded in learning activities – one in particular

is Philosophy in the Classroom which this research programme will be addressing and; (3) values becoming the focus for active participation and learning through such things as service learning (Toomey et al., 2010a). I want to focus on the explicit teaching of values through the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom as one example of a values-based pedagogy.

Philosophy in the Classroom

The holistic concept of the troika centres on the relationship between the implicit and explicit teaching of values, the nurturing of the specific dimensions of quality teaching and the opportunity to ‘walk the talk’ of a values education programme through explicit practice. This can be realised through the implementation of Philosophy in the Classroom (Curtis, 2010).

Philosophy in the Classroom Briefly Explained

Philosophy is seen by many to be a very remote discipline, suitable for the academically inclined in tertiary studies (Cam, 2006b). This however is far from the truth. “While philosophy is an attitude, a way of life, demanding and exacting, it is also a teaching, a school, therefore, a kind of knowledge, all this in a spirit of curiosity and discovery inherent to philosophy itself” (UNESCO, 2007, p. xvii).

The use of Philosophy in the Classroom to enhance children’s thinking skills was revived in the US by Matthew Lipman at the beginning of the 1970s with his Philosophy for Children (P4C) approach (Daniel & Auriac, 2009). The aim of this programme was to teach children how to think for themselves and make informed choices (Lipman, 2003; Lipman et al., 1980). Within the P4C approach, children as young as 4-5 years engage in philosophy in Prep classrooms. This is in line with Jerome Bruner’s claim “that the foundations of any subject may be taught to anybody at any age in some form” (Bruner, 1960 as cited in Cam, 2006b, p. 25).

“Philosophy for Children emphasises logic and criticality and has been identified as a key thinking skills approach” (W. Barrow, 2010, p. 62). It is this thinking skills aspect of Philosophy in the Classroom that has received the most attention in the research literature with advocates claiming that schools give insufficient attention to the development of thinking skills (Smith, 2010). It does go beyond the development of purely thinking skills though, with a strong focus on

community and diversity, dialogic, discussion of life's big questions along with associated values, beliefs and morals. The myriad of elements contained within the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom can be seen when looking at the process of a typical classroom philosophy lesson. Haynes (2008) describes the process in terms of nine steps:

1. Getting started – rules of interaction, quietening down
2. The shared reading of a narrative that includes ambiguities and paradoxes (Daniel & Auriac, 2009);
3. Pause for thought;
4. Questioning – the students raise these. This separates a philosophical community of inquiry from many other discussion based approaches where the teacher selects the topic for discussion, so in Philosophy in the Classroom it is the children who have ownership (Smith, 2010);
5. Connections – making links between the questions;
6. Choosing a question to begin the inquiry;
7. Building on others' ideas – the teacher has to ensure there is a balance between encouraging the children to follow on from each other's ideas and allowing related lines of inquiry to open up;
8. Recording the discussion – for example, criteria, graphic mapping; and
9. Review and closure – summarising and reflecting on the process itself and whether or not views/beliefs were challenged and/or changed.

There certainly have been objections raised by some who argue that having children thinking too deeply too soon could be psychologically dangerous (UNESCO, 2007). Advocates for the use of Philosophy in the Classroom would argue though, that philosophy can help children deal with traumatic issues such as separation and divorce and the nature of death. Children can come to realise that these are not just problems or questions faced by them but by everybody, thus breaking them free from existential solitude, thus making philosophy therapeutic, as well as its other values in terms of cultural, existential, spiritual, political, social and intellectual aims (UNESCO, 2007). Studies have demonstrated that there are links between Philosophy in the Classroom and gains in ability and attainment (Topping &

Trickey, 2007a; Trickey & Topping, 2004); and increases in positive pupil interactions within the classroom (Topping & Trickey, 2007b). These are discussed in more detail later in this chapter. Whilst Philosophy in the Classroom is best recognised as an approach used to enhance thinking skills, it is also increasingly being seen as a preparation of children for active citizenship within a democratic society (W. Barrow, 2010; Burgh, Field, & Freakley, 2006; Sharp, 1991). I would also see the value of Philosophy in the Classroom as a way of addressing many of the aims and concerns of values education.

Community of Inquiry

At the heart of Philosophy in the Classroom lies the community of inquiry (COI), which essentially acts as a Vygotskian micro-society, similar to the ethics of social life in which different viewpoints are raised and alternative solutions produced and this generates socio-cognitive conflicts in the minds of the students (Daniel & Auriac, 2009). The 19th century pragmatist philosopher Peirce is generally credited with the term community of inquiry which he characterised as being one that has shared procedures and common interests (Fisher, 2000). Dewey (1916) then expanded on this by relating it to real experience and the notion of democracy, which in turn was adopted by Lipman in the 1970s in P4C. “A discourse community centred on philosophical inquiry is the primary vehicle by which philosophical ways of talking and thinking are fostered” (Pardales & Girod, 2006, p. 303). It is important to note that neither knowledge nor experience can be understood without this social factor of the community of inquiry. As Peirce wrote: “one man’s experience is nothing, if it stands alone...It is not my experience but our experience that has to be thought of, and this has indefinite possibilities” (as quoted in Planas, 2003, p. 84).

A community of inquiry may be summed up as a community where students listen to one another with respect, build on each other’s ideas, challenge each other to supply reasons, assist each other in drawing inferences from what has been said and seek to identify assumptions (Lipman, 2003). Burgh, Field and Freakley (2006, p. 31) list the characteristics of a community of inquiry as being:

- Inquiry aimed at knowledge and understanding,
- Intellectual risk-taking and self-correction,
- Co-operation, trust, tolerance and respect,
- A shared sense of puzzlement and wonder,

Student-centred dialogue,
Participants accepting responsibility for their own views, and
Students learning to think *for* themselves (as opposed to thinking *by*
themselves).

In this it can be noted that community has a dual aspect: “a rational structure for effective thinking and shared ideas, and a moral structure of mutual respect and shared democratic values” (Fisher, 2000, p. 55). It is these two elements of developing reasoning abilities and the development of social dispositions that make the community of inquiry so unique and beneficial to the educative experience (Velasco, 2001).

The dialogical exchange in a COI is vital and is both an individual and a social experience (Dewey, 1916; Vygotsky, 1962). In a dialogue, the goal is cooperative and constructivist where the process of meaning-making is part of a social endeavour, where knowledge is built in a cumulative and participatory way (Tan & Leong, 2006). The COI also assists in the promotion of dialectical thinking (where truths are tested through discussion and logical reasoning) and critical reasoning as students test their ideas in a public domain (Tan & Leong, 2006).

Aims of Philosophy in the Classroom

Educational philosophy may have many aims, as listed above, but in terms of this research programme the following aims of educational philosophy have been adopted: to increase and strengthen knowledge and understanding; to improve critical and creative thinking; to build community; to assist with personal and emotional development and; to improve language skills.

Knowledge and understanding. The knowledge and understanding that is gained and developed within Philosophy in the Classroom is very broad and will certainly have connections to other areas of the curriculum. Philosophy helps to deepen peoples’ understanding and knowledge of life’s big questions. These questions have been asked since the beginning of humankind and will continue to be asked. Engaging children in these questions and discussions provides them with a connection to people past, present and future. It is these questions and concepts, such as truth, life and death, responsibility, freedom, beauty and goodness, that are central to our lives as humans and are central to what we value and how we conduct our affairs (Cam, 2006b). Golding (2006, p. 1) argues that the epistemological aim of

philosophy in schools “is to make sense of ourselves, the disciplines, the world, what we learn and the relationships between these”.

Thinking. It is perhaps the thinking, and especially higher-order thinking, facet of philosophy that is best known and addressed in education circles. All schooling aims to increase cognitive growth and development, but few schools teach thinking as a demonstrably discrete element of the curriculum (Millet & Tapper, 2011), except those schools which engage with Philosophy in the Classroom. Data demonstrates that the deliberate teaching of thinking skills is crucial as without it young people will not be able to meet the complex demands of everyday life and work, with 70% of Australian 15-74 year-olds not demonstrating the ability to meet these complex demands (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). It is a complex, critical, creative and caring thinking that is required for Philosophy in the Classroom. The concept of critical and creative thinking is discussed in more detail later in this chapter under the productive pedagogy model of quality teaching, and caring thinking is also discussed elsewhere in this chapter. However I will raise a couple of points here. Lipman (2003; Lipman et al., 1980) believed that good thinking occurs through a praxis and not through technique, repetition or memorisation. To enable this praxis to occur, Lipman proposed the P4C curriculum with its shared narrative, question raising and dialogue components. The only way for the COI to progress in its discussion of questions is to ask questions, consider alternatives, make inferences, consider reasons and draw conclusions (Golding, 2006), all of which embody higher-order thinking.

Philosophy also emphasises thinking about thinking. While cognition is the ability of the brain to think, to process, to store, retrieve and use knowledge (Pritchard, 2005), metacognition, or thinking about thinking, is an individual’s awareness and understanding of his/her own cognitive processes. It is believed that an improved understanding of metacognition will result in more effective learning outcomes (Pritchard, 2005). Thus a teacher should not just be concerned about students’ acquisition of knowledge, but should be equally concerned with helping students gain better metacognitive skills.

Community. Philosophical inquiry provides a model of the inquiring community “that is engaged in thoughtful deliberation and decision-making, is driven by a desire to make advance through cooperation and dialogue, and values the

kinds of regard reciprocity that grow under its influence” (Cam, 2006b, p. 29). It is this democratic ethos which has been identified as being significant for education (see for example Dewey, 1916, 1964). For philosophers and scholars like George Herbert Mead and John Dewey, inquiry and learning go hand in hand. As Mead wrote: “the child does not become social by learning. He must be social in order to learn” (as quoted in Lipman, 2003, p. 84). For Dewey (1916), democracy is the processes and procedures associated with politics and government but it is equally comprised of a moral component that affects an individual’s relationships with others, their communities and all the peoples that live in these. In this way democracy is a political process mediated by the moral consciousness of its participants (Glina, 2009). The dialogic approach adopted in Philosophy in the Classroom has been seen as a way of promoting and supporting citizenship education (W. Barrow, 2010; Burgh et al., 2006). In a typical philosophical community of inquiry, the community itself is democratic in that it is inclusive of difference and involves interaction, as well as helping “to facilitate the development of caring, reasonable, and autonomous individuals who also recognize their interconnectedness with others” (Bleazby, 2006, p. 30).

Personal and emotional development. In the literature (see for example Daniel & Auriac, 2009; Haynes, 2008; Lindop, 1991; Sharp, 1991) one often reads about the aims and benefits of Philosophy in the Classroom in terms of its critical thinking and its social aspect, but yet we often read little about its impact on children’s self-development. There would be many who would argue that schools have a responsibility for developing a child’s physical and mental health, as well as social development (R. Barrow, 1999). A child’s personal development of which the development of positive self-esteem is crucial and should be seen as an important aim in education. Philosophy in the Classroom can assist in this process. “Definitively, self-esteem is the sum of confidence and respect one has for oneself, showing the judgement one has of one’s ability to face up to life and one’s right to be happy” (Lago, 1991, p. 12). The community of inquiry is an ideal framework for the development of children’s self-esteem in that it assists in developing confidence in an atmosphere of collaboration; it encourages self-correction and correction of others; it furthers autonomy and the capacity to think for oneself; and it increases psychological visibility and reinforces self-esteem through feedback (Lago, 1991;

UNESCO, 2007). It has also been argued that Philosophy in the Classroom can play a beneficial role in assisting the development of emotional intelligence (Gazzard, 2002).

Knowing what one is feeling and being able to express and communicate clearly the same have already been earmarked as important features of emotional intelligence. Without the psychological distance that philosophy can provide and without the enriched understanding it lends to any inquiry, it's hard to imagine how one could do either (Gazzard, 2002, p. 149).

Language. Thinking through speaking, which is the main part of the COI, develops children's linguistic capacities as they learn through intellectual and social verbal interactions how to formulate their thoughts before they express them verbally (UNESCO, 2007). In Philosophy in the Classroom, Vygotsky's (1962) theory of cognitive development, that is closely linked to social and cultural forces and where language and social interaction are crucial, is central to its practice. The starting point for each new inquiry in a philosophy session is a shared narrative, and this also plays a part in a child's language and literacy development, also including visual literacy.

Philosophy in Schools and Values Education

As noted earlier in this chapter there is growing concern regarding the problem of teaching values. A didactic approach is viewed as not optimum, in that the values may not become internalised and thus may not become a part of the value and belief systems of the students (Fisher, 2000). What children actually need in terms of values education is to learn that all moral acts have reasons and we, as teachers, need to provide them with the skills they will need to face moral problems and uncertainties in their lives ahead. As one eight-year-old put it: 'The trouble is people are telling you to do different things, and sometimes your mind tells you to do different things too!' (Fisher, 2000, p. 51).

Through Philosophy in the Classroom, as one example of a values-based pedagogy, and the participation in a community of inquiry children can learn how to reason, how to critically think, how to deal with diverse peoples and ideas, and cultivate good social habits that will enhance their moral, social and intellectual conduct. Philosophy in the Classroom is not simply a skills programme but is an approach to teaching and learning where philosophical thinking is enhanced (Davey Chesters, forthcoming).

In a community of inquiry students develop thinking, language and social skills. It helps children develop skills and dispositions that will enable them to be effective functioning members of a democratic and pluralistic society (Burgh et al., 2006; Fisher, 2000). Philosophical inquiry initiates children into dialogue concerning meanings and values and encourages them to think about reasoned moral judgements where they operate with respect for others, sincerity and open-mindedness and ultimately find their own path to meaning via a discussion with others (Fisher, 2000).

The process of inquiry with its dialogical exchange will be insufficient if there is an absence of others' values, beliefs and interests (Lipman et al., 1980). As well as the critical and creative thinking components of P4C, Lipman also argued for caring thinking. This is related to: (1) empathic care where we put ourselves into another's situation and experience that person's emotions as if they were our own; (2) appreciative thinking where we pay attention to what matters and in so doing display care that has genuine cognitive worth and is not just merely emotional (Lipman, 2003).

Benefits of Philosophy in Schools

The affective, cognitive, social and moral benefits derived from engaging in Philosophy in the Classroom are significant (see for example Topping & Trickey, 2007a; Topping & Trickey, 2007b; Trickey & Topping, 2004). It is an ideal way to ensure that highly valued critical and creative thinking skills (intellectual depth in the quality teaching parlance) are taught, developed and practised in the classroom. Secondly, it provides a connectedness to authentic learning and to problem based learning. Students learn to deal with conflict, whether it be cultural, social or ideological. Furthermore, it stimulates reflection and problem solving skills by allowing students to clarify issues through participating in a dialogical exchange as well as analysing their own, and others' points of view and values (Burgh et al., 2006). It encourages caring thinking and promotes moral reasoning, moral thinking and moral action. Philosophy in the Classroom insists upon the indissoluble bond between thinking and feeling (Lipman et al., 1980). After all when considering an ethical dilemma, sensitivity and empathy is required in order to appreciate what a situation requires and what might be appropriate for those particular circumstances. Thus the affective and the cognitive must be seen together and this certainly underlies Philosophy in the Classroom.

There is some anecdotal evidence from schools that have Philosophy in the Classroom as an integral part of their curriculum, such as Buranda State School in Queensland, that it contributes to whole school success in terms of consistently high academic achievement on national literacy and numeracy tests, compared with the state average (Hinton, 2003). A 2002/3 Scottish study demonstrated that as a result of weekly participation (one hour) over a period of 16 months, children gained, on average, six standard marks on a measure of cognitive abilities; increases in communication, confidence, concentration, participation and social behaviour (cited in Millet & Tapper, 2011). There is other evidence (Spooner-Lane, Curtis, & Mergler, 2010) which suggests that teachers see the pedagogy of *Philosophy in the Classroom*, and their role in facilitating the philosophical community of inquiry, as having a positive and significant influence on student learning, as well as contributing to their own professional growth as teachers.

Part Two: Quality Teaching

A good teacher makes a difference, with it being argued that “there is no more important empirical determinant of student outcomes than good teaching” (Barber & Mourshed, 2009, p. 27). The importance of preparing quality teachers has received increasing attention in contemporary society where standards of learning are higher than they ever have been (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage, 2005) and the realisation that an effective education system is central to the national interest (Bransford et al., 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Kalantzis & Harvey, 2004) has hit home. “This is the first time in history that the success, perhaps even the survival, of nations and people has been so tightly tied to their ability to learn” (Darling-Hammond, 2005, p. 2). High quality pedagogy that enables students to develop critical thinking and creative problem solving skills is vital. This is perhaps more important now than it was even ten years ago, as workplaces have undergone significant shifts in the conditions of technology, commerce and culture. Thus, this new economy requires a new type of person, someone who can be flexible, who is effective in working with others and who can work within an open culture across diverse cultural settings (Darling-Hammond, 2005; Kalantzis & Harvey, 2004). In short, society needs young people who have been taught these skills, values, knowledge and processes. Teaching this is much more demanding than teaching routine skills and knowledge (Bransford et al., 2005; Ministerial Council on

Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs, 2003). Governments are realising this and are allocating funding for supporting quality teaching programmes. In the US, education has received a \$100 billion economic-stimulus package (McNeil, 2010) beginning in 2009, with a proposal by President Obama that \$6 billion will be invested annually in the teaching profession (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Here in Australia, the federal government's *Smarter Schools National Partnership for Improving Teacher Quality* program has provided \$550 million over five years, 2008/09 to 2012/13, to support the improvement of the quality of the Australian teaching workforce (Department of Education Employment and Workplace Relations, 2011).

Defining Quality Teaching

Teacher excellence is an elusive concept and various definitions abound. Generally, much of the educational research literature surrounding the defining of 'expert' or 'quality' teachers has tended to focus on "technical, observable aspects of teaching" (Collinson, 1999). The NCLB act of 2001 defines an effective teacher as one who is highly qualified, and this in turn is defined "as one who possesses a bachelor's degree, full state certification or licensure, and prove that they know each subject they teach" (N. Brown, Morehead, & Smith, 2008, p. 169). So, a policymaker might define the qualities of an effective teacher in terms of a teacher's academic abilities. Research though defines it in a myriad of different ways, and sometimes this is representative of the concern in teacher education at the time of the research project or of the writing of the journal/book. For example, reading the literature on high-stakes testing, one might assume that a quality teacher is one who teaches effectively to the test. A student on the other hand might define a quality teacher as someone who challenges, who has high expectations, who encourages study, both on the surface and deeply (Hattie, 2009).

I would argue though that effective teachers are people who are competent across an array of domains including behaviour, cognition, content, character and knowledge of and sensitivity to cultural, social, political contexts and environments. Collinson (1999) defines teacher excellence in terms of a triad of knowledge: professional, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. Professional knowledge includes knowledge of subject-matter, curricular knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Interpersonal knowledge focuses on relationships with students, local community,

and the educational community and includes developing high levels of ‘people skills’. Whilst interpersonal knowledge focuses on relationships and human interactions, intrapersonal knowledge represents who we are. Intrapersonal knowledge needs to include an understanding of how our ethics, values and dispositions shape who we are and our lives. Good teaching is more than efficiency, more than competence, more than technique, more than knowledge, it involves the heart. “It is infused with pleasure, passion, creativity, challenge, and joy” (Hargreaves, 1997, p. 12). Hargreaves goes on to argue that in reading much of the educational change and reform literature one would never realize that teaching is a profoundly emotional enterprise and that “it is a labor of love” (Hargreaves, 1997, p. 16). Teaching is both a profession and a vocation and an effective teacher will demonstrate attributes that go far beyond a formal qualification (Bransford et al., 2005).

In this research programme quality teaching is defined as teaching that makes a positive difference in students’ learning and their lives, and this is based not only around factual knowledge but around social and personal knowing as well (Lovat, 2007a). In other words it is the balance between knowledge, behaviour and the affective (an holistic education) which are vital to quality teaching. Thus quality teaching is inextricably linked to holistic education where helping to develop students’ affective and moral skills and knowledge is just as important as the more traditional notion of knowledge and skills used to gain a good job. In this research programme the model of quality teaching that is used is a combination of the four dimensions of the Productive Pedagogies model (explained in detail later in this chapter) and a values dimension.

Figure 2.1
Quality Teaching Model used in this Research Programme



History of Quality Teaching

Until the 1950s quality teaching was related to a strong association with classroom discipline, control and competition (Crebbin, 2004). The teacher was seen as both the expert and the manager, and in this traditional model the focus was very much on the teacher. Thus the notion of “teaching equals learning” developed (Crebbin, 2004). During the second part of the twentieth century these notions began to be challenged, so much so that by 1976 the generally accepted assertion was that learning was an individual matter (Crebbin, 2004). Progressive teaching methods began to emphasise a child-centred approach, discovery learning, and cooperative learning (Arthur, 2003). Within this framework, ideas of multiple intelligences and individual learning styles strongly emerged. Education began to be more generally perceived as child-centred, and schools, such as Montessori, were specifically established based on this guiding philosophy. In this humanist stage of education the expectation that a teacher cared for his/her students became so firmly ingrained, “that it is now accepted as a fundamental principle” (Crebbin, 2004, p. 59). Teachers are now expected to focus on individuals and their learning and are required to have a diverse repertoire of pedagogical approaches that are appropriate for each individual student (Crebbin, 2004).

The watershed moment for quality teaching occurred in 1994 with the Carnegie Corporation's Task Force on Learning (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1994). This research was conducted in the primary grades, primarily with students ranging in age from three to ten years. The research team made site visits to 60 programmes in 30 different communities across the United States of America and engaged in both formal and informal discussions with parents, teachers, administrators and community leaders. The report noted that underachievement was a general problem across the United States and was not just a crisis of particular socio-economic and/or cultural groups. This research challenged the previously held belief that the differences in schools' performances was a result of differences in students' learning abilities, which were believed to be inherent (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1994). What the Carnegie research demonstrated was that it was schools (and therefore teachers) that were failing and not the students' ability, or lack thereof (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1994). This research led to further studies (see for example Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hattie, 2004; McKinsey and Company, 2007; Newmann & Associates, 1996; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997) where it was again demonstrated that the main variation in student learning is the quality of the teacher.

Dimensions of Quality Teaching and Quality Teachers

“The role of teachers goes well beyond its official remit, and a teacher for the twenty-first century must be equipped with a sophisticated range of skills and sensibilities” (Australian Council of Deans of Education Incorporated, 2005, p. 59). A teacher must possess knowledge, understanding and skills in content and pedagogy, but yet there is so much more to an effective teacher. An effective teacher will be supportive of his/her students; will develop strong relationships; will come to know his/her students as individuals; will have an understanding of the social and cultural contexts of the students'; and will model good behaviour, critical thinking and self-awareness. A simplified list of quality teaching dimensions might note such things as: intellectual depth, communicative capacity, empathic character, reflective powers, self-management, and self-knowing (Lovat & Toomey, 2007a). A quality teacher for the twenty-first century will be sensitive to diversity, will be able to work in teams, “will be intelligent in more than one way, able to learn and think in more than one way, and learn from and with people whose way of thinking, being and learning are different from their own” (Kalantzis, Cope, & Harvey, 2001, p. 96).

Teacher Presence

Ask people to describe a good teacher and people will describe many different characteristics, but one thing they all have in common is a connective capacity – a connection to their students, to the subject matter (Palmer, 1999) and I would add, a connection to themselves. Thus self-knowledge and effective relationships are two sides of the same coin. It is that which brings us to teacher ‘presence’. Teacher ‘presence’ is all about authentic teacher-student relationships where teachers “know and respond with intelligence and compassion to students and their learning” (Rodgers & Raider-Roth, 2006, p. 266). It can be defined as a state of awareness and connectedness where the teacher experiences the bringing of his/her whole self to full attention so as to perceive what is happening in the moment (Rodgers & Raider-Roth, 2006). It is more than simply being ‘present’ in the here and now, it is *being present to oneself* (Rodgers & Raider-Roth, 2006) and through this deeper connection with self, relationships with others are enhanced (Meijer, Korthagen, & Vasalos, 2009). Education is an interpersonal transaction (Adkins, 2006) and effective teaching “involves the cultivation of positive *personal* relationships with pupils” (Carr, 2005, p. 255).

Teacher-Student Relationships

Given that some research (van Petegem et al., 2008) has demonstrated the importance of the quality of teacher-student relationships on student wellbeing, it is important to consider this when discussing quality teaching. One of the principles of quality teaching is that teaching cannot be reduced to a single technique or formula, rather it is “the art of cultivating meaningful human relationships. It is a dialogue between teacher and student within a community of learners” (Miller, 1999, p. 196). Research (see for example: Hattie, 2004; Roeser, Eccles, & Sameroff, 2000; Rowe, 2004a) has demonstrated that quality teacher-student relationships are not a frill of schooling, they are an essential part of learning and have a direct impact on academic performance and behavioural outcomes (Cornelius-White, 2007; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004; Rogers, 1969). In a report on top performing schools (McKinsey and Company, 2007) it was noted that the only way to improve outcomes was to improve instruction, and learning occurs best when students and teachers interact positively, thus to improve student outcomes, the quality of teacher-student interaction must improve.

Think back to your teachers. Chances are you are firstly recalling them in terms of the kinds of people they were, rather than the actual content they taught you. This is because the first stage of learning and remembering is affective (Zajonc, 1980). I remember one of my Year 9 Teachers for the way she made half the class cry every Maths lesson and how I was so afraid of her and Maths that to this very day I have a fear of numbers. This relationship between the cognitive and the affective is commonplace and research (see for example Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon, & Roth, 2005; van Petegem et al., 2007; van Petegem et al., 2008) demonstrates that there is a direct link between how students feel about their teachers and how they perform in the classroom, and student wellbeing. Emotions are a significant part of the human make-up and they cannot be separated from learning. Thinking back to my example of my Maths teacher, the emotion of fear was so strong for me that this overrode my cognitive capacity to understand the subject matter being taught. “Students learn what they care about, from people they care about and who, they know, care about them” (Carson, 1996, p. 16). It is this relationship and personal connection between student and teacher that plays such a significant part in student growth and learning and it should not be underestimated. Indeed research has demonstrated that children who dislike school and often don’t want to go to school, do so primarily because they dislike their teacher (Cornelius-White, 2007).

Despite the stated importance of teacher-student relationships and its effect on quality education and student outcomes, many teachers do not emphasise the relational aspect of their work in the same way as students, parents and principals, instead teachers emphasise the function of a child’s attitude and dispositions as well as home and school conditions (Hattie, 2009). But the power of positive teacher-student relationships is critical for quality teaching and thus quality education for all students.

Dispositions

There are technical competencies that pre-service teachers must fulfill before completing their degrees, but does this necessarily make them good teachers? The discourse on teacher quality has largely focused on issues of knowledge and skill (Collinson, 1999; Thornton, 2006; Wenzlaff, 1998), but what about teacher dispositions? When reflecting back on teachers whom you remember as being

effective, chances are you remembering more who they were as human beings, and less of what they did. They probably exhibited certain characteristics, or dispositions, that helped you to trust and respect them to the extent that you “felt connected to them in some profound way that transcended the content of their instruction” (Kottler, Zehm, & Kottler, 2005, p. 3). Generally when speaking of dispositions in this research programme, it is referring to values, beliefs, attitudes, characteristics, professional behaviours and qualities, ethics and perceptions that help to define teacher performance (Thornton, 2006).

In order for teachers to be effective they must possess the necessary dispositions (Wenzlaff, 1998). Whilst these are certainly difficult to assess and to tick off on a list of competencies, teachers should be encouraged to examine themselves and their character and dispositions. Being aware of one’s own disposition is important to one’s teaching. For example, a teacher who might have a hot temper, if not self aware of this, may display this disposition to the students by reacting in an aggressive manner towards students who are misbehaving thus creating problems in the classroom. If, on the other hand, this teacher is self aware then he/she can take certain precautions and be conscious of this disposition thus ensuring that it does not contribute to creating a poor and unsupportive classroom environment.

Documentation of technical skills and content, are certainly much easier to assess and less open to subjectivity than dispositional characteristics. For instance, a good teacher must be responsive to the needs of his/her students. Dispositions for responsive teaching include such qualities as being attentive to individual students, being empathetic, being patient, and creating a supportive tone (Sherman, 2006). Since there is no magic formula, no list of applications, strategies or skills which can be learned when studying teaching methods, a responsive teaching disposition is in the hands of each individual teacher to determine how he/she will conduct him/herself when interacting with students and what will be said and done in a particular teaching moment. This communicative exchange is so important that it certainly warrants more quality attention given to it in teacher preparation programmes (Sherman, 2006). It is this disposition that counts for so much, because it is this that can either have a wonderfully positive or seriously negative impact on the students and the learning environment. This disposition cannot be separated from

instructional skill, but one must also see it as having a distinct quality all of its own (Sherman, 2006).

Teacher Expectations

It is widely accepted that teachers do form expectations about student ability and skill and that these expectations impact upon student achievement (Hattie, 2009). A 1980 study by Smith noted that when teachers are given labelling information regarding student achievement they reliably rate student ability, achievement and behaviour according to this information (cited in Hattie, 2009). But this is not just a phenomenon related to individual students as Rubie-Davies' (2006) research demonstrated - when teachers hold low expectations they often do so for all the students in the class. Research has also suggested that students are aware of this and know, accurately, when they are treated differentially due to teacher expectations (Babad, Bernieri, & Rosenthal, 1991; Hattie, 2009). This demonstrates that teachers' expectations need to be challenging, appropriate and checkable (Hattie, 2009) so that they have a positive rather than a negative effect on student motivation and outcomes. In order to have high expectations, teachers need to be concerned about the nature of their relationships with their students and truly value these.

Care in Education

Many philosophers and educationalists have over the years discussed different concepts of caring (see for example Carr, 2005; Gilligan, 1982; Heidegger, 1962) but it is the definition posited by Noddings (1984, 2005a) that this research programme is adopting. Essentially, Noddings (1984, 2005a) refers to caring as relational, thus in its most basic form it is a connection or an encounter between two human beings: a carer and a cared-for. She also argues that to be cared for is a basic human desire, thus in a school situation all students want to be cared for – they want to feel important and respected as individuals. When discussing care in education Noddings (1984) posits that there are four major components: modelling, dialogue, practise and confirmation.

There is no formula for caring. To respond as a genuine carer, one cannot say, 'Oh, this student needs some care, I will now prescribe the five step process I learnt in my education degree.' It doesn't work like that, rather it "is a way of being in relation, not a set of specific behaviours" (Noddings, 2005a, p.17). Thus, *modelling*

is crucial and a teacher has to demonstrate how to care in his/her own relations with the cared-for.

Dialogue is the next essential component for care in education. Dialogue here refers not just simply to talk or conversation, but to something that is open-ended where neither party knows what the outcome will be (Davey Chesters, forthcoming). Lipman (2003) argues that a dialogue aims for disequilibrium, as opposed to a conversation whose aim is equilibrium, in order to create new understanding to the particular topic which is being discussed. It is in this process of dialoguing that a teacher is engaging the student in something that is as deeply emotional as it is cognitive (Shulman, 2000). So as well as encouraging critical thinking it also serves to connect the classroom community and helps to develop and maintain caring relations. Unfortunately though there is little of this real dialogue in classrooms (Noddings, 2005a) with typical talk patterns in classrooms following the teacher initiation, student response, teacher evaluation formula. It is estimated that the typical teacher asks between 30 and 120 questions an hour, which equates to approximately 15 million questions over a teaching career (Sadker & Sadker, 2006). With this many questions the interpersonal reasoning that is so much a part of real dialogue would for the most part be lacking and it is this interpersonal reasoning that contributes to the growth and development of care.

The third component is *practice*. Values and attitudes, at least in part, can be shaped by experience (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009; Noddings, 2005a). If schools value caring then they need to find ways to increase and develop this capacity within their community. In Australia, the *Values Education Good Practice Schools Project* (VEGPSP) was launched and funded by the federal government as part of the *National Framework for Values Education in Australian Schools* to do just that – discover ways that schools could achieve values in education in practice (Department of Education Employment and Workplace Relations, 2009). The research findings of this project led to the conception of values education not as a component part of the curriculum such as ‘moral education’ or ‘character education’, but rather as a way of shaping the whole school experience, including the curriculum, teaching and learning opportunities, relationships and the entire way the school functions (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009). Service learning is one popular way to ensure practice in caring, but there is a whole host of formal and informal

school projects that would allow children and adolescents the opportunity to practice caring, such as gardening projects, mentoring and tutoring, class pets, fundraising and so forth.

Noddings' final component of caring in education is *confirmation*, which is "an act of affirming and encouraging the best in others" (Noddings, 2005a, p. 25). This act of confirmation can only occur when we know the other person well enough to see what he/she is trying to become. Thus, it is quite separate from a single set of ideals for every member of the class, instead the teacher needs to see each child as an individual and identify something admirable struggling to emerge. Like everything related to care in education there is no set formula, rather a relation of trust is necessary.

Expert Teachers

Hattie (2004) notes a distinction between expert and experienced teachers and in his study he identified five major dimensions of excellent, or in other words, quality teachers. This claim came from a review of over 500, 000 studies plus he evaluated his model in over 300 classrooms in the United States. He posits that these teachers can

- A identify essential representations of their subject
- B guide learning through classroom interactions,
- C monitor learning and provide feedback,
- D attend to affective attributes, and
- E influence student outcomes

(Hattie, 2004, p. 26).

In dissecting these five dimensions further, in Dimension A expert and experienced teachers do not differ in the amount of knowledge in terms of subject, curriculum or teaching strategies, but expert teachers stand out in terms of *how* they use this knowledge, in terms especially of making lessons uniquely their own by changing, adapting and combining according to their goals and their students' needs. Expert teachers, it was also noted, are much more highly responsive to their students' needs and they are able to react more spontaneously than other teachers. In terms of Dimension B, expert teachers "build climates where error is welcomed, where student questioning is high, where engagement is the norm, and where students can

gain reputations as effective learners” (Hattie, 2004, p. 28). Quality teachers are also more adept at anticipating and preventing disturbances and they are better able to interpret, monitor and understand, which as a consequence means that their feedback (Dimension C) is better, more powerful and more insightful. Dimension D with its focus on affective attributes is very clearly linked to values. In this dimension Hattie notes that expert teachers have high respect for their students, in particular respecting them as learners as well as individuals. Expert teachers care for their students, they are receptive to their students’ needs, they do not dominate and they share their passion for teaching and learning. Lastly in Dimension E, expert teachers develop and encourage their students in self-regulation, mastery learning, self-efficacy and self-esteem. From this study Hattie (2004) concluded that it is pedagogical content knowledge and the way this is used that is a key distinguishing feature of quality teachers.

Productive Pedagogy Model of Quality Teaching

The Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (QSRLS) (The University of Queensland, 2001) produced a model of Productive Pedagogies (PP) to describe quality teaching. This model uses four dimensions: intellectual quality; connectedness; supportive classroom environment; and recognition of difference and all four dimensions are essential for improved student outcomes.

Intellectual Quality

The first of the PP dimensions is intellectual quality and it may be described in a variety of ways through a variety of criteria. One of the first groundbreaking studies in intellectual quality and school reform defined intellectual quality, or what they called authentic achievement, in terms of three criteria: construction of knowledge; disciplined inquiry and; value of learning beyond school (Newmann & Associates, 1996). Then within those three criteria, four standards were included: higher order thinking (construction of knowledge); deep knowledge (disciplined inquiry); substantive conversation (disciplined inquiry) and; connection to the world beyond the classroom (value beyond school) (Newmann & Associates, 1996). These same features identified by Newmann were also utilised in the Productive Pedagogies framework that emerged from the QSRLS.

Intellectual quality as one of the primary needs for education has been debated for a long time in the research literature, despite this though there is research (see for example Hayes, Mills, Christie, & Lingard, 2006; Newmann & Associates, 1996) to suggest that many of the tasks students are expected to engage in such as note-taking, completing worksheet or textbook activities do not require much intellectual quality.

Within the intellectual quality dimension of the Productive Pedagogies framework are higher-order thinking; deep knowledge; deep understanding; substantive conversation; knowledge as problematic and; metalanguage (The University of Queensland, 2001). Out of all four of the quality teaching dimensions the QSRLS (The University of Queensland, 2001) noted that greater stress needed to be given to teachers' goals in terms of developing students' intellectual quality.

Higher-order thinking. In the PP framework higher-order thinking requires “students to manipulate information and ideas in ways that transformed their meanings and implications” (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 42). This manipulation allows students to discover meanings and understandings and solve problems, thus actively constructing their own knowledge. In assisting students with this, the QSRLS noted that a teacher's main instructional task was to create activities/environments that provided students with opportunities to engage in higher-order thinking (The University of Queensland, 2001), and this means allowing for an element of uncertainty and unpredictability in the instructional and outcome processes.

Deep knowledge and deep understanding. Deep knowledge refers to the central ideas and concepts of a particular topic and requires the students to display a holistic understanding rather than a recitation of fragmented information. Deep understanding is closely linked to deep knowledge where the students demonstrate their deep knowledge by “discovering relationships, solving problems, constructing explanations, and drawing conclusions” (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 43).

Knowledge as problematic. The next PP item within the intellectual quality dimension is a student's ability to present knowledge as problematic. This involves an ability to understand information is not fixed but is constructed and subjective according to political, social and cultural influences and implications.

Substantive conversation. Another key to helping students gain intellectual quality is a classroom where substantive conversation (considerable teacher-student

and student-student exchanges) plays a central role. This means the focus should be away from lecture style teacher deliveries with short responses from teachers. This is seen as an important element by Noddings (2005a) and one that was discussed earlier in this chapter under the heading of Care in Education. Group interactions are an important aspect of effective learning with a strong association found between student achievement and group interactions, especially when the interactions involved giving a high-level of explanation and/or elaboration (Webb, 1989 as cited in Topping & Trickey, 2007b).

Metalanguage. The final item is metalanguage, which refers to teaching with high levels of talk and discussion regarding talk, writing, specific technical vocabulary, syntax, grammar, semantics, and genre. Teachers who effectively use metalanguage have been found to pull back from activities and foreground such elements as words, sentences, text features, and discourses (Hayes et al., 2006).

Critical and creative thinking. Critical and creative thinking is another term that is used in much of the educational literature and is worth discussing here under intellectual quality, in that it is thinking that goes beyond the routine. I'll firstly discuss them separately and then together as one form.

Critical thinking contains the ability to think effectively and fair-mindedly regarding one's own beliefs as well as those which are diametrically opposed, and not just to think about them but to explore and appreciate them, and it involves skills, attitudes and passions – it permeates one's life (Paul, 1993). In this way it is reflective of Socrates' *examined life*. Whilst there is no single agreed definition of critical thinking there is agreement that it includes reasoning, analysis, argument, formal logic, it is both a skill and a disposition (Daniel & Auriac, 2009; Davey Chesters, forthcoming), and it is emotive as well as rational.

Critical thinking often appears as an educational aim in schools' prospectuses and many educational textbooks have been written to assist teachers guide, promote and evaluate critical thinking. Noddings (2006), cautions against this formulaic approach to critical thinking, warning that if it is taught in this way it just becomes another lesson – something to be assessed and ticked off and then after moving onto something else, forgotten. There is also the chance that if the approach is too rigid creative thinking will suffer.

It is important to distinguish between being creative and being a creative thinker (Lipman, 2003). A teacher may be creative in the use of pedagogical approaches to teaching but may not necessarily be teaching for creative thinking. There are many characteristics of creative thinkers, but Lipman (2003) postulated twelve summaries of values that he considered to be generic of creative thinking: originality; productivity; imagination; independence; experimentation; holism; expression; self-transcendence; surprise; generativity; maieuticity; inventiveness. Much of creative thinking therefore can be seen to be built upon the concepts of wondering, questioning, speculating and inventing (Davey Chesters, forthcoming).

Critical thinking does not necessarily exclude creative thinking, but often when critical thinking is discussed, even by leaders in the field such as Dewey and Ennis, the creative side is far less emphasised than its critical partner (Cam, 1995). It was Matthew Lipman, educationalist and philosopher, who whilst basing his work on Dewey's notion of reflective thinking, developed an argument that excellent thinking is critical, creative and complex (Lipman, 2003). "Children who think for themselves are both critical and creative thinkers. They value logical and conceptual thinking, but they also enjoy speculating, imagining, inventing, discovering and wondering" (Splitter & Sharp, 1995, p. 97). Lipman actually refers to this thinking as higher-order thinking.

A Supportive Classroom Environment

The next dimension within the PP framework is a supportive classroom environment. The data collected from the QSRLS demonstrated that teachers scored most highly on supportive classroom environment out of the four dimensions (The University of Queensland, 2001), as well as most often identifying this dimension as an important aspect of a good classroom (Hayes et al., 2006). The items contained within this dimension, as noted by the PP framework, are: academic engagement; student self-regulation; student direction of activities; social support and; explicit criteria.

Academic engagement. Academic engagement can be identified by on-task behaviours that demonstrate attentiveness, engaging with the assigned task, showing initiative by raising questions, contributing to group work and assisting peers (Hayes et al., 2006).

Self-regulation. Student self-regulation is closely linked to classroom and behaviour management. In a classroom where students display self-regulated behaviour there will be a noticeable lack of teacher intervention with statements such as ‘Sit down’, ‘Cease your chatter’, ‘Eyes to the front’.

Student direction of activities. This next item occurs when students have a direct influence on the tasks undertaken in the classroom. These tasks are more likely to be student-centred and involve research/investigative activities. The QSRLS did note that whilst overall the supportive classroom environment dimension was present to a high degree there was actually very little evidence to suggest student direction of activities (Hayes et al., 2006).

Social support. Social support can be identified in a classroom where the teacher demands high expectations of all students. In having these high expectations though, the teacher creates an environment where it is safe to take intellectual risks and where all members of the class have mutual respect for each other. In such an environment students should feel safe from bullying and intimidating behaviours and from comments that are discouraging and/or disparaging. If conflict did emerge in a socially supportive classroom, it would be expected that the teacher would assist the class to resolve the issue in a constructive way that involves the whole classroom community.

Explicit criteria. The final item is explicit criteria, in which “frequent, detailed and specific statements about the nature of high-quality student achievement” (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 63) would be present. This criterion has strong links to assessment where it is essential that teachers produce quality criteria that closely match the task being undertaken and that students are very much aware of this criteria. The criteria should make expectations explicit and this must clearly relate to what constitutes high quality performance and not simply completed work (The University of Queensland, 2001). This also has links to social justice issues where it is important that teachers moderate across year levels within a school and also with other schools in the area.

Connectedness

This dimension of the PP research considers the extent to which classrooms are connected to the world beyond its walls. The elements within this dimension,

knowledge integration; background knowledge; connectedness to the world and; a problem-based curriculum, all seek to demonstrate connections between bodies of knowledge as well as to connections with the world outside the classroom. It is within this dimension that students should be seen to be developing skills and knowledge in the context of real-life problem solving.

Knowledge integration. Knowledge integration can be identified when a teacher explicitly connects two or more sets of subject area knowledge, or where a holistic curriculum is evident and there are no subject boundaries that are readily identifiable.

Background knowledge. A classroom that provides students with opportunities to create connections between their social, cultural and family experiences and the topics, skills and competencies being studied is one where background knowledge is utilised. Within this element considerations and connections are made to such things as students' personal experiences, popular culture, media, community knowledge, and cultural knowledge.

Connectedness to the world. Connectedness to the world relates to the extent to which a class demonstrates "value and meaning beyond the pedagogical context" (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 55). Students should be able to demonstrate connectedness by working on real-world problems as well as utilising their personal experiences.

Problem-based curriculum. The last element of connectedness is a problem-based curriculum. To ensure this a teacher needs to present the class with problems that have no specified correct solution. This requires students to develop knowledge construction as well as sustaining students' attention for more than a single lesson.

Recognition of Difference

This dimension of working with and valuing difference is seen as being crucial in order to effectively develop academic and social outcomes of all students, including marginalised ones (Hayes et al., 2006). It is in this final dimension that active citizenship and thoughts about a future society are considered. The elements that make up this dimension are: cultural knowledge; inclusivity; narrative; group identities in a learning community and; active citizenship.

Cultural knowledge. Cultural knowledge is seen as being valued when there is "explicit valuing in the classroom of the non-dominant culture's beliefs, languages,

practices and ways of knowing” (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 68). A classroom that has effective cultural knowledge will value all cultures and will ensure that more than one culture is present and valued. By ensuring this element exists within a classroom, students should recognise, include and transmit different cultural knowledge.

Inclusivity. The inclusivity element within this dimension refers to the degree which non-dominant groups are represented in classroom practices. A critical aspect of education is working with and valuing difference (Hayes et al., 2006; Landorf, Rocco, & Nevin, 2007).

Narrative. Narrative is marked by an “emphasis in teaching and in student responses on structures and forms” (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 69), such as personal stories, biographies, historical accounts and literary and cultural texts.

Group identities in a learning community. This refers to contemporary social theory where there is an emphasis on the creation of “learning communities in which difference and group identities are positively recognised and developed within a collaborative and supportive classroom community (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 69). If this is to be effectively achieved it needs to extend beyond a simple tolerance to a positive and legitimate understanding and valuing of multiple identities and cultures.

Active citizenship. Finally, active citizenship demonstrates acknowledgement of the democratic right of all to engage and to participate and to ensure that no individual or group is excluded. This can be seen in a classroom context where the teacher elaborates on the meaning of citizenship and facilitates it in a practical sense both within and without the classroom. Global education provides a wonderful opportunity for students to engage in active citizenship, as too does service learning where links are made between moral, intellectual and civic life, the academic course, and service learning objectives with real community needs (Landorf et al., 2007).

Relationship between Quality Teaching and Values in Education

Quality teaching is underpinned by a values framework, consisting of general morals as well as specific values related to classroom climate and the nature of learning (Campbell, Kyriakides, Muijs, & Robinson, 2004). The French sociologist and philosopher, Emile Durkheim (1925) sees education as having a social function and he argues that the classroom is a small society and therefore has its own morality (Campbell et al., 2004). Each classroom is a mini community, meaning that it is “a

complex network of social units with overlapping systems of laws, goods and traditions” (Colnerud, 2006, p. 375), and within this network there are inevitably and inextricably morals and values. The American educational sociologist, Willard Waller (1932), argues that teachers represent particular ideals within the community (Campbell et al., 2004). It is both of these arguments that Campbell et al (2004) use to demonstrate that teaching has a moral framework. Whilst conceptions of particular values will change over time and between different societies and cultures (Campbell et al., 2004) the fact remains that quality teaching and values are inextricably linked.

In Australia, Lovat, Toomey, and Clement (Clement, 2007; Lovat, 2007a; Lovat & Clement, 2008; Lovat & Toomey, 2007a, 2007b; Toomey, 2006, 2007a) have undertaken much research and written extensively on the link between values education and quality teaching. It was noted during the research phase undertaken by the Australian Council of Deans Education (ACDE), commissioned by the Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) that many teachers saw a positive link between their attempts at values education and the quality of teaching and learning that was now occurring in their classrooms and schools (Lovat & Toomey, 2007a). A teacher’s task is to transform and “the importance of school-based Values Education in undertaking this task cannot be overstated” (Lovat, 2007a, p. 9). Values in education has been noted to have a power beyond a narrow definition in terms of morality and citizenship – it is “seen to be at the centre of all that a committed teacher and school could hope to achieve through teaching.” (Lovat & Toomey, 2007b, p. xiv). Thus values education has been identified as the missing link in quality teaching (Lovat & Toomey, 2007b).

This link between values and quality teaching has also been noted by Carr (2007). He argues that many teaching and classroom problems are not always a result of failures to implement effective teaching pedagogies but rather can be traced to factors that have more to do with attitudes and motivation. “We remember teachers more for the kinds of persons that they were than for anything they may have taught us” (Carr, 2007, p. 369). Thus, he argues that values education is “constitutive of good teaching” (Carr, 2007). Teaching is much more than efficient instruction, and the literature and research on values education certainly supports this belief. One must start to recognise that values is not an ‘added extra’, instead it is at the very

core of quality teaching (Clement, 2007). So if society wants better education for its youth, then it must look to pre-service teacher education. It is in these programmes that we must ensure that quality teaching and values education are explicitly modelled, taught and practised.

“‘Don’t try to teach a pig to sing,’ said a teacher once. ‘It’s a waste of your time, and it irritates the pig!’ Such sentiments nicely capture the feelings many teachers harbor about teaching morality” (Totterdell, 2000, p. 128). Having said this though, most teachers would agree that education is a moral endeavour and not a values neutral one (Totterdell, 2000) and most would recognize that values are central to their daily work as a teacher (Toomey, 2006), but that values are usually transmitted in an implicit way. Research by Patry and Hoffmann (1998, as cited in Patry et al., 2007) demonstrated that most teachers claim that they would like to teach moral and social education as well as critical thinking and autonomy, but at the same time also stated that the reality is they teach these far less than subject matter and dealing with disciplinary issues. Thus the challenge is for values to become an explicit aspect of teaching and learning as well as something that is deemed to be of importance in and of itself, instead of being seen as an extra add-on that isn’t given any proper time or consideration.

Before embarking upon teaching and imparting values to students, it is essential that teachers assess their own values and consider how these are demonstrated in the classroom. But yet within the values education debate, one consistently overlooked factor is the impact of teachers’ values on classroom teaching (Brady, 2011). One such example might be when a teacher is considering the seating plan for the class – what values does the seating plan represent? What different values are shown between having a seating plan that consists of having students in rows, as opposed to a circle, as opposed to small clusters of desks? What does this then say about how the teacher values the students and the students’ sense of responsibility? (J. H. McLeod & Reynolds, 2007) So, even before any discussion on the explicit teaching of values occurs, one needs to consider the values that teachers engage with in almost every aspect of their teaching and the classroom environments they are establishing and fostering. Each teacher needs to consider how he/she views the world and how that view influences his/her teaching and learning, thus a need for each teacher to develop a personal philosophy of education is vital (J.

H. McLeod & Reynolds, 2007). It is also this clarification that will help to strengthen the individual's aims in teaching, as well as presumably tie in with the broader aims of education.

Values might often be taught 'on the spur of the moment', for example some students might be constantly missing out on valuable resources in the library or computer time during a research phase in a Modern History unit. This might lead the teacher to discuss the value of a fair go and respect and sharing. Values go hand in hand with the skills of classroom interaction, for example cooperative group work necessitates skills and values of listening, speaking clearly, responding, questioning, discussing and negotiating. If these values are not upheld then it will have a detrimental effect on the success of the group work and the subsequent learning outcomes. Values permeates all aspects of teaching, from the emphasis given to specific subjects or content matter; the forms of assessment and evaluation; the ways, and frequency, students are praised and/or sanctioned and the relationships that are formed (Fierro Evans, 2005). Values are a part of the classroom atmosphere (J. H. McLeod & Reynolds, 2007). Teaching is about relationships and at the core of any successful relationship are values such as trust, respect, and caring.

Students learn to clarify their values and behaviours best when they are actively involved in their learning environment (Doyle, 1986; Kounin, 1970). Quality teachers will encourage their students to recognise and discover socially acceptable values and goals and then to examine and reflect on these. With repeated experiences of this, students are taught to move from the general to the specific principle or concept with which they guide their choices and actions. This behaviour as well as being considerate of values is also teaching the students problem-solving and thinking skills as well as the important skill of reflection (Guy, Spalding, & Westcott, 1961).

Values – A Fifth Dimension

Given all of this research into the links between quality teaching and values and the benefits that can be gained from an explicit inclusion of values in teacher education, in this present study I have added a fifth dimension to the existing four PP dimensions of quality teaching. So as well as intellectual quality, a supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference and connectedness, I have added a

values dimension. This dimension of values, includes teachers' values, beliefs and attitudes, teacher dispositions, teacher-student relationships and teacher expectations. These were discussed in detail earlier in this chapter under the heading of dimensions of quality teaching and quality teachers, but I will briefly reiterate a few pertinent points here.

Teachers' Values, Beliefs and Attitudes

A teacher's values, beliefs and attitudes about a myriad of things, but especially concerning teaching and learning, will have an impact on their teaching choices, pedagogies, classroom management, student-teacher relationships, and so much more. It is important for individuals to be able to clearly articulate their beliefs so that the process of understanding one's own beliefs and how this will impact upon one's instructional decisions and practices (Collinson, 1996) is able to develop. Every day teachers face, in their normal classroom routine, a "complex tangle of moral and logistical problems for which there are no pre-prescribed or off-the-peg rules" (Carr, 2006, p. 175), instead teachers are required to utilise their own beliefs, values and attitudes to work out what may work well in the particular situation at that particular point in time. Thus self-understanding and awareness of these values, attitudes and beliefs is absolutely key.

Teacher Dispositions

Teacher dispositions in the literature are also referred to by the terms, 'temperament', 'traits' and 'habits' (Dottin, 2009). Open-mindedness is a key attribute of an effective learner and an important disposition necessary for good thinking (Collinson, 1996) and as such is necessary for a quality teacher. Care, could also be described as an ideal disposition for teachers to possess and is widely believed to be a central facet of teaching (see for example Goldstein & Lake, 2000; Noddings, 2001, 2005a). Research notes that many teachers actually decide to enter the teaching profession because of a strong commitment to caring for children and then proceed to discover that it becomes a significant source of professional satisfaction for them (Goldstein & Lake, 2000). Other dispositions which could be considered worthwhile for a teacher to possess are a passion for learning (Eisner, 2006); virtue (Osguthorpe, 2008) and the desire to make a difference (Eisner, 2006). Schussler, Bercaw and Stooksberry (2008, p. 106) contend that exemplary teaching "lies at the intersection of three domains of dispositions – intellectual, cultural,

moral”. However one defines teacher dispositions, it is important to be aware of these and to foster positive dispositions that allow for caring relationships with students to develop (Noddings, 1984, 2005a; Schussler et al., 2008).

Teacher-Student Relationships

Building strong relationships is crucial to quality teaching and quality student outcomes, as well as student, and indeed teacher, wellbeing. This relationship building implies agency, efficacy, respect by the teacher for what the child brings to the class and allowing the experiences of each individual child to be recognised and valued within the classroom (Hattie, 2009). Research has demonstrated that the quality of the teacher-child relationship may either facilitate or inhibit a child’s successful adjustment to school; as well as either promoting or hindering learning (Birch & Ladd, 1996; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004). The notion of care, discussed earlier in this chapter, is also key in the development of strong, positive relationships.

Quality Teaching and Philosophy in the Classroom

The quality teaching dimensions of intellectual quality, a supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference, connectedness and values, as outlined above, can all be demonstrated through the implementation of Philosophy in the Classroom. This research programme has chosen Philosophy in the Classroom as one example of an explicit values-based pedagogy that is an ideal way of promoting quality teaching and thus quality education.

Intellectual Quality

Philosophy in the Classroom enables students to develop skills such as higher order thinking, deep knowledge and understanding, substantive conversation and metalanguage and for the students to practise these in a safe and supportive environment. In a philosophy lesson the teacher is a facilitator and does not provide students with answers – the students must think for themselves. But more than that the nature of the students’ thinking is critical, creative and complex (Lipman, 2003). Studies have demonstrated that children’s engagement in a philosophical community of inquiry does lead to increased academic achievement with one study reporting a 60% increase in children’s language comprehension and 30% increase in mathematical computation (McCall, 2009). Philosophy has a language all of its own and part of the Philosophy in the Classroom approach is that students learn to use this

metalanguage from a very young age. The dialogic aspect of philosophy is central and is true dialogue in the Socratic sense that there is a deep listening by all, it goes beyond a discussion or conversation, and its aim is to progress towards truth. Philosophy and its associated skills and dispositions help to decrease teacher talk and to increase pupil talk, with one study demonstrating that on average of the eight schools studied the ratio of pupil talk increased as a result of philosophy from 41% to 66% (Topping & Trickey, 2007b). This same study also found that the use of Philosophy in the Classroom improved: teacher open-ended questioning; proportion of teacher talk; pupil reasoned responses to others' views and; pupil reasoned support of his/her own view (Topping & Trickey, 2007b).

A Supportive Classroom Environment

The creation of a supportive learning environment is a crucial aspect of a successful community of inquiry. There are strict ground rules for a community of inquiry session – participants sit in a circle facing each other, they must actively listen to each other, interrupting and dominating the session is to be avoided, respecting one another is vital, differences of opinion are accepted and encouraged- over time these rules become internalised by the students. The community of inquiry is based on the students' questions and during the inquiry process all participants must actively listen to each other, showing respect for each member and the diverse ideas and opinions that accompany this. This respect is extremely important as often sensitive topics, feelings, personal experiences and emotions will be shared within the community, and care, empathy and respect are required. This in turn leads to the production of high quality thinkers who are more caring members of society who accept differences and empathise with others, as well being able to scrutinise problems and dilemmas in a reasoned manner (Spooner-Lane et al., 2010).

Within Philosophy in the Classroom students develop empathy, self-regulation, and self-esteem (Curtis, 2010). Teachers who utilise the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy have noticed increased participation levels from students within philosophy lessons, and this is especially so for children who may experience learning difficulties or whom are naturally shy and reticent (Spooner-Lane et al., 2010). Along with this increased student self-regulation and self-confidence comes a positive impact on student behaviour management. Teachers who utilise Philosophy in the Classroom in their classes have noticed enhancement of the overall learning

environment within the class that they attribute to Philosophy in the Classroom, with one teacher noting:

You often find that it's the kids that pull other kids into line. They do not do. The kids do not do, but they'll talk to the kid next to them and say, 'Excuse me, we have got a job to do, let's go and do it' (quoted in Spooner-Lane et al., 2010, p. 388).

Connectedness

A philosophical community of inquiry (COI) is a participatory community where all members must work cooperatively and collaboratively to build on others' ideas. A strong part of connectedness is the ability to make connections to the world outside the classroom. The subject matter in philosophy does just this through its addressing of the 'big' philosophical and values-laden questions of life. Philosophy encourages the search for creative ideas, as well as diverse opinions and viewpoints. Dewey argued that reflective thought "is truly educative in value" (Dewey, 1991, p. 2) and philosophy teaches children this. Through the discussion of life's big questions "both teachers and students take ideas and concepts discussed and reflected upon and translate them into all aspects of their lives, making them truly reflective, self-regulated and life-long learners" (Curtis, 2010, p. 113). Students also make positive connections to one another as a result of their participation in a community of inquiry with one young student commenting: "I love Philosophy because it lets me see into other people's minds" (as quoted in Zbar & Toomey, 2006, p. 116)

Recognition of Difference

The majority of communities develop among groups of people because of shared views, beliefs or perspectives, but a philosophical COI is different in that members do not necessarily share similar views, interests, beliefs and perspectives, but actually delight in holding different ones (McCall, 2009). So through participation in a philosophical community of inquiry members develop respect, tolerance, understanding and empathy of difference and actually delight in encountering views and ideas that are different and even contradictory from their own as this then allows for the enjoyment of discovering and creating new ideas and beliefs.

Each philosophy session has its roots in a narrative that is then clarified and critically examined in terms of values and principles that are raised from this stimulus. In doing so, students develop “a curiosity about differences between people, at the same time learning empathy, tolerance and respect by being active members of a philosophical community where differences are not only recognised but are embraced” (Curtis, 2010, p. 113). One of the perceived benefits of a values education is for students to “go beyond their known value sets to explore other values systems, beliefs and understandings” (Bereznicki, Brown, Toomey, & Weston, 2008) and philosophy allows just this.

Active citizenship is a key criterion of the PP dimension of recognition of difference. It is also one of the key statements for learning for civics and citizenship where students are expected to explore rights and responsibilities of citizens as well as possess the knowledge, skills and values required to participate in a democratic society (Curriculum Corporation, 2006). For Dewey, democracy is a way of life marked by interplay between community members in a spirit of cooperation (Cam, 2006a). Tie this to Lipman’s notion that “we have got to learn how to teach children to think for themselves if we are to have a democracy worth having” (Lipman, 2003, p. 35) and it becomes clear that Philosophy in the Classroom focuses on critical thinking and a community of inquiry in order to produce effective and active citizens of the future. Within a philosophical COI children need to demonstrate a disposition to reason, combined with skills in reasoning, which is exactly the same disposition and skills that are required for a person to be an effective citizen (McCall, 2009). Philosophy in the Classroom incorporates Deweyian notions of the self and democracy, along with the Vygotskian notion of learning as social interaction. Dewey argued that for an individual to engage in reflective thinking that promoted autonomy and personal growth, required an open, pluralistic, inquiring community, which he called a democracy, and that is exactly what a philosophical community of inquiry is (Bleazby, 2006). A philosophical community of inquiry focused on immediate problems of a moral and ethical nature in the learner’s world, like practical democracy, equips the students with skills of active citizenship and helps to contribute to their growth in helping them become the future participants and leaders of communities (Burgh et al., 2006). Encouraging students to consider and ponder philosophical questions encourages them to actively interrogate their own, other

members of their community, and society's values and beliefs (Burgh & O'Brien, 2002).

Values

Closely linked to this notion of effective and active citizenship is the notion of values and moral virtue. In a philosophical COI everything is open to question, which is also vital for a functioning democracy, so questions relating to ethics, truth, consequences and implications of solutions are all crucial (McCall, 2009). So an inquiry may raise questions concerning the nature of a particular moral action and in discussing this the COI will be considering "the intention of the actor; the action itself; and the consequences of the action", but then it will go beyond this to discuss the action itself in considering "what is meant by 'action'?; is there such a thing as unintentional action?; and is it possible to judge the intention of another person at all?" (McCall, 2009, p. 181). In discussing these, the participants of the COI will be discussing values, beliefs and moral virtues. The VEGPSP report noted that at schools who implemented Philosophy in the Classroom in the project, staff reported on the positive impact that these lessons had on the students in terms of now better understanding the national values (Zbar & Toomey, 2006). These same teachers also noted the positive impact the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy had on students' attitudes and behaviours and this was extended beyond philosophy lessons to other curriculum areas and outside of the classroom at school assemblies (Zbar & Toomey, 2006).

Positive relationships are a vital component of quality teaching and these can be enhanced through the use of Philosophy in the Classroom. All COI participants are equal within the community and all value and respect each person which is very helpful in developing and maintaining strong relationships. Some anecdotal evidence (Spooner-Lane et al., 2010) collected from interviewing teachers engaged in utilising Philosophy in the Classroom suggests that this particular values-based pedagogy gives teachers the opportunity to 'walk the talk' and for teachers to model and embed "the practice of values and valuing in the process" (Toomey et al., 2010a, p. x). Student relationships are also improved through the values-based pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom with one school cluster from the VEGPSP noting:

Children began to practice compassion and respect for one another – not because they were taught that this is the right thing to do, but because they

were beginning to enjoy hearing the creativity of each other's ideas, and feel the value of receiving such respectful attention themselves (Bereznicki et al., 2008, p. 76).

The Australian VEGPSP report summarised ten principles of good practice in values education (Bereznicki et al., 2008). Of these ten practices many are inherent within the Philosophy in the Classroom approach. The first good practice principle is to “establish and consistently use a common and shared values language across the school” (Bereznicki et al., 2008, p. 9). The metalanguage component of a philosophical community of inquiry is central and children very quickly learn that within the COI when they are discussing issues, they are careful to state that they are disagreeing with X's idea and not X him/herself. The metalanguage and language of respect that goes hand in hand with a COI is a conduit for the practice of a shared values-based language and the clear articulation of behaviours and relationships. In doing this within the COI the students and teachers are also engaged with the fifth good practice principle of implicitly modelling and explicitly fostering the modelling of values.

Two other principles advocated by the VEGPSP project are “to develop relevant and engaging values approaches connected to local and global contexts” and “to use values education to consciously foster intercultural understanding, social cohesion and social inclusion” (Bereznicki et al., 2008, p. 11). Values education is not a purely academic exercise and it is aimed at an holistic approach that engages a child's heart, mind and actions. As noted above under the heading of *connectedness*, connections to beyond the classroom, to the wider school, to the local community and to the broader community and global context are integral parts of Philosophy in the Classroom. Philosophy in the Classroom encourages students to “develop a curiosity about differences between people, at the same time learning empathy, tolerance and respect by being active members of a philosophical community where differences are not only recognised but are embraced” (Curtis, 2010, p. 113).

The second principle is to “use pedagogies that are values-focused and student-centred within all curriculum” (Bereznicki et al., 2008, p. 26). The VEGPSP report noted that the most effective learning experiences in values education are values explicit, student centred and open-ended, as opposed to values implicit, teacher-directed and closed (Bereznicki et al., 2008). As previously noted it is the students

who formulate and decide on the discussion questions to be addressed in the COI and the teacher merely acts as a facilitator, allowing the students to direct the COI and its dialogic exchange themselves making the Philosophy in the Classroom very student centred. The questions and issues discussed in a philosophical community of inquiry are very much values-based, for example ‘What makes a good life?’ and ‘What is beauty?’ and are certainly open-ended. In examining scenarios that may arise within their philosophical community of inquiry students are given the opportunity to “analyse values conflicts and disagreements and go beyond their known values sets to explore other values systems, beliefs and understandings” (Bereznicki et al., 2008, p. 28).

Part Three: Pre-Service Teacher Education

Who was the best teacher you ever had? Just stop reading this for a minute and bring this teacher to mind. Concentrate on the memories of this teacher. Chances are, you are recalling certain personal characteristics of this teacher. Hattie’s (2009) research suggests that only four to six percent of teachers will be remembered when asked this question. Does it surprise you that probably few of those attributes you have just recalled are related to curriculum content or with pedagogical methods? Ironically though, much of teacher preparation continues to be focused on content and methods (Kottler et al., 2005). When reviewing the history of teacher education from the mid 20th century onwards this becomes quite obvious.

History of Pre-Service Teacher Education

It was really only during the 1950s that the research and literature on teacher education “began to proliferate in scope and quantity” (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2008, p. 1050). With the USSR’s launch of Sputnik in October 1957, Western education, especially in the US, spiralled into a frenzied focus on the perceived national security imperative to train teachers to increase student academic outcomes, specifically in the sciences, so the country could have more and better educated scientists and technicians (M. G. Jones & Carter, 2006; Kottler et al., 2005; Shulman, 2000). By the mid twentieth century it was the ‘performance-based’ or ‘competency-based’ model that had gained most favour in education circles (Korthagen, 2004). At its most basic this model determined that concrete and observable behavioural

criteria would form the basis for the training of pre-service teachers. However, this led to long, complicated competency lists being formulated which then led to fragmentation of a teacher's role (Korthagen, 2004).

The late 1960s saw a brief moment in the history of teacher education where increased attention began to be paid to the human aspects of teaching and learning with Carl Rogers' humanistic approach to education. Central to Rogers' (1969) theory is a strong sense of interpersonal relationships where the emotional climate of the classroom has a strong bearing on the kind of learning that can occur. With this approach there is an emphasis on

teacher empathy (understanding), unconditional positive regard (warmth), genuineness (self-awareness), nondirectivity (student-initiated and student-regulated activities) and the encouragement of critical thinking (as opposed to traditional memory emphasis) (Cornelius-White, 2007, p. 113).

In this Humanistic Based Teacher Education (HBTE) phase more attention was given to the person of the teacher and the role of pre-service teacher education was to teach future educators to

help our young to develop compassion, concern for others, faith in themselves, the ability to think critically, the ability to love, the ability to cooperate with others, the ability to maintain good health, and, above all, the ability to remain open to other people and new experiences (Blume, 1971, p. 411).

Whilst the HBTE movement failed to acquire widespread appeal, the mere fact that teacher education started to focus on the person of the teacher was crucial, and an examination of self would become a part of most pre-service teacher programmes (Korthagen, 2004).

By the early 1970s teacher education began the "gradual and continuing shift toward the technology of teaching, as championed by B. F. Skinner and the behaviourists" (Kottler et al., 2005, p. 4). Skinner's view was in opposition to Rogers in that Skinner saw the failure of a teacher relating to the management of student and classroom behaviours and not because of personal human limitations (Kottler et al., 2005). With the increasing influence of behaviourist theory in teacher education, more and more time was taken away from the personal dimension of teaching and given to classroom and behaviour management theory and practice.

This focus away from the human dimension of teaching continued into the 1980s with a plethora of nation-at-risk reports and the ‘Yuppie’ phenomenon (Kottler et al., 2005) contributing to a strong move away from secular humanism. Attention was instead given to classroom climate, academic expectations, administrative leadership and high test scores, with educational research focusing on reducing stress and avoiding burnout in teaching (Kottler et al., 2005). Classroom management began to receive more of a focus with the research literature discussing how “teachers manage their classrooms, organize activities, allocate time and turns, structure assignments, ascribe praise and blame, formulate the levels of their questions, plan lessons, and judge general student understanding” (Shulman, 1986, p. 8).

The 1990s did see a return to the more human aspects of teaching, but rather than a return to the humanistic philosophy of the 1960s, a postmodernist view of learning was adopted. This saw a focus on multicultural education where learning was seen as being influenced and shaped by culture and language. Teacher education began to focus more on issues of diversity and inclusivity, particularly in a socio-cultural sense. During the 1980s and 1990s teacher education and its reforms have been focused on the concept of ‘learning to teach’ with research centred on knowledge, attitudes and beliefs of pre-service teachers (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2008). Much of the work on teacher learning (as opposed to the previous concept of teacher training) derived from cognitive psychology which emphasised pre-service teachers’ subject matter and pedagogical knowledge, as well as anthropological and sociological perspectives which focused on culture and diversity (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2008).

The beginning of the 21st century saw the focus on education turning to stronger school accountability measured by standardised testing of student achievement (Goldberg, 2004). This was largely as a result of the 2001 No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act in the US and with federal governments (in the US, UK and Australia) continuing to remain committed to test based accountability, it seems likely it will remain a central issue in education for some time yet to come. NCLB requires US states to meet adequate yearly progress goals that are received through state administered reading and numeracy tests annually from grades 3-8 and during one year in high school (Abrams & Madaus, 2003). In Australia NAPLAN was

introduced in 2008 and is a federally administered test on reading, writing, language conventions and numeracy annually for children in grades 3, 5, 7 and 9. The results of these tests are then uploaded onto the federal initiated and funded ACARA *My School* website where parents and community members are encouraged to compare schools. With this pressure on teachers to be accountable in terms of test results, research (see for example Abrams & Madaus, 2003; David, 2011; Goldberg, 2004) has demonstrated that there is considerable narrowing of information and educational experiences for students as more and more teachers simply ‘teach to the test’ meaning that the content of the tests have essentially become the learning goals (David, 2011).

Given such a focus on high-stakes testing and accountability policies in education, it seems more important than ever that we start to see an increase in a devotion to creating more caring schools as a “complement to the prevailing focus on academic achievement” (Schaps, 2003, p. 33). In the US the growth of character education programmes has seen an increase that has coincided with the rise in high-stakes testing (Benninga, Berkowitz, Kuehn, & Smith, 2006). In the previous paragraph I wrote of the NCLB’s focus on academic performance and whilst this is certainly the largest focus of the Bush government’s policy, there is also mention of ensuring schools contribute to the development of a child’s character. However, despite this stated national focus in the US, many schools are wary of programmes that might detract from what they see as a school’s primary focus – increasing academic achievement (Benninga et al., 2006). Following on from the US’ research into character education in the late 1990s and early 2000s, Australia also saw a rise in the interest in values education. This was predominantly seen in the Values Education Good Practice Schools Project (VEGPSP) which was launched by the Howard Government in 2004 as part of the *National Framework for Values Education in Australian Schools*. The study was designed to:

- enable schools to develop and demonstrate current practice in values education;
- provide an informed basis for promoting improved values education in Australian schools; and
- make recommendations on a set of principles and a framework for improved values education in Australian schools.

(Zbar & Toomey, 2006, p. 20)

The project funded 26 school clusters, encompassing 166 schools, to explore ways of improving approaches to values education. The project ended in 2008 with a report identifying ten principles of good practice in values education for Australian schools (Bereznicki et al., 2008), but little has been seen or heard of this project and its findings in values education since.

Importance of Pre-Service Teacher Education

Education is at a critical phase in the 21st century with economic, technological and social change occurring at breakneck speed. Just 100 years ago at the beginning of the 20th century, farmers were the single largest group in nearly every country with servants being the second-largest group in developed countries (Drucker, 1994). But not too long into the 20th century the new class of industrial (blue-collar) workers (Drucker, 1994) was firmly established. Their fall, however, has happened just as quickly with industrial workers only now accounting for approximately an eighth of the workforce (Drucker, 1994). These statistics have a huge impact on education and cut right to the heart of teacher education reform worldwide. Combine this with statistics and research increasingly demonstrating that a lack of education is linked to crime and welfare dependency (Darling-Hammond, 2005) and one can see that this signals an important mission for education – to ensure students learn in new and more powerful ways.

The future of society “depends now, as never before, on our ability to teach” (Darling-Hammond, 2005, p. 2), and this means closely examining teacher education and advancing it to prepare better quality teachers who are prepared to meet these enormous demands of teaching in the 21st century. Teaching is crucial to school and education improvement efforts (OECD, 2005). Education reform is an agenda priority in almost every country of the world, with almost every country in the OECD substantially increasing its spending on education in the period between 1980 and 2005, but yet very few of these school systems achieving any significant improvements in performance (McKinsey and Company, 2007). Perhaps one could hazard to suggest that this is because the reforms were not centred on teacher education and as has already been explained in part two of this chapter the main variance in student learning is the quality of the teachers (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1994; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hattie, 2004; McKinsey and Company,

2007; Newmann & Associates, 1996). So if countries want to improve student performance they need to look to improving teacher quality and this starts with pre-service teacher education. After all, “the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers” (McKinsey and Company, 2007, p. 16).

Teaching is unnatural work (Ball & Forzani, 2009). Most people teach – parents teach their children to walk; a TV show host teaches people how to cook spaghetti; a vet teaches a dog’s owner how to groom him properly; a co-worker teaches a fellow worker how to use the new computer programme the company is now utilising; and the list goes on. This type of teaching is defined as helping others learn to do particular things and is an everyday human activity. Professional classroom teaching though is distinct from this everyday teaching, and is a specialised type of teaching (Ball & Forzani, 2009). “Teachers must enable others to learn, understand, think, and do” (Ball & Forzani, 2009, p. 499) and not just for one individual but for a whole class of students all at the same time. The tasks required of teachers are not simply developed naturally and requires specialised knowledge, skills and orientations that are taught and practised in professional teacher education programmes.

Requirements for Pre-Service Teacher Education in the 21st Century

In the 21st century one can see teacher education reform being a central part of a broader educational reform focusing on improving teaching practice and therefore student performance. Linda Darling-Hammond, a prolific researcher and commentator on teacher education in the US, suggests that effective teachers in the 21st century need:

- a deep and flexible understanding of subject matter;
- to develop pedagogical content matter;
- to understand child and adolescent development;
- to connect with students;
- to be able to inquire sensitively and productively;
- to know how to listen carefully;
- an understanding of motivation;
- to understand what individual students believe about themselves and their abilities and what they care about;

- to understand learning and what helps children learn in different ways;
- a thorough knowledge of curriculum resources and technologies;
- to understand student interactions and how these can be structured to allow for more powerful student learning;
- to sponsor productive classroom discourse;
- to develop student self-regulation
- to collaborate with other teachers; and
- to analyse and reflect on their own practice

(Darling-Hammond, 2005, pp. 7-9).

Developing all of this requires a moving beyond what most teachers would have experienced themselves as students, and learning in new ways that are more powerful than a discussion of new pedagogical ideas and content knowledge (Ball & Forzani, 2009).

Pre-Service Teacher Education Programmes in the 21st Century

“Teacher preparation is a beginning, not an end unto itself” (Loughran, 2007, p. 11). In the twenty-first century there are many challenges facing contemporary teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2004) and we still have a great deal to learn regarding how to best prepare future teachers “to professionally handle the complexities of unknown classrooms” (Hollingsworth, 1989, p. 161). We live in a rapidly changing world and this means that the discipline of teaching is changing; knowledge is changing; pedagogy is changing; the student population is becoming more diverse; education is much more inclusive; and communication and information technologies are rapidly changing and are having a significant impact on education. Teaching and learning in the twenty-first century is not as focused on imparting exacting knowledge and skills as it once was, rather the focus now is more on shaping a kind of person who

knows how to learn what they need to know; knows how to create knowledge through problem solving; knows how to create knowledge by drawing on informational and human resources around them; knows how to make knowledge collaboratively; knows how to nurture, mentor and teach others; and knows how to document and pass on personal knowledge. In sum, this kind of person is open to autonomous, assisted and collaborative learning” (Kalantzis & Harvey, 2004, pp. 21-22).

To teach someone this demands “unprecedented professionalism, and a complex range of knowledge and skills” (Australian Council of Deans of Education Incorporated, 2005, p. 3).

The great challenge then for pre-service teacher education at the beginning of the twenty-first century is to ensure that its programming is relevant to the needs of those who will be teachers (Ramsey, Mowbray, & Moore, 2001). So what should pre-service teacher education programmes be teaching? In order to answer this question, Noddings (2005a) states that teacher educators have to ask:

How can my subject serve the needs of each of these students? How can I teach so as to capitalize on their intelligences and affiliations? How can I complete the caring connection with as many as possible? How can I help them to care for themselves, other humans, animals, the natural environment, the human-made environment, and the wonderful world of ideas? As we ask these questions we may find an authentic way to prepare teachers (p. 179).

While there is much research literature to suggest that the work of improving quality teaching begins with pre-service teacher education, relatively little is known about the types of programmes that are effective in preparing quality teachers (Humphrey & Weschler, 2007). This is supported by evidence from the McKinsey report (2007) that suggests that whilst teachers build the bulk of their capacity in their initial training and beginning years in the classroom, the support given to pre-service teachers and beginning teachers in this period was rarely as effective as it should have been.

There is no real standard approach in teacher education in terms of core knowledge, essential experiences or a ‘correct’ order (Hattie, 2009). Across most countries, whilst there will be variations in the curriculum, most teacher education programmes offer some form of combination of: “coursework in subject matter, teaching methods and materials, child/adolescent development and other education courses such as psychology, history and philosophy of education, along with practice teaching” (OECD, 2005, p. 107). While all of these might exist in each programme, there will be variations on the emphasis placed on these aspects. Feiman-Nemser (2001) argues that pre-service teacher preparation programmes build on the contemporary educational research regarding what teachers need to know, what they should care about, and what they should be able to do in order to promote substantial

learning for all students. This links back to what I wrote earlier in this chapter under quality teaching where the role of pre-service teacher education programmes is to train quality teachers in the development of the triad of knowledge (professional, interpersonal, and intrapersonal) (Collinson, 1999).

Professional Standards

In recent years there has been a move in some countries to tie professional accountability to teacher standards as a way of improving teacher quality (Darling-Hammond, 2004). In Australia, the *Top of the Class* report and the *Smarter Schools National Partnership* agreement has seen suggested improvements and developments at every stage of teacher education, including accreditation of pre-service teacher education programmes (McCardle, 2010), which should see the refinement of required competencies to be an effective teacher.

In 2003 the Australian government launched the *National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching* in response to efforts to define and promote quality teaching (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs, 2003). Its purpose is to serve as an organising structure which establishes the agreed foundational elements and dimensions of effective teaching which can then be further developed at State and Territory levels (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs, 2003). In 2006 the professional standards for Queensland teachers were prescribed by the Queensland College of Teachers (QCoT). There are ten professional standards which align with three broad areas of teachers' work: teaching and learning; professional relationships; and professional growth (Queensland College of Teachers, 2006) (See Appendix A for a full list of the standards).

The State's professional body, in this case QCoT, is charged with monitoring these standards in terms of teacher registration as well as accreditation for teacher preparation programmes. In February 2010 the Queensland Parliament passed legislation making it legal for QCoT to issue numeracy, literacy and science tests to graduating pre-service teachers (Binnie, 2010). This standards movement with its outcomes-based performance assessment and high-stakes paper and pencil testing for teachers and students is putting intense pressure on teacher education institutions to shift from an 'inputs' model to an 'outputs' one (Cochran-Smith, 2001). It could be argued that this output focus narrows the view many people will adopt regarding

teaching and learning, particularly in perceiving that teaching is an “instructional practice that leads directly to demonstrable student learning gains” (Cochran-Smith, 2001, p. 180), and as I have argued and will continue to argue in this dissertation, effective teaching is much more than this. Alfie Kohn, an American educationalist well known for his opposition to teacher testing, recalls Einstein’s point that not everything that counts can be counted and not everything that is counted counts (Appleman & Thompson, 2002). This is certainly true in education with high-stakes testing for children as well as teachers.

At the national level in Australia, the *National Professional Standards for Teachers* was launched in February 2011 (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011). Like many countries around the world (McKinsey and Company, 2007) these standards and work on teaching has its roots in evidence that a teacher’s effectiveness has a powerful impact on students (see for example Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1994; Darling-Hammond, 2000; McKinsey and Company, 2007; Newmann & Associates, 1996). The national standards are contained within the three domains of teaching: professional knowledge, professional practice, and professional engagement (see Appendix B for a list of these national standards). Teacher education institutions need to ensure that graduate teachers meet these standards through their pre-service teacher education programmes (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011).

Prior Beliefs and Experiences

Pre-service teacher education is different from most other university programmes as “students of teaching are influenced by the *dual nature* of learning about teaching, for their experience involves being learners and teachers at the same time” (Loughran, 2007, pp. 7-8). Research has demonstrated that what pre-service teachers experience as “learners of teaching dramatically shapes their views of practice” (F. Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1026). Fuller’s research (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Brown, 1975) showed that pre-service teachers continued to identify with the pupils in the classes they observed rather than the teacher (as cited in Loughran, 2006, p. 106). It has also been verified that even though pre-service teachers may have experienced firsthand ‘bad’ learning when a particular teaching approach was used, they still often believe that their own students will experience it differently when they are the teacher (F. Korthagen et al., 2006). Thus they are

discounting their own learning experiences rather than making them a meaningful learning experience. It appears therefore that pre-service teachers struggle to make a successful transition from student to teacher. It has also been noted that pre-service teachers have very simplistic beliefs about what is required to become a successful and effective teacher, often believing that liking children is enough to make someone a good teacher (Stuart & Thurlow, 2000), and that teaching is simply the passing on of knowledge whilst learning is memorising and absorbing that knowledge (Calderhead & Robson, 1991).

How many teachers would hearken back to their early years in childhood and see themselves playing teacher? I certainly have quite vivid, and indeed fond, memories of standing in front of a little blackboard, chalk poised perfectly in my fingers, an “I’ll take no nonsense” expression on my face as I urged my row upon row of teddy bears and stuffed animals to learn the alphabet and listen to the story. As a future teacher and teacher educator, I was well into developing a firm set of values, attitudes and beliefs centred on teaching from a very young age. Quite a few researchers (see for example Hollingsworth, 1989; Korthagen & Kessels, 1999; Loughran, 2006; Pajares, 1992) would argue that these beliefs about teaching are certainly very well established and entrenched, even if unarticulated and simplified, long before pre-service teachers begin their teacher education programme. This makes education a very different story to other academic disciplines, such as medicine or law, where students will enter operating theatres and courtrooms, for many, for the first time. These places, procedures and the associated knowledge is entirely new to them and thus their understandings are constructed from scratch (Pajares, 1992). For pre-service teachers it is entirely different – they are already insiders having been to school and been inside many different classrooms over their years in the education system. This means that they are strongly influenced by the ways they were taught as students (Blume, 1971; Hollingsworth, 1989; Korthagen & Kessels, 1999; Pajares, 1992), which can often mean they have a tendency towards conservative teaching strategies (Hollingsworth, 1989; Pajares, 1992). Pajares (1992) argues that this reality may mean that their values and beliefs regarding teaching may be little affected by higher education. Thus to challenge preconceived and perhaps very conventional values and attitudes related to teaching, the discussion and explicit teaching of personal experiences, values and beliefs should be an

integral part of any pre-service teacher education curriculum. Hollingsworth (1989) supports this idea, arguing that if pre-service teachers are given an opportunity to discuss and articulate values and moral issues in their training then they become more aware of the values implicit in their own teaching.

Developing Knowledge for Teaching

Shulman (1986) argued for a more coherent theoretical framework to transmit content knowledge in teacher education and argued for three distinct categories of content knowledge: (1) subject matter content knowledge, (2) pedagogical content knowledge, and (3) curricular knowledge. To these three categories I would also add field experience and self-reflection and self-understanding as vital components. Within these it is also important to consider cultural knowledge, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge and practice.

Subject matter content knowledge. Content knowledge refers to the amount and organisation of subject matter knowledge in the mind of the teacher but requires going beyond simply the knowledge of the facts or concepts to requiring an understanding of both the substantive and syntactic structures of the subject matter (Schwab, 1978 as cited in Shulman, 1986). In other words, teachers need to define knowledge and truths in a particular domain to the students, as well as explaining why this is warranted, why it is worth knowing and how it relates to other things, both within and without the particular domain. Shulman claimed that the basis for effective teaching lies in pedagogical content knowledge (as cited in Hattie, 2009). Despite this claim, evidence, which is minimal, suggests that the effect size between teacher content knowledge and student outcomes is actually very low (Hattie, 2009).

In terms of the amount of subject knowledge a teacher should know, Noddings (2005a) argues that the worship of expertise of the specific should be eliminated and in its place should be a “superbly well-trained capacity for inquiry and a Socratic willingness to pursue wisdom” (p. 178). In doing so teachers should be able to teach their specific subjects but also have a preparedness and a willingness to discuss matters on which they have had no formal training – “all the matters pertaining to human existence” (Noddings, 2005a, p. 178). Certainly some of the evidence raised in Hattie’s (2009) synthesis of meta-analyses would concur with this, arguing that a more underlying general ability in terms of content is what is required.

Pedagogical knowledge. The second type of content knowledge Shulman (1986) espoused was pedagogical knowledge, where the teacher represents and formulates ways to make the subject matter more comprehensible to others. In order to achieve this, teachers must be taught an array of different pedagogies as well as an understanding of what makes learning specifics easy or difficult, and an understanding of student learning and individual differences rooted in knowledge of child/adolescent development and learning.

There is a huge array of pedagogical practices that pre-service teachers could be taught and exposed to in their teacher education programme. Questioning seems to be the pedagogical tool most used by teachers when referring to higher-order thinking and its encouragement in their students and is often used with relationship to specific strategies that promote deep-level reasoning questions such as Bloom's taxonomy (Craig, Sullins, Witherspoon, & Gholson, 2006) (see Appendix C). But is questioning, at least in the traditional sense, the most worthwhile way of encouraging student higher-order thinking? So much of classroom time is spent on teacher questioning of students with research suggesting that between 35% and 50% of class time is spent on teacher questioning, with it being second in popularity as a pedagogical tool (first is lecturing) (Cotton, 1988), but yet only 20% of questioning is of a higher-cognitive nature (60% are lower cognitive and 20% are procedural) (Cotton, 1988). This hasn't improved all that greatly in more recent years with a 2002 report noting that only 10% of children's oral contributions during 'literacy hour' in English primary classrooms were more than three words (Topping & Trickey, 2007b). All of this demonstrates that teachers need training in questioning, especially spontaneous open teacher questioning, and assisting children in learning how to discuss, as this is something that as teachers we should not take for granted (Topping & Trickey, 2007b) and it is something that need to be considered more in pre-service teacher education programmes.

Matching teacher pedagogical choices to styles of learning is another important aspect. Some researchers claim that when teaching is aligned with the preferred or dominant learning style of an individual student then achievement is enhanced (Hattie, 2009). What perhaps makes the inclusion of understanding different learning styles and development all the more important in pre-service teacher education is the

research that demonstrated that teachers cannot accurately ascertain their students' learning styles and preferences (Hattie, 2009).

An inquiry, or problem-based approach, has become increasingly popular in recent years in education. This type of teaching is defined as

the art of developing challenging situations in which students are asked to observe and question phenomena; pose explanations of what they observe; devise and conduct experiments in which data are collected to support or contradict their theories; analyse data; draw conclusions from experimental data; design and build models; or any combination of these (Hattie, 2009, p. 208).

It is one way of challenging students, thereby promoting intellectual quality, that also is motivating for the students, as it involves student self-direction and self-regulation (a supportive classroom environment), as well as providing connectedness to the world beyond the classroom. It also has been found to positively affect student achievement (Barell, 2007; Hattie, 2009). It is an open-ended style of teaching and learning in that there is not one single right answer and thus children learn to understand that knowledge is problematic and that it is the processes of observing, questioning, experimenting, exploring, analysing and reasoning that are important.

Feiman-Nemser (2001) argued for the addition of the learning about culture to this knowledge domain. Increasingly in a globalised world, teachers will more and more find themselves teaching students whose racial, cultural, religious and socio-economic backgrounds are vastly different from their own. Thus teacher education programmes need to specifically address how to teach effectively for these differences as well as exploring individual values, biases and personal experiences with diversity with pre-service teachers.

Shulman (2000) argued that the oldest problem of pedagogy is *illusory understanding* where people appear to know something they really don't know. Socratic teaching is an attempt to wrestle with this problem and teachers still wrestle with this daily. It is in this wrestling, however that one can see teaching as deeply emotional as it is cognitive, for in wrestling with illusory understanding a teacher is wrestling with his/her pupils' deeply held, private, intuitive beliefs and theories (Shulman, 2000). Teachers have to learn to deal with the emotional aspect of teaching as well as the cognitive.

Curricular knowledge. Curricular knowledge is the third domain and Shulman defined this as the curriculum and its associated materials which he saw as the *materia medica* of pedagogy. It is from this body of knowledge that a teacher draws tools of teaching in all dimensions of education – curriculum, instruction and assessment – to stimulate growth in his/her students (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Certainly an understanding and knowledge of curriculum documents are vital for teachers. It is within this curriculum domain that core content and achievement outcomes are identified. Part of the Australian Government’s commitment to rigorous curriculum standards means that schools and teachers have to ensure that student learning focuses on literacy and numeracy, but also social, emotional and physical development (Council for the Australian Federation, 2007).

Purposeful, integrated field experiences. Researchers and government bodies (see for example Australian Council of Deans of Education Incorporated, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001) argue that classroom experiences play a crucial, critical and complex role in learning to teach during pre-service preparation, with most systems of pre-service teacher preparation containing practical modules to familiarise potential teachers with schools and classrooms (OECD, 2005). Field experiences should not be seen as being separate from university coursework, but together they can effectively strengthen a pre-service teacher’s learning and practice (OECD, 2005). The aim of an effective field experience programme should be to help pre-service teachers knit everything they have learned in their coursework together and as such requires the use of personal reflections “to help teacher candidates develop the capacity to learn from the experience and analysis of their own and others’ practice” (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1024).

Self-understanding. Shakespeare’s character Polonius in the play *Hamlet* advised us “This above all: to thine own self be true” (Hamlet I iii), but “possibly no goal of education is more important – or more neglected – than self-understanding” (Noddings, 2006, p. 10). Self-understanding is not only vital for a child’s education but also for a teacher’s. Pre-service teachers must be taught to reflect on questions such as: What do I feel? Why? Why do I think this? What am I doing? Why? Through reflecting on these types of questions and developing a greater sense of self-awareness and self-understanding will provide pre-service teachers with a strong foundation for effective decision-making (Baum & King, 2006). Self-understanding

of one's own beliefs and values is also incredibly important if teachers are to better assist their students with expressing their own beliefs and opinions.

Values Education in Pre-Service Teacher Education

In order for effective values education to be achieved in schools there must be adequate teacher preparation with professional development opportunities; access to resources and teacher pre-service preparation. "It is clear that teachers cannot come to the task of values education without adequate preparation" (Lovat & Clement, 2008, p. 10). The VEGPSP report demonstrated, with examples, how professional development and personal growth were intertwined with the teachers' experience of implementing values education. Point six of the report's recommendations also clearly stated the need for teacher preparation and professional development (Zbar & Toomey, 2006). Thus a need for a close investigation of teacher pre-service programmes has been identified, to uncover the extent to which they may or may not be preparing future teachers for their role as educators with a values focus.

"If tomorrow's teachers are to be responsible and effective conduits of moral education, teacher education programs must take up the challenge of moral education instruction" (Wakefield, 1997, p. 5). However, in a four year research study on how teacher education programmes were preparing pre-service teachers (Lunenberget al., 2007) it became apparent that specific knowledge was required, yet it was a neglected area of teacher education throughout the world. In Sweden where some research has been done in this area, research has determined that even though values education is integrated across the school curriculum, pre-service teachers receive poor training in values education, compared to other areas (Bergdahl, 2006; Franberg, 2004, 2006 as cited in Thornberg, 2008). Teaching values is more complex than teaching the three R's, but yet as demonstrated it receives little or no attention in pre-service teacher programmes. If values education is to become a focus of school curriculums, then pre-service teacher education programmes need to prepare their students for this.

In Revell and Arthur's study (2007) of 1013 primary and secondary pre-service teachers across two universities in Britain the data revealed that pre-service teachers do see teaching very much as a moral endeavour, but it remained a very minor and peripheral part of their training. When asked if their pre-service teacher education

had prepared them to develop their pupils' values and character only 34% of the respondents replied in the affirmative (Revell & Arthur, 2007). Hansen's (2001) extensive review of the literature concerned with teaching as a moral activity concluded that there is a striking lack of research on how pre-service teachers can be prepared for the moral aspects of teaching. Since the child-centred progressive teaching methods of the 1960s, the majority of teacher training courses have mostly abandoned traditional teaching disciplines such as history and philosophy of education in favour of more of a behavioural psychology approach (Arthur, 2003). This has meant that teachers, generally speaking, are ill equipped to discuss and adopt a virtue ethics approach to values education (Arthur, 2003; David T. Hansen, 2001; Tirri, 1999).

The *National Framework for Values Education in Australian Schools* emphasises that teachers are to be skilled in good practice values education and they are to be provided with appropriate resources (Australian Government Department of Education Science and Training, 2005). A resource package has been developed and distributed to all Australian schools, however does the mere provision of resources make a teacher an effective educator of values? Professional learning for all teachers is crucial both at the pre-service and at the in-service levels (Zbar & Toomey, 2006). Whilst some schools, particularly those involved in the Good Practice Schools Project, have undertaken specific professional development on values education, there is still much work to be done on teacher professional development. One area that appears to have been overlooked is the preparation of pre-service teachers to teach values education, and it is this area that the current research programme specifically aims to address.

Mexican (Fierro Evans, 2005) and Swedish (Thornberg, 2008) studies have determined that whilst teachers easily discuss values and norms in regard to behaviour and character they do not make explicit reference to any moral philosophical, moral psychological or moral educational theories, rather what guides their so-called values education are their concerns for appropriate behaviour. Teachers define values education as the practice used where they teach students to be nice and kind to others, to behave appropriately and to abide by rules (Thornberg, 2008). Thus values education in the classroom in practice is more of a reactive, occasional and unplanned process. Teachers rarely referred to generic universal

issues or values such as honesty, love, respect (Fierro Evans, 2005). This practice combined with the inability of the teachers to refer to an explicit professional metalanguage and the belief that values education is an informal process related to rules and behaviour rather than part of a formal curriculum drew Thornberg (2008) to the conclusion that teachers lack sufficient professional knowledge in values education. Values education seems to be unreflective and unconscious and thus operates as part of a hidden curriculum and this very fact means that teachers do not reflect on it or investigate students' learning (Fierro Evans, 2005; Thornberg, 2008). Indeed without a professional metalanguage and professional training related to explicit values in education, investigation and critical self-reflection processes will be less likely to occur (Powney et al., 1995; Sockett & LePage, 2002; Thornberg, 2008).

A Dutch study by Willemse et al. (2005) established that it is both the pedagogical and social aspects of values education that are important in teaching. Teacher educators need to consider how and to what extent they should teach morality. Reflection on how best to promote the development of values in pre-service teachers and how to prepare them to fulfil their moral task in their future schools is necessary for institutions of teacher education (Willemse et al., 2005). An effective teacher education programme "will include means for the development of values among those who are preparing to teach" (Guy et al., 1961, p. 16). Researchers argue (Dasoo, 2010; Guy et al., 1961) that pre-service teacher education programmes need to provide opportunities to consider the whole question of values as well as to aid pre-service teachers to acquire necessary values to be able to choose desirable objectives in their teaching.

If the teaching of values education is going to be successful then it is necessary that pre-service teacher education programmes explicitly model and teach knowledge and skills in values education. Research has demonstrated that teachers are very aware that their pre-service training has let them down in terms of the ability to deal with students who don't take responsibility, who break rules, who don't listen, who are violent, and who get into conflicts (Thornberg, 2008). Only 14% of teachers in a Swedish study reported that they received satisfactory training in conflict management, very few stated they were prepared to discuss and cope with ethical dilemmas and to work with values education in schools (Thornberg, 2008). Tirri's (1999) research in Finland supported these findings noting that, as a result of the

research, the University of Helsinki would aim to more explicitly foster an ethical awareness amongst teachers. Finland is clearly not the only country with this problem with Willemse et al's research in the Netherlands (2005), Dasoo's research in South Africa (2010) and Taylor's (1994) survey of 26 countries all concluding that effective pre-service teacher training in regards to values education is seriously lacking.

Philosophy in the Classroom

This research programme examines a pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom as a way of including an explicit values and student wellbeing pedagogy within a pre-service teacher education programme. This in itself is quite unique and it distinguishes itself from other pedagogy typically treated within a pre-service teacher programme through its explicit addressing of values and its emphasis on affect. An explicit values pedagogical approach involves a nexus between cognition, affect and sociality (Toomey et al., 2010a) and thus its focus is on whole person learning rather than simply an academic emphasis. But it does need to be remembered that the academic is included – it is just that there is a balance.

There are many benefits in adopting a values-based approach, such as Philosophy in the Classroom within pre-service teacher education programmes. The pre-service teachers will come to understand that developing open-minded critical thinkers who are reflective, caring and responsible is central to the purpose of education (Spooner-Lane et al., 2010). Important skills in any pre-service teacher education programme are the necessity to instil the ability to reason effectively, to engage in self-reflection, develop self-knowledge, teach critical thinking and develop their students' social, emotional and moral worlds and integrating a Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy into pre-service teacher education is one way of developing these skills (Mergler, Curtis, & Spooner-Lane, 2009). Despite this though, "it has proven difficult to introduce Philosophy for Children into the curriculum of pre-service teachers in Australia" (Millet, 2006, p. 52). And Australia is not the only country. There have been many encouraging findings in terms of Philosophy in the Classroom and its positive contribution to critical, creative and caring thinking, skills and dispositions as has been shown in this chapter (for a review of these findings see Trickey & Topping, 2004). Despite this though Philosophy in the Classroom is not as firmly embedded in teacher development and routine classrooms as it should be

(Trickey & Topping, 2004). Reasons as to why are varied. One reason given is teachers' concerns for behavioural outcomes and the perceived notion that listening to and building upon children's ideas are incompatible with behaviour management (Trickey & Topping, 2004).

So what skills should pre-service teachers develop in terms of implementing philosophy into their classroom practice? The UNESCO report on philosophy (2007, pp. 20-21) states the following as skills required:

- knowing how to teach children to think for themselves;
- encouraging questioning by students;
- assisting children to follow logical trains of thought;
- knowing how to prevent any dogmatism or relativism from allowing to take root in the classroom;
- allowing children to express themselves without fear of consequences;
- knowing how to be silent and allow space for student speech; and
- knowing how to listen for the philosophical dimension in a child's question rather than just listening to its emotional content

Through the implementation of the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy into pre-service teacher education programmes, pre-service teachers should achieve a better understanding and appreciation for values education, as well as the knowledge and skills that will assist in the implementation of this within future classrooms. They will also better learn many of the qualities of effective teaching which will help them to better engage their future students in learning as well as raising the standard of teachers entering the profession (Spooner-Lane et al., 2010). "The benefits are potentially enormous. The costs of missing this opportunity are huge" (Millet, 2007, p. 43).

Summary

This chapter has summarised the literature within the three main areas of this research programme: quality education, quality teaching and pre-service teacher education. It has demonstrated that in order for society's youth to receive a quality and holistic education there needs to be a reinvigorated focus on quality teaching and

this needs to begin in pre-service teacher education. One way that this can occur is through an examination and acknowledgement of the role of values both in education generally and specifically within pre-service teacher education and this is best achieved through the explicit teaching of a values-based pedagogy within pre-service teacher education programmes. Philosophy in the Classroom is one such example of a values-based pedagogy that could be introduced into pre-service teacher programmes.

Chapter 3: **Research Design**

Introduction

Chapter Three presents the methodological issues related to the present research programme. In this chapter I outline my paradigm and how this paradigm, along with the content of the research programme itself, led to the adoption of the qualitative inquiry approach. I briefly outline the characteristics of a qualitative approach and how this approach aligns with my particular research programme, before proceeding to discuss sampling issues related to this study. Following this, there is a discussion of the choice of instruments used in the data collection phase of this research programme. This chapter also discusses the ethical nature of qualitative inquiry and its relationship to this research programme, including issues of trustworthiness, credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability. Lastly, an overview of the data analysis approach is provided.

A Research Paradigm

All researchers are bound within an interpretive framework that contains their methodological, epistemological and ontological premises, which can be termed their research paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Thus my research paradigm is crucial to this research programme as it reflects my beliefs and guides and informs my approach to research. At the most basic level there are four major paradigms that structure research: positivism/post positivism; constructivist-interpretative; critical (Marxist); and feminist/post-structural (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

A Constructivist-Interpretative Paradigm

My particular world view, the beliefs I hold about research, and the topic I am researching has led me to adopt a constructivist-interpretative paradigm. This paradigm assumes a relativist ontology, a subjectivist epistemology and a naturalistic set of methodological procedures (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The constructivist view of social reality which holds that human social life is based less on objective factual reality than on the ideas, beliefs, values and perceptions people hold about reality (Neuman, 2004b) fitted with the topic being investigated in that values, beliefs and attitudes are subjective rather than objective. Due to subjective meanings based on

the sample's personal experiences, the researcher needs to become involved in the reality of the participants and to interact with them in a meaningful way (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). Thus, as a constructivist researcher I have become a passionate participant. In so doing, it is important that I recognise and acknowledge that my background and values and beliefs will shape my interpretation (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008).

The constructivist paradigm emphasises that research is a product of the values of the researcher and cannot be seen independently of them (Mertens, 2005). Thus the ontology, epistemology and methodology of a constructivist research programme will naturally imply this. In terms of ontology, a research programme based on a constructivist paradigm will reject the notion that there is an objective reality that can be known, but rather aims to understand the multiple social constructions of meaning and knowledge (Mertens, 2005). Within the epistemological framework a constructivist will choose more personal and interactive modes of data collection than adherents to other paradigms (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Mertens, 2005). It is the qualitative methods such as interviews and document reviews that are predominant in the constructivist-interpretative paradigm where an interactive approach occurs between the researcher and the participants (Mertens, 2005)

Within the constructivist-interpretative paradigm, the concept of *verstehen* is emphasised. *Verstehen* is the German word for understand and reflects "the desire of the researcher to get inside the worldview of those he/she is studying and accurately represent how the people being studied see the world, feel about it, and act" (Neuman, 2004b, p. 42). This means that within an interpretive approach the theories and concepts arise from the enquiry and will often occur in conjunction with and after data collection and analysis (Robson, 1993). Certainly one of the aims of this research programme was to understand how pre-service teachers responded to a subject within their university degree in terms of quality teaching. In order to seek *verstehen*, this study used qualitative methods such as interviews and the examination of documents using the case study design which is explained in more detail later in this chapter.

What is Qualitative Research?

The use of qualitative methods has a long history in educational research with Wilhelm Wundt using methods of description and *verstehen* alongside more general psychological methods in the early decades of the 20th Century (Flick, 2002). During the 1920s and 1930s the importance of qualitative research for the study of human group life in sociology became established (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It was not until the 1970s and 1980s though, that a renaissance of qualitative research in the social sciences and then psychology occurred (Flick, 2002). Post this renaissance, qualitative research has become increasingly important in not only the social sciences and psychology but also in applied fields such as education, nursing and social work (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

Qualitative inquiry is complex and interconnected, crosscutting disciplines, fields and subject matter (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Whilst this is so, Rossman and Rallis (2003) offer characteristics of qualitative research which help in defining it, as too does Merriam (1998). Through these one can determine that qualitative research will usually involve fieldwork and multiple methods that are interactive and humanistic; the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis; it employs an inductive research strategy that is emergent and evolving; it is fundamentally interpretative and; the product is richly descriptive (Merriam, 1998; Rossman & Rallis, 2003). A succinct definition is offered by Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p. 3): “Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible”. Qualitative researchers emphasise the “socially constructed nature of reality” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p. 13), as well as relationships between the researcher and the phenomenon being studied. So whilst quantitative studies stress measurement and analysis of variables, qualitative studies stress the value-laden nature of inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003), which is no less rigorous.

Qualitative Research as Real World

Qualitative designs occur in real world settings and the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest and the phenomenon of interest is allowed to unfold naturally (Patton, 2002). This form of inquiry contrasts with controlled experimental designs in that the investigator does not manipulate, change or impose external influences on the phenomenon being studied (Patton, 2002). One

of the requirements of qualitative inquiry is that the researcher moves into the contexts of the phenomena being investigated. In so doing the researcher attempts to understand and document the participants making no attempt to manipulate or control aspects but accepting the complexity of reality (Patton, 2002). This is not always an easy task and does place significant demands on the researcher, in that the researcher must physically go to the people and the site to observe people in their natural setting. Most qualitative investigations require the researcher to become intimately familiar with the phenomenon being studied (Merriam, 1998).

Two other major principles of qualitative research that also aligned with the aims of this particular research programme were its holistic approach as well as its reflective element (Willis, Jost, & Nilakanta, 2007). As the research programme was particularly focused on the holistic nature of education, a research approach that was also holistic was most appealing. Another aspect of qualitative methodology is its reliance on reflection (Willis et al., 2007), thinking reflectively about the research process which then contributes to reformulations. It was due to my reflections on values education and quality teaching that led me to reflect on these within the pre-service teacher education domain. My involvement in the *Learning to Think: Philosophy in the Classroom* programme at the university where the research programme is being undertaken and my subsequent reflections during and following this 12 week period led me to investigate Philosophy in the Classroom and the role it could play in explicitly examining values in pre-service teacher education which could then make a positive contribution to quality teaching.

Researcher as Instrument

One characteristic of qualitative inquiry is that the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Merriam, 1998). In keeping with this requirement, data is collected via the researcher through more human instruments such as interviews and focus groups rather than inanimate inventories or questionnaires (Merriam, 1998). A human researcher is obviously quite different from other data collection instruments in that the researcher is responsive to the context, can adapt techniques to the circumstances, totality is seen as important; sensitivity to nonverbal aspects can be considered, and data can be processed immediately and be clarified and summarised as the study evolves (Merriam, 1998). Given that the current research programme is focused on values and understandings

of quality teaching, which necessarily involves individual's feelings, values, attitudes, personal philosophies and, beliefs, it was very clear that what was required was a need for discussion in a safe and supportive environment. Thus traditional quantitative methods such as surveys and questionnaires were ruled out in favour of interviews.

An Inductive Strategy

Qualitative research is inductive in that it builds abstractions, concepts and theories rather than testing existing hypotheses (Merriam, 1998). A qualitative researcher will build towards a theory through observations and understandings gained in the field. An inductive strategy is also characterised by being one that is emergent and evolving. Whilst a qualitative research design will specify an initial focus, questions and plans, its naturalistic and inductive nature makes it impossible and inappropriate to specify all variables (Patton, 2002). The research design will emerge because meaning is constructed within the context, and what is learned occurs in a natural setting and is conditional on the relationship and interactions between the researcher, the context and the participants and thus is not predictable (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). An inductive design will emerge as fieldwork emerges and data is collected and analysed making it very flexible. "Being open and pragmatic requires a high tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty as well as trust in the ultimate value of what inductive analysis will yield" (Patton, 2002, p. 44). Again, like other aspects of a qualitative inquiry, this places significant responsibility on the researcher to engage in continuous inductive data analysis.

Qualitative research is very much an emergent design where the intent is not to generalise but to develop an in-depth exploration of a particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2008; Willis et al., 2007). This fitted in with the current research programme as it aimed to focus on exploring one particular aspect of pre-service teacher education, that being values and specifically the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom. The design was also emergent as things were slightly changed or tweaked along the way, including methods of data collection and participants. The current research programme, whilst always focused on values education and quality teaching, as time progressed and I reflected on its elements, also became focused on Philosophy in the Classroom and the work that was beginning in the pre-service teacher education programme unit that was under investigation.

In response to the introduction of the Professional Standards for Teachers introduced by the statutory authority in 2006, the university, where this research programme was situated, underwent a process of renewal in its pre-service teacher education curriculum. The university's renewal process involved realigning curriculum units to fit with the professional standards as well as considering new and different ways of teaching pre-service teachers to effectively arm them with the knowledge and skills demanded for teaching in the 21st century. The pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom aligns neatly with the professional standards, allowing teachers to develop their own professional skills while developing their students' critical thinking, reasoning and self-awareness skills. As such in 2008, teacher educators at the university engaged in a professional development programme entitled *Learning to Think: Philosophy in the Classroom* in order to discover ways in which they could implement philosophy in their pre-service teacher education units. Due to my participation in this programme and further reading and research that I was conducting, I began to see crucial connections between quality teaching, values education and Philosophy in the Classroom within the domain of pre-service teacher education. After this initial professional development programme, the university introduced a component of Philosophy in the Classroom into its Bachelor of Education (Primary) programme in the third year field experience unit, firstly in 2009 and then another version in 2010. Thus this particular subject (which will be referred to as FE3) became a component of the present research programme. This research programme was very clearly an emergent design, with changes in research questions, and participants, showing that qualitative research is indeed "recursive and fuzzy....evolve[ing] across the research process" (Willis et al., 2007, p. 203).

Product of Qualitative Research

The product of a qualitative research project will focus on meaning and understanding and the end product will be richly descriptive (Merriam, 1998). The researcher will describe the context, the participants and the phenomenon of interest, as well as including participants' own words to support findings (Merriam, 1998).

Qualitative case studies are very much a narrative design (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002) and as such the decision was made to keep the write-up of this research programme more informal than a traditional quantitative product which will be quite formal in its use of the third person. So this thesis, the product of the qualitative

research programme, uses first person where the researcher explains and reflects on choices made in a much more personal nature than in other more formal reports. As this research programme was focused on values and beliefs, it was also deemed important to reflect this in the personal narrative approach of the thesis report.

Choice of Methodology

Qualitative methods were deemed appropriate for this research programme given that its aim was to develop an understanding of the components of quality teaching and how they could be enhanced by implementing aspects of values education. Then within the broad context of qualitative methodology, case study design was utilised. The research programme incorporated a longitudinal data collection.

Case Study Design

A qualitative case study is “an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process, or a social unit” (Merriam, 1998, p. xiii). It is very commonly used in qualitative inquiry (Stake, 2005; Willis et al., 2007), and is particularly prevalent in educational based research (Merriam, 1998). A case study design is a bounded system in that it is a single entity around which there is a boundary and it will usually be employed in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation and to give meaning for those involved (Merriam, 1998). It is this in-depth, intensive and bounded approach which differentiates a case study design from other types of qualitative research (Merriam, 1998).

The case study approach to qualitative inquiry constitutes a specific way of collecting, organising and analysing data where the specific purpose is to gather comprehensive, systematic and in-depth information about the case/s of interest (Patton, 2002). A case study design can be defined by its special features of being particularistic, descriptive, holistic, and heuristic (Merriam, 1998). *Particularistic* means that the case has a particular bounded focus and is important for what it reveals about the phenomenon and what this might represent. *Descriptive* refers to the end product of a case study which is a rich, thick description of the phenomenon under investigation. Case studies are *holistic* in that they include as many variables as possible and portray their interaction, which often means they are longitudinal

(Merriam, 1998). *Heuristic* means that case studies assist the reader's understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. The case study researcher needs to be sensitive to data; the context; to people; to information; and to bias; as well as possessing skills of a good communicator in ensuring that one is empathic, a good listener, can establish good rapport and articulate questions clearly (Merriam, 1998; Robson, 1993).

As stated earlier in this chapter I have adopted a constructivist/interpretative paradigm so this will naturally be reflected in the case study. As this is, in essence, an interpretive case study it will illustrate, support, or challenge assumptions held prior to the data collection (Merriam, 1988). My role as a case study researcher is to gather as much information as possible with the intent of interpreting the phenomenon in order to come to a deeper understanding (Merriam, 1988).

Strengths and Limitations of a Case Study Design

All research designs will have their strengths and weaknesses. A researcher needs to select his/her design by weighing these up as well as considering what is the best way to answer the research questions (Merriam, 1988). The strength of the case study design for me was its foundation in real-life situations which results in a rich and holistic account that can often play a vital role in advancing a field's knowledge base (Merriam, 1988). This is important to this current research programme as I am aiming to investigate an area of pre-service teacher education, which to date, has not thoroughly been investigated. The case study I am adopting in this research programme is that of a particular unit within a Bachelor of Education pre-service programme. This unit was for the first time adopting an approach which was innovative in terms of pre-service teacher education and it has been noted by researchers into the use of case study research in education that a case study design is "particularly useful for studying educational innovations, for evaluating programs, and for informing policy" (Merriam, 1988, p. 33). The other aspects of a case study design that were appealing and I determined as strengths were the fact that they are immediately intelligible in that a case study speaks for itself, as well the results are usually more easily understood by a wide audience (Cohen et al., 2011).

One of the primary concerns of qualitative case studies is their reliance on the researcher as the primary instrument of data collection and the possible bias in which this may result (Merriam, 1988). Bias may also result from the fact that case studies

are often selective, personal and subjective (Cohen et al., 2011). I acknowledge this is a concern and have taken steps throughout the research process to minimise bias, whilst also acknowledging that subjectivity will occur. This is discussed in further detail later in this chapter under the heading *Issues of Trustworthiness*.

Qualitative Longitudinal Research

The field of longitudinal research is dominated by quantitative research designs with qualitative designs only recently being considered (J. McLeod & Thomson, 2009; Neale & Flowerdew, 2003). According to McLeod and Thomson (2009) longitudinal studies fall into three main areas. First, is a tradition, usually in anthropological research, where a small, single community is studied over a whole career and is sometimes referred to as “long-term fieldwork”. Second, are longitudinal studies, with most being quantitative, where individuals are researched at regular intervals. Third, are qualitative longitudinal studies that “walk alongside” individuals or groups over time. It is this third area that applies to this current research programme.

All research exists in historical time, but what “distinguishes longitudinal qualitative research is the deliberate way in which temporality is designed into the research process making change a central focus of analytic attention” (Thomson, Plumridge, & Holland, 2003, p. 185). In quantitative research, time is captured in a particular way where time is perceived as a linear phenomenon and is detailed in an orderly progression (Neale & Flowerdew, 2003). Neale and Flowerdew (2003) use the metaphor of “movie stills” to explain this, arguing that the fluidity of the plot and twists and turns of the individual story are hidden from view. They contrast this with qualitative longitudinal research describing it as a “close-up shot” focusing on plot, story line, turning points and defining moments.

This current research programme is relatively small scale and modest in its time period, but is still framed within qualitative longitudinal research. Through regular engagement with a small group of sample participants (explained in more detail later in this chapter) I was able to gain a “close-up shot” over a period of time. I was able to chart this group’s changing perceptions related to quality teaching and values over the course of a semester unit and the accompanying field experience, with interviews being conducted frequently throughout the university teaching

semester. The interviews were conducted frequently (Week 1, Week 10, Week 16) compared to most longitudinal studies but this was an intense longitudinal study conducted over a short period of time. The regular engagement meant that I was able to identify students' thinking and perceptions in a close-up way over a particular time period. One of the "strengths of longitudinal interviews is the accumulation of responses that could be read against each other" (J. McLeod, 2003, p. 205). I was able to build up a picture of orientations and beliefs across the course of a particular subject within the participants' pre-service teacher programme. In so doing I am then able to offer a more substantial insight on this subject and the impact this had on pre-service teachers. What also assisted with this was the standard quantitative approach to longitudinal research in that there was an emphasis placed on the importance of some standard questions that were repeated in each wave of interviews allowing a comparison to be made over time (J. McLeod & Thomson, 2009). Also, importantly, there was a continuity of researcher and researched in each round of interviews, which was crucial in being able to support "the incremental development of observations and interpretation" (J. McLeod & Thomson, 2009, p. 67).

Overview of Research Design

This current research programme is divided into three studies. Table 3.1 provides a brief overview of the three studies with further detail provided on each of the three studies later in this chapter.

Table 3.1

Overview of Research Design

Study	Study One	Study Two	Study Three
Participants	Pre-service teachers with no explicit values education component in the curriculum n = 21	Pre-service teachers with an explicit values education component in the curriculum n = 18	Case study of five pre-service teachers with an explicit values education component in the curriculum n = 5
Research Questions	1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers? 2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?	1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers? 2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?	1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers? 2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?
Data Collection Approaches	Group interviews	Group interviews	Group interviews (time 1 and Time 2) Individual interviews (Time 3) Examination of reflective documents (Time 3)
Time	Fourth Year	Third Year Time 1 prior to exposure of values education explicit component in the curriculum Time 2 after completion of values education component in the curriculum	Third Year Time 1 prior to exposure of values education explicit component in the curriculum Time 2 after completion of values education component in the curriculum Time 3 after completion of field experience following the explicit values education component in their curriculum

Sampling

In every research programme a unit of analysis, or the sample, needs to be selected. There will be numerous sites, events, people, and documents so decisions need to be made concerning how to choose. In this research programme purposive sampling was utilised in making these decisions.

Purposive Sampling

Most discussions of sampling in the research literature are around quantitative investigations. In quantitative methodology a primary goal is to gain a representative sample from within a much larger population (Neuman, 2004b). The focus in qualitative methodology though is much less on a sample's representativeness and more on finding cases that will enhance what the researcher learns about the processes in a specific context (Neuman, 2004b). This is known as purposive or purposeful sampling and its power lies "in selecting *information-rich cases* for study in depth (Patton, 2002, p. 230). Taking a constructivist viewpoint, my sampling issues were based more on informational considerations rather than statistical concerns (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Neuman, 2004b). So in this research programme, as in other qualitative investigations, non-probability sampling was utilised. In non-probability sampling the researcher tends not to determine the sample size in advance and cases will be selected gradually using either convenience, quota, purposive, snowball, deviant case, or sequential sampling (Neuman, 2004b).

This research programme utilised purposive sampling where I selected the sample with a specific purpose in mind (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002). My specific purpose was to investigate whether a specific focus on values would have an impact on quality teaching in the context of pre-service teacher education. So, the first purposeful decision was to choose a site, and obviously it had to be a site where pre-service teacher education occurred. Then, instead of choosing 200 pre-service teacher candidates to be representative of 2000 pre-service teachers, I selected a unique sample that would prove to be especially informative. In many instances much more can be learned from intensively studying information-rich cases than from statistical representations of the average (Patton, 2002). The chosen sample was purposefully selected as it was determined that this group would provide

the richest data with which to draw conclusions regarding the impact of values education on quality teaching in pre-service teacher education programmes.

Sample Size

As Marshall and Rossman (2006, p. 62) stated: “sample size in qualitative research depends on many complex factors”. Funding, resources and time constraints will have an impact, but the weightier concern focuses on the purpose of the research (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). A single person could be the sample size, or it may be a huge population, or a small population may be equally useful in terms of thick cultural description (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006) – the possibilities are many and there are no strict rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry (Patton, 2002). Finding themes and building theory will also require a smaller (compared with quantitative inquiry) sample size than if the study was making comparisons across groups and testing hypotheses (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). What is important to realise is that the validity and meaningfulness generated from a qualitative study has more to do with information richness of cases selected and the observation and analysis of these, than with sample size (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002).

In this research programme I identified the site and population that would allow me the best access to investigate my research questions and to yield the most productive data. So this provided the first limit to the sample size. From within this larger population, the sample was determined by a number of factors. Due to the nature of the research with its heavy focus on interviews and the timely nature of these data collection methods it would not be possible to access a large proportion of the available population. As Flick (2002, p. 70) notes: “sampling decisions always fluctuate between the aims of covering as wide a field as possible and of doing analyses which are as deep as possible”. So, in this particular research programme with only one researcher, a limited time period, limited resources, and a limited population at one particular site only, the decision to proceed with depth over width was made. Another factor which contributed to the overall sample size utilised in this research programme was the availability and willingness of the potential population to be involved. This research programme relied on volunteers for its sample, and as is human nature not everyone will want to be involved, leaving a smaller pool of the population from which to draw the sample. So even though the overall sample was

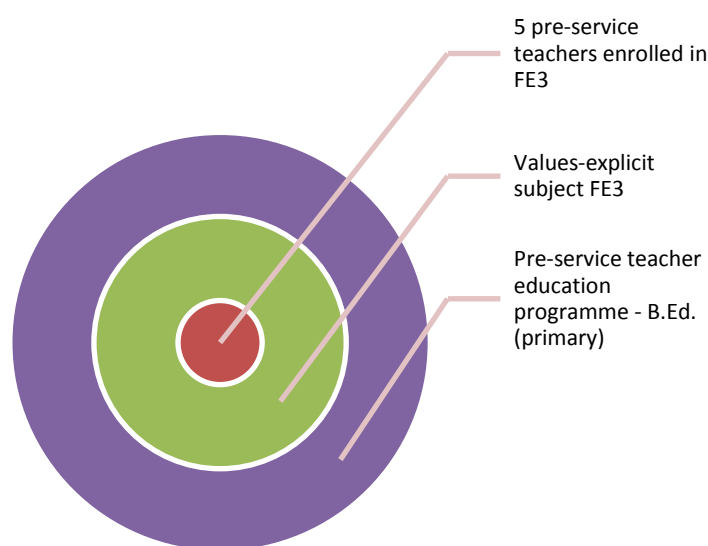
fairly small in size, this was perfectly acceptable as the purpose in a small sample “is credibility, not representativeness” (Patton, 2002, p. 241).

The Sample in a Case Study Design

Two levels of sampling are usually required in qualitative case studies (Merriam, 1998). First, an overall case must be selected and then, unless the researcher is going to interview all of the people and analyse all of the documents in this sample, there needs to be sampling within this case. This means that case study designs are often nested (Patton, 2002), or Yin uses the term embedded (Cohen et al., 2011).

In this research investigation where quality teaching was being examined in pre-service teacher education a specific programme was the broad case study. Then specifically within this programme one subject (FE3) was examined and this became the main case study (Study Two). However, it needed to be compared with a non explicit values approach and thus a different cohort of pre-service teachers was investigated (Study One). Then within the main case study (Study Two), another nested case study of five pre-service teachers were examined (Study Three). This layering or nesting of cases then allows for the rich data and analysis to emerge and for strong conclusions to be formed.

Figure 3.1
Nested Case Study Design



In the analysis phase all of these individual case studies are compared and contrasted to provide the overall findings of the broad case, but remembering that the

overall credibility and findings hinge on the smaller individual case studies (Patton, 2002). Thus each individual case study needs to be sufficiently detailed and comprehensive to illuminate the overall focus of inquiry (Patton, 2002) and to be seen individually before being compared and contrasted together and seen in light of the whole. Thus this research programme was divided up into smaller studies: *Study One*: pre-service teachers with no explicit values education component in their curriculum. *Study Two*: pre-service teachers with an explicit values education component in the curriculum at two points in time – 1. pre-exposure to values explicit curriculum content and teaching and; 2. post-exposure to values explicit curriculum content and teaching. *Study Three*: individual case studies of five pre-service teachers with an explicit values education component in the curriculum at three points in time – 1: pre-exposure to values explicit curriculum content and teaching; 2: post-exposure to values explicit curriculum content and teaching and; 3: post-field experience.

The Setting

This research was site specific in that as the research questions were asking about the impact on pre-service teacher education students and programmes it must necessarily focus on a setting where this occurs (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). The specific pre-service teacher education institution that was selected was a university in Queensland, Australia. This site was purposively selected as teacher education has had a long history at the site of one particular campus of this university. This particular university is also the largest provider of pre-service teacher education, both under-graduate and post-graduate, in Australia. Another factor which was considered was I was involved with tutoring and lecturing in pre-service teacher education subjects at this university. So accessibility, familiarity and connections with the site and its population were important considerations. The primary reason though for selecting this particular university out of all of the possible settings as the chosen site for the study was its uniqueness in having instigated a philosophy component into one of its pre-service teacher education programmes in 2009.

As part of a response to the Australian Government's national goals for education and the newly revised statutory authority for teaching, the Education Faculty at the university realigned curriculum units within its pre-service teacher education programmes. One particular approach that looks to equip graduates with

knowledge and skills for teaching from a values-based perspective has been the introduction of a compulsory unit of Philosophy in the Classroom for third year Bachelor of Education students. This particular initiative of this university is believed to be the first of its kind within Australian teacher education institutions (Spooner-Lane et al., 2010). This initiative was so closely aligned with the present research programme that it provided a perfect opportunity to investigate the impact of a specific values-based pedagogy on pre-service teachers and their development in terms of quality teaching.

Concerns with researching in the researcher's own setting are raised in the literature (Alvesson, 2003; C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Alvesson (2003) cites that the researcher, due to familiarity with the setting, may strongly guide responses. The opportunity though to investigate this programme was so fortuitous that it could not be passed up and outweighed the negatives. To counteract this, issues of trustworthiness, dependability and confirmability were considered and actions taken to uphold these (discussed in detail later in this chapter).

The sample for this research programme was drawn from third and fourth year Bachelor of Education pre-service teachers studying at the university. The homogeneous sample population that was selected was the Bachelor of Education - Primary Programme pre-service teachers.

Sample Selection for Study One

The purpose of this research programme was to identify if there were any differences in the ways the model of quality teaching (see Figure 2.1) was understood and be able to be applied between pre-service teachers who had received a values explicit component in their curriculum and those who did not. The values explicit curriculum content was a Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy that was begun in 2010 with the third year Bachelor of Education primary pre-service teachers. So a group of students who had not engaged in any values-explicit pedagogy throughout their four year Bachelor of Education degree was required. Thus the fourth year students of 2009 were used as the sample population for Study One. Research questions 1 and 2 were investigated in Study One:

1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?

2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?

As part of their final semester all fourth year students complete a core subject which involves a three day conference at the very beginning of their final semester. The purpose is to reinforce learnings and to prepare them for entering the teaching profession. As a part of this conference compulsory tutorials are held. I asked permission from teacher educators to visit their tutorials briefly and to outline my research and to recruit potential participants from among their students. Having gained permission from six teacher educators I approached their tutorial classes seeking research participants. After briefly outlining the research programme and explaining their potential involvement I sent around a handout asking any interested pre-service teachers to sign this sheet with their name and email address. I then emailed each pre-service teacher on these lists offering them possible group interview times. I next emailed a participant information sheet to read prior to the interview.

At the beginning of the group interview the participants were asked if they had read the information sheet (see Appendix D) and I had copies on hand in case anyone had not managed to read it prior to the interview. Any questions were addressed and then the participants all signed a consent form (see Appendix E) and the group interview commenced. The interviews focused on the quality teaching model that this research programme adopted - intellectual quality, a supportive learning environment, recognition of difference, connectedness, and values. In total 21 students were interviewed in Study One – 19 females and 2 males. Following the interviews I transcribed them verbatim.

Sample Selection for Study Two

Study Two's focus was on examining quality teaching when there was a values explicit focus (Philosophy in the Classroom) within the pre-service teachers' curriculum. This was to be a direct contrast to Study One to identify if a values explicit pedagogy did or did not make a difference to pre-service teachers' understandings and use of quality teaching dimensions. It investigated research questions 1 and 2:

1. *In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?*
2. *Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?*

The subject within the university's Bachelor of Education (Primary) programme that was deemed to have the most values explicit focus and pedagogy was the third year field experience subject (FE3). This subject is a third year, second semester core unit of the Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme, which aims to prepare students for their second field experience. Whilst this subject has been in existence for many years, since 2009 the subject has undergone some explicit changes due to restructuring and realigning of teacher education subjects to correlate with the new professional standards. The major realignment of this subject was in 2010 and involved the explicit linking of the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy to literacy. The aims of this unit include the following: “to help pre-service teachers develop their understanding of the practice of teaching as a social and cultural activity”, and “to continue to develop their knowledge and pedagogical and curriculum skills that are required for effective teaching” (FE3 subject documentation).

As it was important to identify if the explicit teaching of a values-based pedagogy, such as Philosophy in the Classroom, made a difference to one's understandings of and development in quality teaching, the focus groups with the pre-service teachers occurred at two points in time. Time One occurred prior to the introductory class of the field studies unit. Time Two was then at the end of nine weeks of the unit's classes with its focus on Philosophy in the Classroom, but prior to the pre-service teachers' field experience. This was done to ascertain if any changes in quality teaching beliefs could be identified as a result of Philosophy in the Classroom - a values explicit pedagogy.

Study Two, similar to Study One, involved semi-structured group interviews as the data collection method. Similar to Study One the questions focused around the quality education model (see Figure 2.1). In Time One, 10 pre-service teachers (9 females + 1 male) participated in the group interviews. In Time Two, 18 participated

(14 females + 4 males). Participants were approached by me, in the first instance, via their subject's online Blackboard site prior to the start of the semester. In this, I outlined my research programme and asked potential participants to contact me via email. As a result of this I only received five responses. I then attended the first lecture of the subject for the semester where I spoke to the pre-service teachers as they entered the lecture hall and as a result more pre service teachers expressed an interest in assisting with the research programme. All interested pre-service teachers were then given a participant information sheet and allocated themselves to a time slot for a group interview. Prior to the commencement of the interview any questions were addressed and participants were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix E). For the Time Two interviews I emailed the 10 pre-service who had participated in Time One groups asking them if they would like to be involved once more. Seven (6 females + 1 male) of these did so. The other Time Two participants were approached in a lecture where I once again outlined my research programme. The remaining participants of Time Two (7 females + 4 males) came to participate via this approach.

Sample Selection for Study Three

Study Three focused on following five pre-service teachers on their journey in Semester Two of their third year of their Bachelor of Education degree. All five were interviewed prior to the commencement of their values explicit curriculum content in group interviews as part of Study Two (Time 1). Also as part of Study Two (Time 2) these five participated in group interviews at the conclusion of the nine weeks of teaching of this values explicit subject. These five individuals were then interviewed individually after they had completed a four-week block of practical field experience in a primary school. Study Three thus goes beyond Study Two to determine if, in a more practical sense, the values explicit component of their curriculum had a direct impact on their teaching and how they thought about their teaching and relationship with their students.

Overall Sample

A breakdown of the sample groups for Studies One, Two and Three is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Sampling across Studies One, Two and Three

Study One	Study Two	Study Three
Group Interviews n= 21 (19 female/2 male)	Group Interviews Time 1 n = 11 (10 female/1 male)	As per Study Two – group interviews at Time 1 and Time 2.
	Group interviews Time 2 n = 18 (13 female/ 5 male)	Individual interviews Time 3 n = 5
	Total of Study Two n = 21	

Whilst it can be seen that there is a predominance of female participants in the study, this is in keeping with the data which demonstrates a greater number of female primary school teachers compared with the number of male primary school teachers. The Australian Bureau of Statistics in 2010 reported that the majority of school teachers in Australia are women and this was steadily increasing whilst at the same time (2000-2010) male teachers decreased by 9%. This gender imbalance is particularly noticeable in primary schools with approximately 19% male teachers and 81% female, as opposed to males accounting for 42% of all teaching staff in secondary schools (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011a) .

Approaches to Data Collection

There are three main sources of data collection for a qualitative case study – interviews, observations and documents (Merriam & Associates, 2002; Patton, 2002; Robson, 1993). All three will often be used in a case study design to ensure a total, intensive and holistic understanding of the case (Merriam, 1998). However, rarely will all three instruments be used equally. This research programme employed the data collection method of interviews – both single and group as the prime approach. With the examination of documents playing a supporting role in order to gain a thorough and in-depth understanding of the case as a whole (Merriam, 1998).

Interviews

Interviewing as a method involves social interaction with people, and the logic for using this method is that a legitimate way to generate data is to interact with

others, thereby capturing their experiences and understandings in their own words (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). When one considers that talk is “the primary medium through which social interaction takes place” (Silverman, 2003, p. 340), it becomes apparent why interviewing is so common in research to the extent that it could easily be stated that we live in an “interview society” (Silverman, 2003, p. 342).

Interviews are a very common and powerful tool where individuals try to understand their fellow human beings (Fontana & Frey, 2003, 2005; Perakyla, 2005). There are a wide variety of interviewing forms and uses – such as a verbal face-to-face exchange between two individuals; a self-administered questionnaire; telephone interviews and they can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Fontana & Frey, 2003, 2005). At one end of the interviewing spectrum is a structured interview where the interviewer asks all respondents exactly the same set of predetermined questions with a limited set of response categories (Fontana & Frey, 2003, 2005). At the other end of the spectrum is the open-ended ethnographic style of unstructured interviewing (Fontana & Frey, 2003, 2005).

In this research programme it was deemed to be important to understand concepts of quality teaching and values from the subjects’ points of view (Perakyla, 2005) and to understand how their experiences have affected their understandings of quality teaching. As the notion of quality teaching and values in teaching are slippery terms that can be defined from a range of different perspectives, it was imperative to allow participants to clearly articulate what they believed these terms represented. It was decided that semi-structured interviews would be used as they allowed the researcher to facilitate the discussion with some focus, while encouraging participants to express their individual viewpoint and to allow more flexibility than in a structured interview but more direction than an unstructured interview. Also by allowing some structure in terms of the questions being asked to interviewees allowed for better comparisons to be made across interviews. While the same questions were asked in order to help balance any bias, digression was allowed to give a more relaxed and conversational tone and to demonstrate an understanding that each interviewee is an individual and will thus see things from a unique perspective (Berg, 2001). It was also important that there was a shared understanding of the meaning of particular terms for the interviewer and the interviewees (Fontana & Frey, 2003). Given that the research on the quality teaching aspect of the study

was focused around the model that was explained in Chapter Two it was vital that all participants had the same understanding of these terms and this model. To this end, all participants were presented with a definition handout prior to the commencement of the interview (see Appendix F). Also I ensured that the first time one of the dimensions was discussed in the interview, I checked for a common understanding and meaning before proceeding.

Particular skills required for conducting interviews were researched and investigated prior to undertaking the interview data collection. There is certainly no magic formula that one can purely implement in order to conduct a successful interview. As Gorden (1992) states: “Interviewing skills are not simple motor skills like riding a bicycle: rather, they involve a high-order combination of observation, empathic sensitivity, and intellectual judgement” (as cited in Fontana & Frey, 2003, p. 70). An interviewer needs to be flexible, empathic, a good listener and effective communicator. Fern (2001) describes three skills that are crucial for an interviewer: non-reflective listening; reflective listening, and non-verbal cues. Non-reflective listening requires minimal responses, such as nodding the head and saying ‘mm-hmm’. I found this encouraged the participants to continue talking, whilst at the same time not being coercive or threatening in any way. Similar to non-reflective listening, reflective listening is also non-judgemental, but it is different in that reflective listening seeks to clarify the accuracy of what has just been said (Fern, 2001). I utilised the four types of reflective listening: clarifying, paraphrasing, reflecting feelings and summarising (Fern, 2001), once again finding that this type of listening along with the non-reflective encouraged the participants to continue sharing and to building upon the conversation. Last, I also utilised non-verbal cues in the interviews to help create a supportive and safe environment. These cues included eye contact, facial expressions especially smiling, and gestures. All in all, these three forms along with some self-disclosure and friendly atmosphere certainly did help in creating an environment that was conducive to the open sharing of ideas, thoughts and feelings.

The notion of empathy is an interesting one in terms of research investigations and has provoked much discussion and literature around the notions of objectivity, subjectivity and bias. Interviewing involves empathy and this is quite contrary to the scientific image of interviewing so premised on the concept of neutrality (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Scheurich (1995) notes that the interviewer is an individual who is

historically and contextually located, and as a result will inevitably carry unavoidable conscious and unconscious motives, desires, feelings and biases, as well as other conscious and unconscious baggage such as research training, epistemological beliefs, and social positionality. Work by Kong, Mahoney and Plummer in 2002 challenged the decades old belief of *objective* interview findings, stating that its very nature is one of subjectivity (as cited in Fontana & Frey, 2005). I was very aware of this and was also conscious that these interviews, particularly the group ones, would very much rely on interpersonal communication and relations.

At times researchers need to adopt emotional detachment which can be facilitated by what Lerum (2001) refers to as *academic armour*. While many researchers may support the jurisdictional benefits of academic armour, others have likewise demonstrated the benefits of dropping this armour (Lerum, 2001). I purposely made a conscious decision to not wear any academic armour, as I am of the belief that research is a personal process in that people will study and research topics that are relevant to them, are of personal interest, and that involves something they want to learn in order to enrich their lives beyond pure intellectual development (J. Marshall, 1992). I approached this research programme from a position of attachment and passion and made the conscious decision to not wear academic armour for two main reasons. First, my personal disposition is one of passion and attachment and I was deeply committed to my research and to the beliefs I hold about values education and quality teaching. Second, I am of the belief that participants will converse much more readily, openly and honestly if everyone feels comfortable and supported by all being on an equal footing and engaging in a meaningful conversation. By allowing for a more personal connection to develop between the interviewer and the interviewees will allow for greater conversation and thus richer data (Harrison, MacGibbon, & Morton, 2001). A sense of trust was developed with the participants through ethical considerations and by me assuring them of their anonymity (see appendix D), but just as importantly this was also developed through engaging in a meaningful conversation and by me providing some self-disclosure in order to establish a relationship (albeit brief) that was characterised by rapport, safety, honouring and obligation (Harrison et al., 2001). As Marshall and Rossman (2006, p. 79) state: “norms of reciprocity suggest that the researcher cannot be simply a spongelike observer”.

Group Interviews in Studies One, Two and Three

One particular type of interview is the group interview, or focus group. Whilst the term focus group is often associated with marketing research, today it is quite common for all group interviews, regardless of their specific nature and type, to be designated focus groups (Fontana & Frey, 2003). As with individual interviews there is a range from very structured to unstructured group interview formats. This particular research programme was of a semi-structured format in that the same, or very similar questions (see Appendices G, H, I and J), were asked of all the different groups, but they were quite open-ended and allowed for a solid discussion amongst the focus group participants.

Krueger (1994, p. 6) defines a focus group as a “carefully planned discussion to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment”. A focus group very much relies on interactions amongst the group members and it is precisely this interaction that produces richer data and insights that would be less accessible without that group interaction (Berg, 2001; Krueger, 1994; Litosseliti, 2003; Morgan, 1997). The number of participants in a focus group will vary depending on the specific purpose, however most would usually be composed of between five and ten participants (Krueger & Casey, 2000). In this research programme where the participants were university students there were some practical constraints that affected the size of focus groups. The participants were volunteers and were generally full-time students with busy lives with research suggesting that one in five 18-24 year olds in Australia are balancing work and study (Newspoll Market Research, 2007). This meant I had to be very flexible with the timing and number of participants in the focus groups so I could engage as many participants as possible in the research programme. As such, focus groups ranged from as few as two participants to as many as eleven in one group. There was also a problem, not unique to this research project though (Morgan, 1997), with participants not arriving for a focus group session. This then meant that the planned numbers for the focus groups were not always fulfilled and in two instances only one participant fronted, thus changing it from a focus group to an individual interview. The data received on these occasions was certainly affected as it was not as a relaxed and shared environment as a focus group where “participants are influencing and influenced by others – just as they are in real life” (Krueger, 1994, p. 19).

The skills needed for conducting a group interview are not significantly different from those required to interview individuals. The group format though does present some unique challenges in that the interviewer does need to ensure that no single person dominates the group; that everyone is given a voice and contributes; encouraging quieter respondents to participate; and lastly, must balance the interviewer role with the role of moderator (Fontana & Frey, 2003). So while there are some challenges to group interviews there are also benefits. A particular benefit of utilising focus groups with pre-service teachers who were enrolled in the same course and class, would be that this situation would be less threatening to them than a one-on-one interview, as well as being more conducive to the discussing of perceptions, ideas, opinions and thoughts (Krueger & Casey, 2000) thus providing richer data (Morgan, 1997).

The researcher serves several functions in focus groups acting as moderator, observer, listener, and analyst (Krueger & Casey, 2000). I made a deliberate effort to blend in as Krueger (1994) argues this is vital for the success of a focus group. Thus I positioned myself with the group participants as a teacher who had also once been a pre-service teacher who had undergone similar experiences and feelings to their own. One of the criticisms of focus group research is the potential for bias (Litosseliti, 2003) when the researcher is indeed moderator, observer, listener and analyst. I acknowledge this can be a problem, so in order to counteract this a semi-structured interview question sheet was used in all focus groups (see Appendices G, H and I). Part of the criticism is also that questions are not asked the same way (Fern, 2001), so in order to counteract this, the same questions were used within each of the iterations.

Other criticisms of focus groups include such comments as the sample sizes are too small and thus they are not representative, as well as that responses are not independent (Fern, 2001). I acknowledge that a smaller number participated in this research programme than if a survey was used that could have been easily disseminated to a larger population. The aim though of this research programme was to identify values, attitudes and beliefs of individuals and the data would have been much more difficult to gain through surveys where only cursory responses would have been collected. By utilising focus groups a much greater depth of data was able to be collected due to their conversational nature. Whilst critics of focus groups

condemn this conversational nature as eliciting responses that are not independent, the benefits of the depth of discussion that results from a sharing and free exchange of ideas between participants more than adequately makes up for this. This was certainly demonstrated in this research programme when due to in-attendance by some participants focus groups were reduced to one-on-one interviews and I noticed a change in the depth of responses from focus groups where the interchange between participants allowed for much greater depth.

The group interview sessions with the pre-service teachers took place at two of the university's campuses, with each session lasting approximately 45 minutes. The participants for Study Two were approached by the researcher via the field studies unit's Blackboard site and by speaking to small groups of pre-service as they waited for and entered their first lecture as well as talking to the whole group in the first class in Week One of the semester. Study One participants were approached by the researcher in a core final semester unit that occurred in Week One of the semester. In both studies convenient times were disseminated to the students and they chose a day and time that best suited them. Everyone who agreed to participate gave their email details to myself who then followed up with the volunteers by emailing them confirmation of date, time and place for the focus group session as well as a participant information sheet (see Appendix D) outlining the research programme's purpose and what was involved. The participants were welcomed to each focus group session and asked to help themselves to food and drink which I provided. They were then asked if there were any questions they needed to be answered concerning the study and after these were addressed they were asked if they would sign a consent form (see Appendix E) that indicated their agreement to participate in the research programme and to be audio-taped. On completion of the focus groups sessions, I transcribed these verbatim.

Individual Interviews in Study Three

The other type of interview that was utilised in the research investigation was the individual interviews used in Study Three. I developed a rapport with these pre-service teachers by situating myself as a fellow university student and a teacher (Berg, 2001; Fontana & Frey, 2003). Prior to these individual interviews I had already interviewed these pre-service teachers twice before in a group situation. I had also engaged in email correspondence with them regarding my research and thus felt

we had some “connection”. Face to face interviews offers the researcher an opportunity to modify questions, to follow up interesting responses and to investigate underlying motives that questionnaires, email responses or other self-administered formats could not (Robson, 1993).

Each of these individual interviews took approximately 30 minutes and took place at a time and location that was convenient for the interviewee. These interviews were much more unstructured and more conversational than the interviews in Studies One and Two. They were focused on discussing the practical outcomes of their values explicit subject, as these individual interviews took place after the pre-service teachers’ practical field experience. Similar to all of the other interviews they were audio-taped and later transcribed verbatim.

Examination of Documents

For every qualitative study some data will be gathered on the background and context, even if it does not constitute a major part of data collection, it nevertheless occurs and should be acknowledged (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). This data will usually take the form of reviewing documents (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). The term documents when used in relation to data collection methods is an umbrella term and refers to a wide range of written, visual and physical material relevant to the particular study (Merriam, 1998). Another term that is sometimes used in the literature synonymous with documents is *artifacts*. The three main types of documents are public; personal; and physical (Merriam, 1998). This study utilised public documents only.

The public documents that were accessed and analysed were programme documents relating to the study under investigation. So documents like programme and unit outlines; programme and unit objectives; and course and unit materials were investigated and reviewed. These allowed me the opportunity to familiarise myself with the programme’s content and curriculum and teaching approaches.

Ethical Considerations

All research is contaminated in some way by the values of the researcher and the conclusions and recommendations drawn will be largely grounded in the moral and political beliefs of the researcher (Weber, 1946 as cited in Silverman, 2005). Given this statement and the fact that qualitative inquiry focuses on individuals and

their beliefs and thoughts, it is most important that the researcher takes some responsibility for those being studied. Thus, in any research programme ethical considerations are of vital concern (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Merriam, 1998; Neuman, 2004a). Ethics gives a framework around the proper way to conduct research, looking at what is legitimate and illegitimate and what moral research procedure involves (Neuman, 2004a). Overall, the ethical concerns in my research were minimal and low risk. No child participants were involved and the interview questions and discussion were not of a deeply private or personal nature. Despite this though, as an ethical researcher I was bound to protect the participants against “loss of dignity, self-esteem, privacy, or democratic freedoms” (Neuman, 2004a, p. 47).

Ethical concerns and preparations need to be dealt with very early on in the design phase of a research programme (Neuman, 2004a). I completed the ethics proposal very early on in the research programme. My ethics proposal was accepted and as the research programme progressed and as it was emergent, as previously discussed, changes to ethics were needed. Each of these changes was submitted to the ethics committee and approval gained before proceeding to the next stage of the data collection process.

A requirement of any ethical research is that of informed consent. Informed consent is based on Western democratic principles of individualism and free will (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). The requirement of informed consent is to ensure that participation is always voluntary and that no coercion is used at any time. Potential participants need to give more than their permission, they need to be completely aware of the purpose and aims of the research in which they are being invited to participate as well as their rights so they can make an informed decision (Neuman, 2004a). In each of the three studies in this research programme all potential participants were provided with a participant information form outlining the purpose and aims of the research programme as well as the rights of the participants (see Appendix D). Participants’ rights included the promise of the safeguard of their anonymity by ensuring all transcripts were de-identified and all materials were kept in a locked filing cabinet in a locked room with access limited to myself. After gaining an understanding of the research and their rights, participants were thus informed and signed a consent form stating this (see Appendix E).

Issues of Trustworthiness

In qualitative research issues of trustworthiness relate to any efforts by the researcher to address the more traditional quantitative issues of validity and reliability (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). Whilst in quantitative studies the criteria that have evolved for addressing trustworthiness are internal validity; external validity; reliability and objectivity, these cannot be transferred to qualitative inquiries. Lincoln and Guba (1985) posit that the five criteria which to assess qualitative trustworthiness are: trustworthiness; credibility; dependability; transferability and; confirmability. This criteria are essentially replacing the traditional mandate of objectivity with an emphasis on being “balanced, fair, and conscientious in taking account of multiple perspectives, multiple interests, and multiple realities” (Patton, 2002, p. 573). It needs to be remembered that criteria of trustworthiness are open-ended and can never be satisfied to the extent that one could say the inquiry was unassailable and at best it can only persuade (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Credibility

The criterion for credibility suggests whether or not the findings of the research are credible from the standpoints of researcher, participants and reader (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008), and is “the naturalist’s substitute for the conventionalist’s internal validity” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 296). In ensuring this one must be concerned with both methodological and interpretive validity. According to Patton (2002), there are three elements to credibility: rigorous methods for engaging in field work that yield high-quality data that are then systematically analysed; the credibility of the researcher in terms of training, experience and presentation of self, and; a philosophical belief in the value of qualitative inquiry.

At the heart of the discussion concerning barriers to credible qualitative findings is the controversy surrounding the fact that whilst quantitative analysis depends on formulas and rules, qualitative analysis depends on the insights and capabilities of the analyst, and these may be shaped by predispositions and beliefs (Patton, 2002). As Patton (2002) states, the issue is not what is and what has shaped the predispositions and beliefs, but how to counter any suspicion surrounding them before the suspicion takes root. In this research programme I made my own predispositions, values and beliefs explicit from the outset (see Chapter One). Another way that research suggests to enhance the credibility of the researcher is to

include some information about the researcher in the report (Patton, 2002). Thus in this thesis I have included information about my own perspectives, predispositions and beliefs (see Chapter One); how I gained access to the site and sample (see earlier in this chapter within the *Setting* section); the prior knowledge I brought to the research programme; and any personal connections I had with the site, sample and topic. I also have made it explicit and clear that as neutrality and impartiality are almost impossible to achieve, that I have brought preconceptions and interpretations with me to this research programme. However, rather than hiding and obscuring these I have embraced them by being aware of them and making them explicit for all to see. I openly acknowledge that this research programme and its content and outcomes are something that I am passionate about, but then I also suppose that every PhD student is the same with their particular research study. In order to counteract the problem of participant reactivity, I continually reflected on how I might be influencing the participants (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). This process was aided by the iterative process of qualitative research where there is a cycle back and forth between data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2008), as it allowed me to learn from any shortcomings or mistakes regarding participant reactivity in the early stages.

In terms of methodological validity, I ensured that the methods were well matched to the type of research questions I was posing, as discussed earlier in this chapter. An overall check of my methodology before embarking on data collection and analysis ensured that there was a strong interconnection between the research programme's purpose, conceptual framework, research questions and method (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). Another method used to enhance methodological validity was the triangulation of both data sources and data collection methods (Patton, 2002). By ensuring I gathered data from multiple sources, I was able to yield a fuller and richer picture. So, instead of just gathering data from pre-service teachers engaged in the learning of the values-based pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom, I also sought data from pre-service teachers not engaged in the learning of Philosophy in the Classroom as well as unit plans and other subject documentation. Multiple data collection methods were also instigated by using individual interviews, group interviews, and examination of documents.

The other area where validity was sought was in the interpretation of the data. This was done both inductively and logically (Patton, 2002). Inductively, I looked for different ways of organising the data once it had been collected to see if that might lead to different findings. This involved the use of tables, mind maps and flow charts. Logically, I thought about different possibilities and how my data might support these. So for example, could changes in thoughts and beliefs about quality teaching be related to other things other than just an exposure to the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy. Using multiple data sources as listed above also helped in this aspect.

Dependability

Dependability has some loose connections to reliability in the traditional quantitative sense, but is more about whether the findings are consistent and dependable when seen in conjunction with the data collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba suggest four possible techniques for checking dependability: (1) there can be no validity without reliability; (2) overlap method; (3) stepwise replication; and (4) the inquiry audit. In this study when checking for dependability I utilised two of these techniques outlined by Lincoln and Guba. The second technique is referred to as the *overlap method* and represents the kind of triangulation that was discussed in relation to credibility. This relates then to the first technique mentioned which Guba posited in a 1981 paper that there can be no validity without reliability and thus no credibility without dependability, and therefore it should not “be necessary to demonstrate dependability separately” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 317).

Confirmability

The concept of confirmability relates to objectivity in quantitative research (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). It entails ensuring that the findings of the research are the result of the research, rather than an outcome of biases and subjectivity of the researcher. Whilst as previously stated objectivity is futile in qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 2002), nonetheless there needs to be a clear audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Components of the audit trail that Guba and Lincoln (1985) suggest that were utilised in this research study were ongoing reflection; and records of interviews and transcripts. Mertens (2005) adds member checks to a list of

possible research strategies that may help to increase the credibility of a qualitative study. For this research programme an academic at the same university with a background in the values-based pedagogy checked my interview transcripts and coding and themes to confirm that my findings were as a result of the data and not a result of my subjectivity.

Transferability

Transferability refers to the ways which “the reader determines whether and to what extent this particular phenomenon in this particular context can transfer to another particular context” (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008, p. 87). To assist with transferability I aimed at providing thick, rich description of the participants, the setting, and the context. This chapter on methodology (Chapter 3) was also written in great detail thereby allowing a reader to possibly transfer the methodology to another context.

Overview of Data Analyses

The data generated by qualitative methods are voluminous – “It wasn’t curiosity that killed the cat. It was trying to make sense of all the data curiosity generated - Halcolm” (Patton, 2002, p. 440).

It is important to remember that in qualitative research, data collection and analysis is a simultaneous activity and the research stages of data collection, analysis, and reporting will be of an interactive and iterative nature (Creswell, 2008; Merriam, 1998). Like much of qualitative research, there are no hard and fast rules for analysis and much of it will be intuitive (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002).

As the end product of a qualitative study should be rich, thick description, the analysis task should be to reach across multiple data sources and to condense them (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As multiple sources are used it is also important to organise the data into a matrix of sources and organise them according to documents – public and personal – and interviews – individual and group (Creswell, 2008).

Transcript-based analysis is said to be the most rigorous and time-intensive mode of analysing data (Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech, & Zoran, 2009). I did transcribe each interview, both single and group, verbatim. This transcription was done by myself rather than outsourcing as is sometimes the case with transcripts.

This decision was deliberately made to ensure I was fully immersed in and conversant with the data, as it often claimed that researchers who transcribe their own data find ‘getting inside’ it much easier and it can lead to emergent insights (Patton, 2002; L. Richards & Morse, 2007). The organisation of the transcriptions also allows another opportunity for immersion in the data by getting a feel for the cumulative data as a whole (Patton, 2002).

Following the transcription phase and having gained a preliminary sense of the data the next step is to code the data (Creswell, 2008). Coding is described as “the process of segmenting and labelling text to form descriptions and broad themes in the data” (Creswell, 2008, p. 251). When coding, a sense of the whole is first gained, and having personally transcribed the interviews greatly assisted in this familiarisation process. Next the coding process occurs where text segments are identified and a code word/phrase is assigned which accurately describes the meaning of that text segment (Creswell, 2008). There are three types of coding that can be used: *descriptive coding* which entails little interpretation and is more used for stating things known about the data; *topic coding*, which is the most common where a category is formed or identified from one earlier and; *analytic coding*, which is topic coding in its latter stages where the purpose is to allow pursuance of comparisons and to allow for exploration and development of new categories and concepts (L. Richards & Morse, 2007). Coding is largely an intuitive process that is informed by the study’s purpose (Merriam, 1998). The actual categories and subcategories are most commonly constructed through the constant comparative method of data analysis (Merriam, 1998). This method was developed by Glaser and Strauss as part of their work on grounded theory and its basic strategy is to constantly compare incidents/statements within the data.

In coding, the qualitative analyst must deal with challenges of convergence by discovering what fits together with what (Patton, 2002). After coding the transcription, a list of codes is made and similar codes are grouped and redundant codes removed. Quotes were then found in the transcripts to support these codes and lastly themes/descriptors (similar codes grouped together to form a major idea) were decided upon (Creswell, 2008). These categories should be reflective of the purpose of the research as in effect, these are the answers to the research questions (Merriam,

1998). Merriam (1998) provides guidelines which can be used to determine the efficacy of categories:

1. They should *reflect the purpose* of the research.
2. They should be *exhaustive* in that all data considered to be important is able to be placed in a category.
3. They should be *mutually exclusive*, in that a particular unit of data should only be able to fit in one category.
4. They should be *sensitizing* so an outsider can read the categories and gain some sense of their nature.
5. They should be *conceptually congruent*.

As this qualitative case study design used a nest of case studies, I had to collect and analyse data from several cases. In the analysis phase this then required two stages of analysis: the within-case analysis and the cross-case analysis (Merriam, 1998). Firstly each case is treated as a comprehensive case on its own and the data is analysed as described above. Once each of the case studies is analysed in this way, cross-case analysis occurs where the researcher attempts to understand “processes and outcomes that occur across many cases” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 172).

There is no statistical significance in qualitative inquiry as there is in quantitative inquiry, rather qualitative findings are judged by their *substantive significance* (Patton, 2002). In determining substantive significance the following questions are addressed:

1. How solid and consistent is the evidence in support of these findings?
2. To what extent and in what ways do the findings support understanding of the phenomenon under investigation?
3. To what extent are the findings consistent with other knowledge?
4. To what extent are the findings useful?

(Patton, 2002)

Summary

This chapter has presented the important methodological concerns considered in this qualitative research programme. It has outlined the sample and setting that have been utilised in this research inquiry, as well as defining the parameters of each of the three studies within this research programme. The research questions that have guided this research programme have also been clearly stated and it has been demonstrated how they align to each of the three studies. The following chapters will now expand on these studies with each study presented in more detail in its own chapter, before all studies being cross analysed. The next chapter – Chapter Four – will provide an insight into Study One with its focus on pre-service teachers with no values-based pedagogy as an explicit part of their pre-service teacher education programme.

Chapter 4: **Study One**

Overview

This chapter will present the findings from fourth year Bachelor of Education pre-service teachers who had not engaged in an explicit values based subject, in response to Research Question 1. The purpose of Study One was to explore with a sample of pre-service teachers their understandings of quality teaching and how they perceived their teacher education degree prepared them to be a quality teacher. This chapter presents the key findings obtained from 21 pre-service teachers who participated in one of five focus group sessions in July 2009. These pre-service teachers had not engaged in an explicit values based subject, unlike participants in Studies Two and Three.

Study One utilises focus group methodology in order to examine the research questions. The principal research questions addressed in Study One are:

- 1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?*
- 2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?*

Table 4.1
Overview of Research Programme Highlighting Study One

Study	Time	Research Question	Participants
One	Semester Two, 2009	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	21 (19 female + 2 male) Fourth Year Bachelor of Education students
Two	<p>Semester Two, 2010</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> – prior to commencement of subject FE3 (Week 1)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – post course content and delivery of subject FE3 (Week 10-11)</p>	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	<p>Third Year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme students enrolled in subject FE3.</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> – 11 (10 female + 1 male)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – 18 (14 female + 4 male)</p> <p>22 (18 female + 4 male) in total as 7 participants were the same in Time 1 and Time 2.</p>
Three	<p>Semester Two, 2010</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> - prior to commencement of subject FE3 (Week 1)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – post course content and delivery of subject FE3 (Week 10-11)</p> <p><i>Time 3</i> – post field experience (Week 16)</p>	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	5 female Third Year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme students enrolled in subject FE3.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were in their final year of their four year Bachelor of Education programme from an Australian (Queensland) university with a large pre-service teacher education programme and cohort. This sample population had not engaged in a values explicit subject, such as Philosophy in the Classroom, during their Bachelor of Education programme. A total of 21 (19 female and 2 male) pre-service teachers participated in Study One. They were at the beginning of their final semester of their Bachelor of Education programme at the time of this study. This particular cohort of pre-service teachers was chosen because they were approaching the end of their degree and had one final practicum experience and one internship to complete in order to finalise their degree. Being at the end of their four year programme allowed the participants to draw upon their knowledge and perceptions gained over the period of their pre-service teacher preparation programme.

Rationale for Utilising Group Interviews

Interviews are a common and powerful tool (Fontana & Frey, 2003, 2005) and are one of the main sources of data collection for a qualitative case study design (Merriam & Associates, 2002; Patton, 2002; Robson, 1993). Group interviews are commonly referred to as focus groups, regardless of their specific nature and type (Fontana & Frey, 2003), and as such can be defined as a “carefully planned discussion to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment” (Krueger, 1994, p. 6). For a fuller discussion of the methodology utilised please see Chapter Three. Focus group method was selected for this study as I felt that the pre-service teachers would be more comfortable discussing in a group situation and that the interaction between group members would produce richer data and insights than would occur without group interaction (Berg, 2001; Krueger, 1994; Litosseliti, 2003; Morgan, 1997).

Procedure

Ethical approval was gained from the university to conduct the research. I identified a common core subject that was taking place in the pre-service teachers’ last semester. I then sought and gained the permission of the subject coordinator and some of the tutors to approach the pre-service teachers in tutorials to outline my

research and to seek their assistance by participating in focus group sessions. All participants were provided with an information sheet (see Appendix D) outlining the study and any questions and/or concerns were addressed. This information sheet detailed the purpose and nature of the study, the conditions of the focus groups, and how the information would be used and stored. It also stated that participation in the study was voluntary and would have no impact on the students' relationship with the university.

Focus group sessions were conducted in a meeting room at the university at a time that was nominated by the participants. These sessions took approximately one hour. Before the commencement of each focus group session I ensured that all participants were clear about the study and I addressed any concerns regarding confidentiality. I also informed participants that the session would be audio-taped to ensure accurate information was documented. The participants were then asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix E) stating that they understood the nature and conditions of the study.

A total of five focus group sessions were held with Study One's participants. The numbers participating in each session ranged from two to six. The groups with four to six participants proved to be the most fruitful as there were more ideas generated and the discussion was deeper than the smaller groups.

Analysis of Focus Group Data

Qualitative data analysis is messy and time-consuming and is neither neat nor linear (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). In a qualitative study data collection and analysis usually go hand-in-hand and occur simultaneously (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). In analysing the focus group data for this study I adhered to the analytic procedures outlined by Marshall and Rossman (2006). This procedure falls into seven phases: (1) organising the data; (2) immersion in the data; (3) generating categories and themes; (4) coding the data; (5) offering interpretations; (6) searching for alternative understandings; and (7) writing up of the report.

Organising the Data

The first step in this stage of analysis was to transcribe the focus group transcripts. This was done verbatim so the exact words of the participants were recorded along with pause, laughter, interruptions, and so forth. Next, I organised the

data and assigned identification codes to each focus group and to each participant which made information easily retrievable and the data more manageable (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

Immersion in the Data

Transcribing the audio taped focus group sessions myself, allowed me a valuable opportunity to become fully immersed in the dialogue of the participants (Patton, 2002). Once transcribed verbatim, I listened to the audio recordings again following the written transcripts, ensuring that a correct transcription had occurred. In this phase, and throughout, I made a concerted effort to keep an open mind, in order to ascertain what the transcript was saying, and not placing my preconceptions upon these (Seidman, 1998). This full immersion allowed me to gain an intimate understanding of the data and proved most beneficial in the whole analytic process.

Generating Categories and Themes

This step is crucial in that it is here that the data starts to become more readily accessible and understandable (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). This is the most difficult and complex of the analytic procedural steps (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006), though the process was made easier because of my immersion in and familiarity with the data. In this part of the process the purpose is to identify salient themes, recurring ideas and/or language and patterns of belief (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). At this stage there are a variety of approaches that might be adopted.

The approach I adopted was that of immersion, which is the least structured of the approaches and remains much more fluid than the other approaches such as editing, template or quasi-statistical (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). In this phase of the data analysis patterns were noted and categories formed according to the process of inductive analysis (Patton, 2002). “*Inductive analysis* involves *discovering* patterns, themes, and categories in one’s data” (Patton, 2002, p. 453). Thus in inductive analysis the findings emerge out of the data, as opposed to deductive analysis where data is analysed according to an existing framework (Patton, 2002). The inductive analysis categories in the present study though, were situated within the five dimensions of the quality teaching model. So, there was actually a mixture of inductive and deductive analyses occurring simultaneously.

Coding the Data

This step in the analytic process continues on from the themes generated in the previous step by now dissecting and classifying the data. Marshall and Rossman (2006, p. 160) write that “coding data is the formal representation of analytic thinking”. Codes may take several forms: abbreviations, coloured dots or numbers, but in this instance I utilised coloured highlighters as well as the writing of analytic memos. Firstly I used the highlighters to place quotes within one, or sometimes multiple, quality teaching dimensions. Then these were cut and pasted together to form five separate groups – one for each of the quality teaching dimensions (intellectual quality, supportive learning environment, connectedness and, recognition of difference) and for values and dispositions. Next, themes inductively emerged within each of these groups. At this point it is advised to checked for inter-rater reliability (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This was achieved by asking a fellow teacher educator at the same university who had a knowledge of my subject matter as well as my methodology to act as auditor. She coded some of the transcripts for Study One to check for consistency and she confirmed that the categories generated were appropriate.

Offering Interpretations

In this phase the data was evaluated for their usefulness in order to support the emerging interpretations and the “telling of the story”. The participant quotes that were deemed most suitable to the telling of the story were posted under headings on large sheets of cardboard, so that when the report was being written, the story emerged from these participants’ words.

Searching for Alternative Understandings

At this stage of the analytic process I evaluated the plausibility of my developing understandings and interpretations and explored these through the data. In so doing, I critically challenged myself to search for other plausible explanations for the data and the linkages between them (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). In this phase it also important to examine the multiple perspectives of participants as supported by the different quotations, so the previous phase of offering interpretations was vital in assisting me in this phase of the analytic process.

Writing the Report

In the writing up of qualitative data, there is no real separation from the whole analytic process, for in choosing words to summarise and reflect on the data the researcher is actually engaging in the interpretative act of lending shape and form, and thus meaning, to the raw data (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006). As this report was on a specific programme it is referred to as a case study in the literature (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Stake, 1995, 2003). Part of a case study approach to the writing is that the author/researcher takes “the reader into the setting with a vividness and detail not typically present in more analytic reporting formats” (C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006, p. 164). Extensive quotes of participants are utilised in the findings section, and it is these quotes that substantiate the story that I am telling and to ensure the reader that I am retelling the reality of the participants (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008).

Findings and Discussion

The findings will be presented under the quality teaching model with its four Productive Pedagogies dimensions as outlined in the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (QSRLS) (The University of Queensland, 2001) and a fifth dimension of values.

Figure 4.1
Quality Teaching Model



Intellectual quality focuses on producing deep understanding of important, substantive concepts, skills and ideas. Through the manipulation of information and ideas that occurs in this dimension new meanings and understandings will be discovered and explored and thus students will come to realise that knowledge is not a fixed body of information. Another key to unlocking teacher quality is a focus on *creating and maintaining a supportive classroom environment*. This includes such things as ensuring students are clearly directed in their work; providing social support for all students in the class; ensuring that the students are academically engaged with work that has an explicit quality performance criteria as well as developing students who are self-regulated learners. The third dimension is *recognition of difference* which involves exposing students to a range of cultures, to different groups of people, and to individuals different from themselves. In all of this it is important that students develop values such as respect, creating a sense of community, understanding the importance of relationships and responsibility in a democratic society. The final dimension is *connectedness*, where the aim is to ensure the engagement and connection of students beyond the classroom walls to the wider school, the community and beyond. Connectedness incorporates knowledge integration; background knowledge, connectedness to the world and a problem-based curriculum to ensure that connections are made to students' prior knowledge as well as to the 'outside' world. As well as the PP dimensions of quality teaching I also had identified a *values* dimension as being important in developing quality teachers and therefore quality teaching, so this dimension was also added to the research programme. This values dimension includes teacher's dispositions, teacher-student relationships, and teachers' values, beliefs and attitudes.

Intellectual Quality

Intellectual quality focuses on producing deep understanding of important, substantive concepts, skills and ideas. Through the manipulation of information and ideas that occurs in this dimension new meanings and understandings will be discovered and explored and thus students will come to realise that knowledge is not a fixed body of information. As discussed in Chapter Two, the PP dimension of intellectual quality consists of higher-order thinking; deep knowledge and deep understanding; knowledge as problematic; substantive conversation and metalanguage.

Findings Relating to Intellectual Quality

The first part of the focus group sessions with the pre-service teachers was regarding the dimension of intellectual quality, and posed the questions:

1. What would you want to develop with your future students in terms of developing their intellectual quality?
2. How has your teacher education programme prepared you to teach these skills?

Table 4.2 shows the themes that emerged from the focus groups in terms of developing intellectual quality in future students and some common examples of each.

Table 4.2

Intellectual Quality Themes (as reported by participants)

Theme	Examples
Critical and Creative Thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Higher order thinking• Processing• Deeper understanding• Producing• Metacognition
Teaching Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Building on prior knowledge• Questioning – esp. open-ended• Bloom’s Taxonomy• Gardner’s Multiple Intelligences• De Bono’s hats
Making Connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Taking another person’s perspective• Connecting to the world outside the classroom• Connecting to the students’ life experiences• Appreciating perspectives different from their own

From this table it can be seen that the pre-service teachers in these focus groups defined intellectual quality in terms of critical and creative thinking, teaching strategies and making connections.

The participants noted that critical and creative thinking encompasses higher order thinking, deeper understanding and processing as well as metacognition. They saw critical and creative thinking as a building block process where they start with a student’s basic understanding and build up to deeper analysis.

Getting their prior knowledge and introducing their basic understanding and building on that to the deeper analysis and creating. So for me intellectual quality is building upon prior knowledge, giving them educational experiences that deepen that knowledge and building them up towards higher order thinking (Study One Participant 1).

One pre-service teacher identified critical thinking as: “rather than just being able to regurgitate all that information” (Study One Participant 3), with creative thinking seen as “[students] creating their own product” (Study One Participant 15). One participant defined higher order thinking as: “where you’re trying to um not only work out what you’re trying to tell them but how you can say it in a way that they understand” (Study One Participant 2). A few participants in particular were able to identify the key concept in higher-order thinking of the student constructing his/her own knowledge: “how students explore their workings and find out answers for themselves rather than looking at the blackboard” (Study One Participant 12); “...creating their [students] own knowledge as well, new concepts for themselves” (Study One Participant 15).

The study’s participants appeared to be focused on teaching strategies such as the use of Bloom’s taxonomy, De Bono’s thinking hats, questioning techniques, and Gardner’s multiple intelligences. The pre-service teachers readily identified particular strategies, such as those just listed, which they had been taught at university and which they knew would assist with building intellectual quality. Overall however, the participants tended to list teaching strategies to which they had been exposed without really understanding and demonstrating how these specifically and practically related to intellectual quality. For example:

I just did teaching strategies last semester for the first time, this sounds bad, but I actually thought more about how I was going to deliver it rather than just content focus. Because we’ve come off all the different subjects like the Arts, Sciences where it’s all content focus and that kind of part for me came secondary (Study One Participant 20).

Questioning was a strategy referred to in the focus group sessions more so than any other. All participants referred to using open-ended questions rather than closed ones. Despite this though, and general agreement that their questioning skills had significantly improved over the course of their degree, they still seemed to believe

that their questioning of students would lead the class to the destination that they, as the teachers, had previously chosen and determined.

I've developed my style of questioning over the four years and knowing sometimes when to use open-ended questions and knowing when you just need to lead them [students] a little bit to get them to where you want them to go. And sometimes that happens because you just, you can see they're just not going to give you what exactly what you're wanting – so leading them without actually saying it (Study One Participant 1).

In a couple of the focus groups the pre-service teachers also expressed thoughts on standardised high-stakes testing (such as NAPLAN) and they believed that out in the schools there is a strong focus on teaching to the tests rather than encouraging higher order thinking.

With such a big focus on NAPLAN at the moment, especially for primary, that it's just like well we have to focus on just them [students] knowing this, because those tests don't always test those higher order thinking (Study One Participant 14).

Another pre-service teacher expanded on this saying the students themselves also wanted explicit content over higher-order thinking particularly in certain subject areas, when she said:

I guess it's harder with Maths to develop higher-order thinking...because to pass the test they just need knowledge you know. We're pushed to create, like we're encouraged to create lesson plans that promote higher-order thinking, but in reality you get into the classroom...and the kids don't want higher-order thinking they just want their knowledge so they can pass (Study One Participant 7).

Catch words such as higher-order thinking, deep understanding, analysis and substantive conversation were utilised by the participants but without a demonstration of how this would actually look and work in a practical classroom situation.

Discussion Regarding Intellectual Quality

Overall, it would appear that the pre-service teachers in this study, whilst knowing key words associated with intellectual quality and having some basic

understanding, were not able to demonstrate a clear understanding of all of the elements within the PP dimension of intellectual quality.

In creating activities/environments that provide students with opportunities to engage in higher-order thinking the QSRLS noted that a teacher needs to allow for an element of uncertainty and unpredictability in both the instructional and the outcome processes (The University of Queensland, 2001). This did not correspond with the participants' responses in this study. The pre-service teachers interviewed did not appear to display a readiness to allow for unpredictability, but rather were concerned with leading the children where they, as the teachers, wanted them to go. This was particularly apparent in their discussion regarding the use of questioning. Hattie (2004) noted that quality teachers were more highly responsive to their students' needs than other teachers, and this allowed them to react more spontaneously in the classroom. Whilst this may be ideal, I would expect pre-service and beginning teachers to be far more rigid in their teaching approaches and far less spontaneous in the classroom, as, after all, they are still finding their feet. Research studies (see for example Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Mandel, 2006) support this, suggesting that beginning teachers are only barely able to keep their heads above water; they increasingly feel stressed about covering the curriculum, and as a result they eliminate creative ideas they may have initially been wanting to try, which then often leads to student boredom and a lack of student construction of their own knowledge.

This same reasoning could be applied to the pre-service teachers' strong focus on teaching strategies. When discussing intellectual quality all focus groups reported a heavy reliance on teaching strategies. The most popular strategy was questioning, followed by Bloom's Taxonomy, then Gardener's Multiple Intelligences amongst others. The participants understood that to help their students deepen their knowledge and understanding particular teaching strategies that progressed through stages from recall through to synthesis and evaluation, such as Bloom's Taxonomy, would be beneficial. But the nuances and practicalities of implementing these strategies in an effective manner in the classroom may still be eluding many of the focus group participants. Whilst the utilisation of these strategies in the classroom may somewhat assist with students' engagement in better intellectual quality, they are by no means guarantees. For example, the first two levels of Bloom's taxonomy are simply recall and comprehension and do not demonstrate any higher order

thinking skills at all (see Appendix A). Whilst Gardner's multiple intelligences are extremely useful in understanding how individuals learn and trying to cater for different learning preferences and styles within a classroom, they will not automatically create higher order thinking and intellectual quality.

The substantive conversation and metalanguage components of intellectual quality were not addressed by the participants in the focus groups very much at all. Metalanguage was really only addressed in terms of discussing metacognition, which had clearly been discussed in their learnings at university. They saw metacognition as being important and appeared to agree that students should be actively taught this and in so doing would be engaging in the language of thinking about thinking, but did not offer ways they could achieve this.

Supportive Classroom Environment

Another key to unlocking teacher quality is a focus on creating and maintaining a supportive classroom environment. This includes such things as ensuring students are clearly directed in their work; providing social support for all students in the class; ensuring that the students are academically engaged with work that has an explicit quality performance criteria as well as developing students who are self-regulated learners.

Findings Relating to a Supportive Classroom Environment

Following the discussion on intellectual quality, the focus group participants moved on to a discussion concerning a supportive classroom environment. The two questions that were asked concerning this were:

3. What would you want to develop with your future students in terms of developing and maintaining a supportive classroom environment?
4. How has your teacher education programme prepared you to teach these skills?

Table 4.3 highlights the themes that emerged from the focus groups in terms of developing and maintaining a supportive classroom environment and some common examples of each.

Table 4.3

Supportive Classroom Environment Themes (as reported by participants)

Theme	Examples
Relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher – teacher • Student – teacher • Student – student • Class – family • Class – class • Class – school
Valuing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Others • Student work • Difference/diversity • Individuals • Connections with others

From this table it can be noted that the pre-service teachers participating in this study identified a supportive classroom environment with quality relationships and connections and the valuing of these. It was interesting to note that when discussing and referring to relationships in the focus groups every participant acknowledged the importance of these and noted that there were many different arms to relationships and didn't just refer to relationships as being teacher to students. In table 4.4 are examples of the different types of relationships the participants identified as being important in creating a supportive classroom environment.

Table 4.4

Relationships (as reported by participants)

Type of Relationship	Example
Teacher - student	“It comes back to understanding – understanding the students and I suppose really caring for them and creating relationships.” (Study One Participant 10)
Teacher - teacher	“The most functional classroom environment I’ve been in...was the open classroom where they team teach...it worked so well because it was so open...They [the teachers] worked really well together, they were both open to each other’s ideas...The kids [got] the most opportunity to all work together.” (Study One Participant 12)
Student – student	“...where the children nurture each other and [are] incredibly inclusive.” (Study One Participant 2)
As a whole class	“I’d really love a classroom where it is that kind of family atmosphere, where you’re working together and it’s really respectful and seems like [as] a group we’ve all achieved and you know accepting differences and kind of care and concern...so where everyone kind of getting together and helping one another and...moving away from marks and who’s done better and things like that and more working towards doing the best we all can.” (Study One Participant 2)
Class - family	“Early childhood is very family...You’ll see family every day. They’re in the classroom and building those relationships is part of your job. You need to otherwise your day is not going to function.” (Study One Participant 8)

In discussing the importance of effective relationships in terms of building a supportive classroom environment the pre-service teachers participating in this study also referred a great deal to respect, care, communication skills, and acceptance of difference. They perceived care as being more than simply caring for their students’ learning, but also caring for the individual: “...that I make their learning relevant and I actually care for them...I want them to know that” (Study One Participant 15). The term respect was also referred to often in the discussion surrounding a supportive learning environment. They saw respect as a two-way street and were advocating that respect would only occur in a classroom where the teacher not only demanded respect from the students but where the teacher in turn respected the students and there was no abuse of power.

[I want to be] approachable, not too close, like I don't want to be their friend, I want to be you know someone who guides them and things. But also have that relationship that they would feel comfortable with me, like they don't feel that I'm superior – you don't have that power imbalance (Study One Participant 14).

I would love for them to be able to respect me and know that if they felt they needed to say something that they could come to me as a teacher. And that I respect them as much...mutual respect is definitely what I want them to get from me (Study One participant 15).

From these quotes it can be noted that the participants viewed communication as being an integral part of respect and care: “how you talk to them is what they're going to give back” (Study One Participant 8).

The other major theme that emerged from the participants' discussion of a supportive learning community was the notion of valuing. The importance of valuing each member of the class community came through in their discussion of respect and care: “everyone has a voice and support[s] each other” (Study One Participant 4). They also perceived the valuing of each student's work to be incredibly important, and that it was not just the ‘smart’ or ‘talented’ students who were recognised and valued:

“Everyone's work is valued and everyone's work is on the walls, not just the best ones. Not making it look pretty. Sticking it up as it is. By fixing it you're not really valuing what they've done (Study One Participant 9).

The valuing of diversity also was important to the participants and was clearly something that had been discussed in a variety of subjects throughout their teaching degree.

“It's not just having a value of difference but actually being inclusive and teaching the kids that having different cultures, different learning styles, different learning abilities, that is going to enrich your life and to me it's not just the acceptance but it's actually the total inclusion of you know having all this. We know that we're not going to get on with everyone all the time in our life and they need to know that as children, but they're another human being and you need to value that person and who they are, their strengths and

weaknesses and their cultural beliefs, or whatever else (Study One Participant 1).

...it's a major life skill that a lot of kids just don't understand. Is to actually have an understanding of others and I think that's something you can teach them in the classroom (Study One Participant 14).

In terms of the specific elements related to a supportive classroom environment as defined by the PP model (academic engagement; student self-regulation; student direction of activities; social support and; explicit criteria) these were not addressed to the same extent as relationships and valuing. The participants addressed academic engagement only in so far as a discussion concerning a democratic caring classroom “where everyone has a voice and support[s] each other” (Study One Participant 4) and in connection with a safe classroom environment. The pre-service teachers identified a safe and supportive environment as being important and defined this as a classroom where “everyone feels comfortable enough to be able to have a go” (Study One Participant 7). The study's participants did not comment at all on student self-regulation, student direction of activities or explicit criteria. The remaining element within the PP model, social support, with its emphasis on teacher demand of high expectations, was addressed by the participants in terms of rules and respect –

If you begin the year with your [teacher's] understandings and how and what your expectations are and let the students know that you respect them and they in turn need to respect you and the rest of the classroom (Study One Participant 11).

but not in terms of academic expectations to which the PP model was referring.

Discussion Regarding a Supportive Classroom Environment

Overall, it would appear that the pre-service teachers in this study have a specific caring, respectful and safe environment in mind when considering a supportive classroom, but this does not specifically and exactly correlate with the PP definition of a supportive classroom environment.

As noted by participant statements in the findings section above, the pre-service teachers in this study were readily able to visualise a supportive classroom environment and they very much saw this in terms of a democratic, caring and respectful classroom that was underpinned by strong relationships amongst the

classroom community. This relates to what the educational literature refers to as a humanistic approach where the teachers are facilitators of children's development and learning. Fundamental to this approach is that teachers must be real to children by portraying themselves as caring, trustworthy, dependable and consistent (Rogers, 1969, 1983). This humanistic approach appears in a wide variety of teacher education textbooks concerned with the history of education, educational psychology, as well as classroom and behaviour management (see for example Larrivee, 2009; Snowman et al., 2009; Tangen et al., 2010), so is no surprise this is being discussed by pre-service teachers. There is an abundance of educational literature and research concerned with positive, caring student-teacher relationships and its relationship to student self-concept, children's adjustment to school, student motivation, student academic engagement and pursuit of social and academic goals (see for example, Birch & Ladd, 1996; Meyer & Turner, 2007; Noddings, 2005a; Osterman, 2000; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004; Wentzel, 1997, 1998, 2002). All of this research determines that care is a crucial component of a supportive classroom environment and an effective teacher, and the pre-service teachers in this study have understood this.

Along with caring relationships the study's participants also perceived the valuing of cultural backgrounds, the valuing of diversity, the valuing of student work, the valuing of every member of the class community, and the valuing of self as important in creating and maintaining a supportive classroom environment. It is this type of valuing that contributes to student wellbeing with a major component of wellbeing referring to a positive emotional state (Van Petegem, Aelterman, Van Keer, & Rosseel, 2006).

Academic engagement and student direction of activities are seen as central to a supportive learning environment in the PP model of quality teaching, but were not discussed by the participants in this study. Student self-regulation is another key aspect of a supportive learning environment, but again this was not mentioned by the study's participants.

Connectedness

The final PP dimension is connectedness, where the aim is to ensure the engagement and connection of students beyond the classroom walls to the wider

school, the community and beyond. Connectedness incorporates knowledge integration; background knowledge, connectedness to the world and a problem-based curriculum to ensure that connections are made to students' prior knowledge as well as to the 'outside' world.

Findings Relating to Connectedness

The participants were again asked two questions concerning connectedness:

5. What would you want to develop with your future students in terms of developing connectedness?
6. How has your teacher education programme prepared you to teach these skills?

Pre-service teachers in this study identified connectedness as connecting to the world beyond the classroom, connecting with families, connecting with community and connecting with diverse perspectives.

Table 4.5
Connectedness Themes (as reported by participants)

Themes	Examples
1. To something bigger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real life • World beyond classroom
2. Making it relevant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting content to real world problems and issues
3. In a more local sense	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To local community • With diversity • To family

Connectedness beyond the classroom was mainly defined by the participants as ensuring their students understood the value of learning specific curriculum content by showing how it related to real world problems and issues:

You can look at any curriculum subject like Maths and what's the point in teaching somebody how to multiply if they don't connect that. And you look at triangles and people say what's the point of triangles or you know, but you can go anywhere around the world and see architecture, or knowing that a triangle is a good structural strengthener, or you know triangles might

actually help you triangulate a location. So making those sorts of connections with kids so that they can actually see that there is a point to learning this stuff (Study One Participant 10).

Connecting with family, particularly in the early years, was identified as being important in terms of improving a student's learning:

We have been taught that a big thing is you need to connect the school environment with the home environment. You need to get parents really involved as much as you can. So it is not just that this is school, this is home, it is two very separate things. In order to encourage that continued learning you need to try to get it to be that there is to be a connection, and a positive connection as well (Study One Participant 17).

Related to this idea of connecting with family was connecting with students' cultural heritages and how this is important in assisting children's self esteem as well as the valuing of different cultures by class members.

When I was at school my Indian heritage – it wasn't brought up as a negative in school, but it was never embraced. And you know what I am not. I lived with my Mum who's English so I never really connected with the Indian side of my heritage, but had we sort of delved into a bit of cultural substance at school I probably would have been wanted to be more connected with that sort of side of things. So you don't know their family background or how connected they are to cultures, so by basically coming in and getting them to bring something to the table you know it lets themselves be proud of their own heritage as well (Study One Participant 8).

And other students learn about that culture and learn to value that culture and understand it (Study One Participant 12).

Whilst the pre-service teachers were aware of the importance of connecting with community, they were not as confident in their ability to encourage these connections as they were with family and culture.

I wish we did more community things. Like they're really pushing community things with primary school, like saying get involved with community, do this with community. We don't know how to. How do you start? Where do you start? (Study One Participant 6)

Connections to students' background and prior knowledge were also identified as being important and this related back to intellectual quality – “you need to build upon it” (Study One Participant 10). It was also noted by the participants that in this way the students could introduce and teach things that they have experienced:

Finding out what they already know about something. You know they might be able to bring a whole area to say a SOSE topic that you could never hope to bring because they've lived it... (Study One Participant 9).

It was in this way that one pre-service teacher also identified the importance of connectedness in developing a productive citizen in a global society:

I really think that to develop a productive citizen in a global society, it's important they have an understanding of the world around them and the wider world as well, and hopefully I can assist them in that (Study One Participant 11).

Discussion Regarding Connectedness

Earlier, in Chapter Two, I wrote about the importance of an holistic education, it is in this PP dimension of connectedness where I see this happening the most. The participants of this study did not use the term holistic in their discussions, but many of the points they did discuss, such as connecting to the world beyond the classroom, connecting with students' families and socio-cultural backgrounds and students' prior knowledge do lend themselves to many of the concepts of an holistic education. Knowledge integration, one of the PP components of connectedness has strong ties to an holistic education, in its referral to explicit attempts by the teacher to connect two or more sets of subject area knowledge, or where no subject boundaries could be readily identified (Hayes et al., 2006). It is perhaps this version of *holistic* that is most commonly associated with the term holistic education; however, the participants in Study One did not refer to connectedness in this sense.

Out of all of the elements within the PP dimension of connectedness, it is *connectedness to the world* with which the participants most associated. In this, the aim is to create “a connection to the larger social contexts within which students live” (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 55). It is no surprise that this is the area of connectedness with which the pre-service teachers feel most comfortable. The idea of connecting to the world beyond the four walls of a classroom has been gaining in popularity since the 1960s where international concerns to foster a wider

understanding of world issues and a commitment to change, especially to the eradication of global poverty and inequality, began (Australian Government, 2008). Globalisation and the need for global education has become an international priority with the United Nations reiterating the need for global education and global partnerships to ensure a better world for all (United Nations, 2010). Thus, the ideal of global education and its importance in raising awareness of students to begin “seeing themselves as global citizens who can contribute to a more peaceful, just and sustainable world” (Australian Government, 2008, p. 2) has gained increasing priority in teacher education, especially in the area of Social Studies curriculum. All pre-service teachers in this study would have been exposed to global education within their SOSE curriculum subjects at university.

The QSRLS noted that in classes where students’ background knowledge was valued and utilised the students had more opportunities to make connections between their linguistic, cultural and everyday experiences with the content and skills they were undertaking in the classroom (Hayes et al., 2006). By using students’ background knowledge, it was also found that students’ motivation increased because it was transparently connected to their everyday lives (Hayes et al., 2006). Motivation and engagement play a large part in students’ interest in and enjoyment of school and has also been found to underpin their achievement (Martin, 2006). Problem based learning, another element of this PP dimension, also has strong connections with motivation (Barell, 2007). Problem based learning is a form of constructivist based learning that is an “inquiry process that resolves questions, curiosities, doubts, and uncertainties about complex phenomena in life” (Barell, 2007, p. 7). In this approach students are provided with real life problems that may often not have a right or wrong answer. Research (see Barell, 2007) claims that a problem based curriculum leads to students’ deeper understanding; self-regulated behaviour; enhanced retention and transferability of information and concepts; increased motivation and deeper engagement. In discussing connectedness it can be seen that the pre-service teachers in this study understood the importance of making connections to the world beyond the classroom to ensure their future students become globally aware citizens as well as more motivated and engaged in their learning.

Recognition of Difference

The next dimension is recognition of difference which involves exposing students to a range of cultures, to different groups of people, and to individuals different from themselves. In all of this it is important that students develop values such as respect, creating a sense of community, understanding the importance of relationships and responsibility in a democratic society.

Findings Relating to Recognition of Difference

Similar to the other two dimensions that were discussed in the focus group sessions with the pre-service teachers, two questions were asked regarding recognition of difference:

7. What would you want to develop with your future students in terms of developing their recognition of difference?
8. How has your teacher education programme prepared you to teach these skills?

The study's participants when discussing recognition of difference in a classroom spoke of inclusivity. Under this broad umbrella of inclusivity they referred to the recognition and valuing of different abilities, needs, cultures and learning styles.

Table 4.6

Recognition of Difference Themes (as reported by participants)

Themes	Examples
1. Inclusivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Different abilities• Different needs• Cultural awareness• Different learning styles

The pre-service teachers spoke about this passionately and saw the valuing and recognition of difference as a key value they would want to impart to their future students:

It's not just having a value of difference but actually being inclusive and teaching the kids that having different cultures, different learning styles, different learning abilities, that is going to enrich your life...We know that

we're not going to get on with everyone all the time in our life and they need to know that as children but they're another human being and you need to value that person and who they are, their strengths and their weaknesses and their cultural beliefs or whatever else. So I think hopefully it needs to be in the teacher to be able to impart that [and] if our values and beliefs aren't that then you can't impart that to the children (Study One Participant 1).

This particular participant also raised an interesting point related to values of the individual teacher and how that will determine what the children learn and this will be discussed further in this chapter under the heading of *values*.

In terms of being able to effectively deal with the many intricacies of an inclusive classroom, the majority of participants had some well defined pedagogical knowledge related to cultural diversity and inclusivity, for example:

It's interesting to have a huge map of the world and get the kids to go home and find out where your parents are from, where your grandparents, as far back as you can and for each generation they get like for their generation they get a red dot, your parents are yellow, grandparents get green and let's see how far we can spread (Study One Participant 10).

They were however, not as confident in terms of learning needs and implementing and coping with a differentiated curriculum, where learning opportunities are differentiated for students with learning difficulties, gifted and talented students, culturally and linguistically diverse students, amongst others:

I think when we all came in like I didn't even know about inclusive education as such, I knew it was being brought in but I was still of the opinion, because I'd grown up like that having separated classrooms, would be more beneficial. And then you come in and learn no, that's in fact all wrong and then you know you're introduced in second or third year well how will you support these children? And you know you come up with them doing something else entirely and it's like no, they have to do the same thing that everyone else is doing and you're just like where do I start? How do I know how to bring it down to their level without excluding them from what we're doing? (Study One Participant 2)

Discussion Regarding Recognition of Difference

The pre-service teachers in this study identified recognition of difference with the ability to create an inclusive classroom, and especially saw this in terms of cultural knowledge and diversity. This is not surprising given that diversity and inclusivity have been leading agendas in education since the latter part of the 20th century, with pre-service teacher programmes being heavily influenced by anthropological and sociological perspectives focused on culture and diversity (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2008), and inclusive education becoming a part of the global education policy catechism (Slee, 2007). The watershed moment for inclusive education is generally seen as being the result of the *Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Education Needs* (Slee, 2007) with 92 world governments and 25 international organisations undersigning the declaration affirming the rights of all students to receive an education, regardless of needs and differences, and for all educational institutions to “include everybody, celebrate differences, support learning, and respond to individual needs” (UNESCO, 1994, p. 3). This concept of education for all was then embraced and expanded to include not only special education students, but students from diverse socio-cultural backgrounds as well as low socio-economic classes. It became recognised that for this to occur teachers and school administrators needed to view “situations from different perspectives and sensitise themselves to the cultural and social contexts that infuse every educational situation” (Keeffe, 2007, p. 17). Thus the theory, teaching practices and pedagogical skills of inclusivity and diversity became more and more strongly embedded in pre-service teacher education programmes. For example, the pre-service teachers in this study, during their four year Bachelor degree would have completed, to some extent, inclusivity and diversity in every semester of their four year degree, with some subjects’ whole focus on this. So it is not surprising to discover that issues of inclusivity and diversity were foremost in the participants’ minds and discussion topics for the recognition of difference dimension.

Educating for thoughtful and active citizenship has been identified as a main objective of education (see for example Dewey, 1916; Lipman, 2003) with one of the Melbourne Declaration’s goals for young Australians being the development of active and informed citizens (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs, 2008). As part of this goal, teachers and schools need to

ensure young people: act with moral and ethical integrity; appreciate Australia's social, cultural, linguistic and religious diversity; understand Australia's system of government, history and culture; understand and acknowledge the value of Indigenous cultures; are committed to values of democracy, equity and justice; participate in Australia's civic life; are able to relate to and communicate across cultures; work for the common good in particular sustaining and improving natural and social environments, and; are responsible global and local citizens (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs, 2008). Whilst some of this certainly relates to an appreciation and understanding of diversity and inclusivity which was discussed in the previous paragraph, much can be achieved through the teaching of active citizenship. Indeed one of the key educational statements for Australia is the *Statements of Learning for Civics and Citizenship* (Curriculum Corporation, 2006) where students are expected to explore the rights and responsibilities of citizens as well as possess the knowledge, skills and values required to participate in a democratic society. Schools are uniquely placed in society to influence the processes of understanding the ethical and moral aspects of citizenship by providing opportunities for students to engage in discussion and reflection about such matters, thereby increasing their understanding (Halstead & Pike, 2006). Despite this importance though, only one participant in Study One mentioned citizenship and that was related more to global education than to the notion of citizenship itself.

Values

While not being one of the PP dimensions of quality teaching, as discussed in Chapter Two, values education and quality teaching are two sides of the learning coin (Lovat, 2007b), and as such have become a part of my research on quality teaching in pre-service teacher education. In both Newman's (1996) and Darling-Hammond's (1996, 2000, 2005; 2002) work (see Chapter Two) quality teaching is only partly concerned with a teacher's technical competence surrounding knowledge and pedagogical skills, it is also heavily concerned with a teacher's capacity to form positive relationships and to provide positive modelling. Thus quality teaching was never meant to be seen purely in an instrumentalist form - one cannot simply reduce quality teaching to a mere craft (Lovat, 2007b), and by including values as a component of quality teaching dimensions, it allows for this and serves as a

“constant reminder that there is in fact no magic in a formula” (Lovat, 2007b, p. 4). Values education has the potential to go to the very heart of quality teaching to re-focus attention

on the fundamental item of all effective teaching, namely the teacher her or himself, including naturally the quality of the teacher’s knowledge, content and pedagogy, but above and beyond all of these, on the teacher’s capacity to form relationships of care and trust, and so establish a values-filled environment (Lovat, 2007b, p. 12).

Findings Relating to Values

The last two questions of the focus group sessions focused on values and were:

9. When you become a teacher what values/attitudes/beliefs would you want to instil in your students?
10. How has your teacher education programme prepared you in terms of reflecting on your own values/attitudes/beliefs and the effect these have on your teaching?

During the discussion surrounding these two questions in the focus groups, the pre-service teachers spoke quite heavily about teacher dispositions and the building of relationships as being important.

Table 4.7

Values Themes (as reported by participants)

Themes	Examples
1. Teacher dispositions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attitude • Impact on students • Self-knowledge
2. Teachers as role models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • who we are impacts on students
3. Building positive relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connect with students – share personal information • Respect • Honesty • Care

The study’s participants noted that teacher dispositions were important in the classroom with who a person is coming out in the teaching: “who you are...really

comes out in how you teach” (Study One Participant 7). They perceived that being happy and content in your own life and having a positive attitude was really important in building a positive classroom environment and having students who were also happy:

the difference between the two was that the good one [teacher] was very happy in her life and wanted to be teaching and wanted to be helping kids...Whereas the bad teacher, she was very unhappy in her own life and didn't actually want to be teaching (Study One Participant 7).

This same participant continued on to say that the children in the class could perceive these teachers' feelings and emotions and were very aware and sensitive of the impact of these on themselves, even if the teachers themselves were unaware of this. Another participant added to this commenting that personal happiness and a positive disposition had an impact on children and their motivation and achievement:

Don't just do it [teaching] because this is my job, have that personal desire to want to do it. Because if you come across as being happy to do that and putting all your enthusiasm into it they'll [the students] want to listen to what you're saying (Study One Participant 20).

The participants spoke of the importance of values and the disposition of self-knowledge as being necessary for quality teaching, arguing that there needs to be some common values as teachers are role models for their students.

I think though if you get any people coming through who are highly into drugs and violence you will have problems with the teachers. So I think there has to be some underlying values that we all have, that kind of have got us to this point because you have got to kind of be able to conform with how schools operate...There has got to be some values that we have got to promote (Study One Participant 18).

Not everyone agreed with this though, with some participants stating that it is not a teacher's job to impart values: “I don't think you should have to push them onto other people...let them explore their own values” (Study One Participant 19). The study's participants did however, acknowledge that teachers are role models and in this way they perceived teacher values and dispositions as being significant. One participant when discussing the need for acceptance of difference stated: “it needs to be in the teacher to be able to impart that if our values and beliefs aren't that then

you can't impart that to the children" (Study One Participant 1). Another commented: "I think your personal values and who you are and what you want to be doing really comes out in how you teach" (Study One Participant 7).

Closely tied to this was the notion of self-knowledge:

Actually know where we are coming from. Like know where I'm coming from as an individual and to set that up. Okay so if that's me and I know who I am as a teacher or as a person and therefore as a teacher, how this will affect me in the classroom (Study One Participant 15).

While the pre-service teachers agreed that self-knowledge and reflection were important components in their development as quality teachers, they did feel that they were often not given this opportunity or the proper skills to become better reflective practitioners at university, with one participant commenting: "We've been taught everything else but not to look at ourselves" (Study One Participant 4), and another: "We get told how important it is to be like a reflective practitioner...but we don't get any strategies." Another participant supported this by arguing that curriculum content had been a big focus for her: "It was content for me really and even in some of the education subjects it was looking from the outside in to something else rather than looking from the inside out" (Study One Participant 7).

Following on from discussing what university did or didn't teach them in terms of self-knowledge and reflection, the discussion gravitated towards the idea that for many of the participants their own values were not necessarily learnt but rather transpired through their families and cultural backgrounds: "It's not something I've really been taught here at uni but it's definitely instilled in me from my background and obviously what I've grown up with" (Study One Participant 15), and "It's how we learn from our parents. I mean how our parents are with us tends to influence how we become. You know we can either go down the same path or go fairly opposite as well" (Study One Participant 10). Having said this though, many of the participants, including Participant 15, felt that values can be taught: "I think it's a major life skill that a lot of kids just don't understand, is to actually have an understanding of others and I think that's something you can teach them in the classroom" (Study One Participant 15). One pre-service teacher acknowledged that the choices a teacher makes in terms of curriculum and how he/she teaches is expressing a value:

I guess just talking about what you put in a curriculum, you know as much as the KLAs that we teach, it's also teaching the kids that they have to be members of society and part of a community, and that there is a certain way to talk to people and I guess it's going to be my values and beliefs that will influence how these kids learn off me (Study One Participant 13).

The last area that was spoken about in terms of values was the building of positive relationships between teacher and students. The pre-service teachers discussed the need for connecting with students (“to connect with the kids makes a huge difference” Study One Participant 14) and often that will involve not just teacher knowledge of students but also sharing information about the teacher with the students so there is reciprocity in the relationship: “you can't expect to know everything about their lives and you don't tell them anything about yours” (Study One Participant 9). A few of the participants who were commenting on this noted that this was the opposite to what they were taught at university, but despite this they firmly believed that for the relationship to be successful there had to be divulging by all parties:

We're sort of encouraged not to over say things about ourselves but you know what if I play golf and you know and I had a good round, I'll tell them about it and you know what? These kids will be like, on Monday morning, ‘Oh Sir did you have a good round on Saturday?’ and that's the sort of connection – I think the connections have to be two-way (Study One Participant 10).

Despite this belief that they would share with their students to build a stronger relationship, the participants also spoke of the wish to be a good teacher and not a best friend:

And by the end of the year I'd like them to say ‘Yeah we want you again Miss’. Not just for the fact that I'm a nice teacher and you know being friendly, I don't want to be their best friend. I want to be a good teacher (Study One Participant 15).

The participants also spoke of respect and honesty as important for relationship building:

Mutual respect is definitely what I want them to get from me...Just that I make their learning relevant and I actually care for them and care for their

learning. I want them to know that. Know that I've put the work in but I also want them to put the work in, like they have to put in as much as I do and come to school prepared learn (Study One Participant 15).

I also think honesty as well. So if you're having a bad day it's okay to let them [the students] know 'hey I'm having a bad day today and everyone has them and it's okay to have them'....and it's okay to turn around and say 'look I have those days too and I've been there and I know how it feels, just take a break'. They realise you're a human being (Study One Participant 15).

Discussion Regarding Values

As stated earlier, quality teaching was never meant to be defined in purely instrumentalist terms, and the notion of intellectual depth, which is central to quality teaching, was defined in the broadest possible sense to “connote competencies of interpretation, communication, negotiation and reflection, with a focus on self-management” (Lovat, 2007b, p. 3). As can be demonstrated from the participant findings described in the previous section above, the pre-service teachers acknowledge that these competencies are important, but don't feel as prepared as they were perhaps in other dimensions of quality teaching, with a perception that reflection and self-knowledge opportunities at university were not as great as in other areas. Certainly a teacher's ability to create a classroom environment of respect and trust may often come down, in some way, to the teacher's confidence level, and beginning teachers may struggle with this in the beginning, but Carr (2007) argues that this positive classroom climate also largely depends on fundamental capacities for intrapersonal and interpersonal interaction and communication, and increased confidence and further experience may not always assist in this. Dewey (1964) too spoke of the need for teachers to be self-reflective and to have a capacity for moral judiciousness. Whilst reflection has become much more of a key component of pre-service teacher education programmes since the late 1980s (Murray, Nuttall, & Mitchell, 2008), and now with professional standards for teachers (see for example Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; Queensland College of Teachers, 2006) also incorporating reflective practice as a key, there is still a need to concentrate more explicitly on the skills required to engage in reflective practice (Kalantzis & Harvey, 2004; Murray et al., 2008) and Study One's participants' responses, as noted above, verify this.

As part of the quality teacher debate in recent years, professional standards for teachers have been developed and implemented both here in Australia and overseas in order “to attract, develop, recognise and retain quality teachers” (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011, p. 1). This advent of the standards movement, has in turn, seen the development of the teacher disposition debate (Burant, Chubbuck, & Whipp, 2007; Carroll, 2005). David Carroll was part of the reform effort in the Michigan State University teacher education programme and he posited that there are two critical themes underlying the challenge for teacher education in terms of addressing candidates’ dispositions as they relate to teaching: (1) professional dispositions need to be modelled by the teacher education programme, and: (2) there needs to be scaffolded learning opportunities which support the learning of professional dispositions (Carroll, 2005). Modelling is a crucial aspect in moral development:

Children do not enter the world compassionate, caring, fair, loving, and tolerant. Nor do these qualities emerge in due course like hair on the body or hormones in the endocrine system. Rather moral qualities are learned – acquired in the course of lived experience. If there are no models for them, no obvious or even subtle pressure to adopt moral qualities, no hints, no homilies, no maxims, and no opportunity to imitate moral action, the moral virtues may be missed, perhaps never to be acquired (Fenstermacher, 1990, p. 132).

Thus, pre-service teachers need to have this modelled to them as well as being taught how to model this to their future students. In terms of values education, there are several different ways teachers can address this: they can be didactic, but this is often likened to indoctrination; they can teach about morality through specific subjects or curriculum content; or they act morally, holding themselves up as models. Disregarding the first didactic approach, the second way is addressed in pre-service teacher education courses in particular subjects such as SOSE and multicultural/sociological course content. The third way though is often taken for granted and not specifically addressed in teacher education (Fenstermacher, 1990). The *Manner in Teaching Project* (MTP) was a three year study in the US and was led by Gary Fenstermacher and Virginia Richardson, both leaders in the field of moral education. This study demonstrated that the moral potency of teaching resides

not just in what the teacher models but in their deliberate efforts to be a force for good (David T Hansen, 2001), in other words it goes beyond mere role-modelling.

As many authors on moral education suggest, teaching is a profoundly moral activity and not just everyone and anyone can be a teacher and nor is teaching for everyone (Sirotnik, 1990). This has been identified by the pre-service teachers in this study, particularly when discussing positive attitudes and dispositions and how these are reflected, either knowingly or unknowingly, on one's students. Thus pre-service teacher education needs to explicitly build moral character in future educators by helping them to acquire

a sense of personal and collegial accountability, a desire for creating climates of caring and trust, a habit of reflective practice, and a sense of community. The virtues of honesty, responsibility, and respect,...must be ingrained in the beginning teachers (Sirotnik, 1990).

An appreciation of the moral nature of teaching needs to be acknowledged and addressed within teacher education.

Summary

This chapter presented the findings of pre-service teachers who were not engaged in a values explicit subject in terms of quality teaching and addressed the first research question. The chapter was organised under the headings of the quality teaching model: intellectual quality, supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference, connectedness, and values. Under each of these headings, a brief summary of the dimension was included, followed by the findings and then the discussion of these.

As is typical of qualitative research, samples of quotations from participants are included, but this allowed me to represent the reality of the persons and situations studied (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). The findings of Study One have demonstrated that pre-service teachers, with no explicit values-based pedagogy, have some understanding of the quality teaching model in terms of their own teaching practice and feel prepared to some extent to demonstrate these skills. This does not extend; however, to all of the elements within all of the dimensions of the model, with some elements not mentioned, and others noted but no confidence in these was expressed by the participants. The participants particularly felt that explicit self-reflection and

knowledge on values and dispositions were lacking in their pre-service teacher education programme. Whilst the findings section heavily relied on participant quotes, the discussion attempted to reveal the reasons that pre-service teachers felt prepared or unprepared in terms of the elements of quality teaching.

Study One's participants defined intellectual quality in terms of critical and creative thinking, teaching strategies and making connections. They identified critical and creative thinking in terms of higher order thinking, deep understanding and processing as well as metacognition. The pre-service teachers were readily able to identify particular teaching strategies, such as Bloom's taxonomy, and Gardener's multiple intelligences, which they had been taught at university and which they knew would assist with building intellectual quality. Whilst listing these and knowing how the pedagogical tools worked, they did not necessarily display a real understanding by demonstrating how these specifically and practically related to intellectual quality. Some of this uncertainty could be linked to their lack of experience in the classroom as well as lack of confidence, which would hopefully increase in the first few years of teaching.

The pre-service teachers participating in this study strongly identified a supportive classroom environment as one where quality relationships and connections were paramount and were obviously valued. These relationships and connections extended well beyond teacher-student and student-student. In discussing the importance of effective relationships in terms of building a supportive classroom environment the participants referred to respect, care, communication skills, and acceptance of difference as being crucial. The discussion focused on the notion of an humanistic approach and the impact of this on pre-service teachers, as well as the inability for the pre-service teachers to consider the effects of academic engagement and student self-regulation on a supportive classroom environment.

Recognition of difference was linked to inclusivity and the valuing of diversity by the study's participants. They were confident in their knowledge, understanding and skills in terms of cultural diversity and this is perhaps due to the heavy focus on global education and inclusivity within educational research literature and reform since the latter part of the 20th century. They were however not as confident in terms of different learning abilities and differentiated learning. A key element of recognition of difference is that of preparing students for active citizenship, however

the pre-service teachers in this study did not address this at all, which is interesting considering it is a key goal of Australian education.

Pre-service teachers in this study identified connectedness as connecting to the world beyond the classroom, connecting with families, connecting with community and connecting with diverse perspectives. They did not however identify connections within the curriculum to lifelong learning and to connections between various parts of the curriculum. In this way the participants did not relate to the concept of an holistic education.

The last dimension discussed in this chapter was that of values, which also encompassed dispositions. The two most discussed topics by the participants were those of teacher dispositions and the importance of building strong positive relationships. When it came to the actual teaching of values and the notion of moral education the participants were divided in their feelings with some saying values should be taught and others arguing that it is not a teacher's role to do this. This is no surprise given that the same debate has been occurring, and still is, in educational literature. The participants' lack of preparation and readiness in terms of teaching and modelling values to their students is something that has been widely discussed in the literature concerning moral education and the participants' perceptions in this study were linked to that.

The next chapter which examines Study Two will be arranged in the same format as this chapter and the findings of its participants – pre-service teachers' with a values explicit component in their teacher education programme - will be linked back to the findings of this chapter.

Chapter 5: **Study Two**

Overview

The purpose of Study Three was to explore with a sample of third year Bachelor of Education pre-service teachers their understandings of quality teaching and how they perceived their teacher education programme prepared them to be a quality teacher. The specific focus of this study was a core field experience subject (FE3) where the students were exposed to a values-based pedagogy. In contrast to the participants in Study One, participants in Study Two undertook a values explicit subject within their pre-service teacher education programme.

This chapter presents the key findings obtained from focus groups conducted with 22 pre-service teachers who participated in one or two sessions in Semester Two, 2010. The sessions occurred at two points in time – before the subject began (Time One) and after the subject had finished (Time Two). Whilst the subject had finished in terms of the lectures and material presented, the pre-service teachers had not been on their field experience component of this subject. Locating these focus group sessions at two different points in time allowed for: (1) a direct comparison between two different cohorts of pre-service teachers (Study One and Study Two - Time 1) who had not undertaken an explicit values education component; (2) identification of any impact that a values explicit subject would have on pre-service teachers' understanding of quality teaching and their developing skills (Study One and Study Two – Time 1 and Study Two - Time 2).

Study Two utilises focus group methodology in order to examine the two research questions. The principal research questions addressed in Study Two are:

1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?
2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?

Table 5.1
Overview of Research Programme Highlighting Study Two

Study	Time	Research Question	Participants
One	Semester Two, 2009	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	21 (19 female + 2 male) Fourth Year Bachelor of Education students
Two	<p>Semester Two, 2010</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> – prior to commencement of subject FE3 (Week 1)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – post course content and delivery of subject FE3 (Week 10-11)</p>	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	<p>Third Year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme students enrolled in subject FE3.</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> – 11 (10 female + 1 male)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – 18 (14 female + 4 male)</p> <p>22 (18 female + 4 male) in total as 7 participants were the same in Time 1 and Time 2.</p>
Three	<p>Semester Two, 2010</p> <p><i>Time 1</i> - prior to commencement of subject FE3 (Week 1)</p> <p><i>Time 2</i> – post course content and delivery of subject FE3 (Week 10-11)</p> <p><i>Time 3</i> – post field experience (Week 16)</p>	<p>1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?</p> <p>2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?</p>	5 female Third Year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme students enrolled in subject FE3.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were third year Bachelor of Education students from an Australian (Queensland) university with a large pre-service teacher education programme. A total of 22 (18 female and 4 male) pre-service teachers participated. The participants of this study were in Semester Two of their third year and were engaging in a compulsory core field experience unit (FE3) at the time of this study. This particular cohort of pre-service teachers was chosen because of their field experience unit and the changes that had occurred in this unit since its previous iteration.

Field study units are central to pre-service teacher preparation for the profession, and are designed in a graduated sequence. FE3 is conducted in Semester Two, Year 3 and builds on the pre-service teachers' developing skills in being a reflective practitioner; in creating effective learning environments; in developing learning experiences for language, literacy and numeracy; in teaching and learning, in understandings of diversity, and; in working collaboratively in professional teams (unit outline). A central aspect to this core unit is the development of the pre-service teachers' pedagogical and curriculum skills that can be achieved through an understanding of the role of philosophy as a framework.

In 2006, the new professional standards for Queensland teachers was launched by the Queensland College of Teachers (QCoT) (see Appendix A). The university in the current study was quick to respond to these standards and the Australian Government's national goals for education by modifying its pre-service teacher education curriculum. One of the new and different approaches adopted by the university was to include a philosophy component into a core field studies unit in the Bachelor of Education – Primary programme. Through this approach, the university was able to meet requirements of QCoT to align with the new professional standards as well as to receive accreditation, and also provide knowledge and pedagogical skills for teaching from a values-based perspective, which was one of the Australian Government's national goals for education (see for example Council for the Australian Federation, 2007; Department of Education Science and Training, 2005; Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs, 2008). *Philosophy in the Classroom*, which was the values-based pedagogical approach

adopted by this field studies unit, is designed to promote critical thinking and reasoning skills and provides a context for developing students' understanding of a broad range of personal, social and moral issues (Fisher, 1998).

FE3 was identified as being crucial to the current research programme in that it provided an opportunity to directly compare pre-service teachers' beliefs about and skills in quality teaching. By situating the focus group sessions at two separate points in time allowed for ease of this comparison and allowed for conclusions to be drawn as to whether or not a values explicit component made a difference to pre-service teachers' beliefs about and skills in quality teaching. The subject FE3 was a 10 week unit where the pre-service teachers attended a two hour lecture each week. As stated earlier the focus for this unit was professional standards; ethics, values and diversity; and literacy. Each of these was examined through the use of philosophy and particularly the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy. The subject coordinator and lecturer of FE3 is a trained primary school teacher connected with philosophy and the philosophy in schools approach. A principal with an extensive background in teaching philosophy to school children in a school that was transformed by philosophy and who was one of the very early advocates of philosophy for children in Queensland and Australia also assisted with the teaching and delivery of the lectures to the pre-service teachers.

Procedure

Ethical approval was gained from the university to conduct research with pre-service teachers enrolled at the university. I then sought and gained the permission of the subject coordinator to conduct my research with this cohort. I first made contact with the pre-service teachers regarding my research programme prior to the beginning of the subject via the unit's online site. I had some responses to this request, but not enough, so then I attended the first lecture of the semester for this subject and approached the pre-service teachers as they entered the lecture hall to encourage more participants to join the study. Once names and email addresses for all potential participants were received, all participants were provided with an information sheet (see Appendix D) outlining the study and any questions and/or concerns were addressed. This information sheet detailed the purpose and nature of the study, the conditions of the focus groups, and how the information would be used

and stored. It also clearly stated that participation in the study was voluntary and would have no impact on the pre-service teachers' relationship with the university.

Focus group sessions were conducted in a meeting room at the university at a time that was nominated by the participants. These sessions took approximately one hour. Before the commencement of each focus group session I ensured that all participants were clear about the study and I addressed any concerns regarding confidentiality. I also informed participants that the session would be audio-taped to ensure accurate information was documented. The participants were then asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix E) stating that they understood the nature and conditions of the study.

Overall a total of eight focus group sessions were held with 22 Study Two participants. The numbers participating in each session ranged from one to eleven. The groups with more participants proved to be the most fruitful as there were more ideas generated and the discussion was deeper than the individual interviews. The individual interviews ($n = 2$) were not planned, but occurred as a result of non-attendance by some participants who had promised to attend, and so were unavoidable. Whilst these individual interviews might not have been as rich as the group interviews they still provided valuable data.

The interviews were undertaken at two points in time for Study Two, as explained earlier. Time 1 interviews occurred in July 2010, either the week before the semester's lectures began for five participants (Focus Group One) or the first week of classes (before any actual philosophical and values based content and pedagogy was taught) for the remaining six participants (Focus Groups Two, Three, Four and Five). So, for Time 1 which was prior to the values explicit subject there were a total of 11 participants. The questions for these focus group sessions are attached in Appendix H. Time 2, occurred at the end of the teaching semester but prior to the pre-service teachers attending their field experience block of four weeks in participating schools. A total of 18 pre-service teachers participated in Study Two – Time 2 over three focus group sessions in September of 2010. Seven out of the eleven participants in Study Two – Time 1 also participated in the Time 2 focus group sessions, along with eleven participants who had not previously been interviewed. The questions used to guide the focus groups sessions for Time 2 are included in Appendix I.

Table 5.2

Participants in Study Two

Time 1	Time 2
<i>Focus Group 1A</i>	<i>Focus Group 1B</i>
Participant 1 (female)	Participant 4 (female)
Participant 2 (female)	Participant 1 (female)
Participant 3 (female)	Participant 9 (female)
Participant 4 (female)	Participant 8 (female)
Participant 5 (female)	Participant 7 (female)
 <i>Focus Group 2A</i>	 <i>Focus Group 2B</i>
Participant 6 (male)	Participant 12 (female)
Participant 7 (female)	Participant 13 (female)
Participant 8 (female)	Participant 14 (male)
	Participant 15 (female)
	Participant 16 (female)
	Participant 17 (male)
	Participant 18 (female)
	Participant 19 (female)
	Participant 20 (male)
	Participant 21 (female)
	Participant 22 (female)
 <i>Focus Group 3A</i>	 <i>Focus Group 3B</i>
Participant 9 (female)	Participant 2 (female)
	Participant 6 (male)
 <i>Focus Group 4A</i>	
Participant 10 (female)	
 <i>Focus Group 5A</i>	
Participant 11 (female)	

*Shaded areas indicate participants who participated in both Time 1 and Time 2

Analysis of Data

The same procedure for the analysis of the interview data as used in Study One, which was following Marshall and Rossman's (2006) approach of organising the data; immersion in the data; generating categories and themes; coding the data;

offering interpretations; searching for alternative understandings, and; writing up of the findings, was also adopted in this study.

As in Study One, I transcribed the tapes verbatim, which allowed me a valuable opportunity to become fully immersed in the dialogue of the participants (Patton, 2002). Once again I used the same quality teaching model as described in Figure 2.1.

Results and Discussion

The findings of Study Two will be divided into two sections – Time 1 and Time 2. In discussing the results of Time 1 a comparison will be made with the results of Study One as both of these studies reported findings on pre-service teachers' beliefs about and skills in quality teaching without any values explicit content or pedagogy. Time 2 will report on the findings of quality teaching beliefs and skills with pre-service teachers after a values explicit pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom had been utilised. This will then lead into a discussion of these findings directly compared with Study One and Study Two – Time 1 findings so as to provide some conclusion as to whether or not a values-explicit component influences pre-service teacher beliefs about and skills in quality teaching.

Time 1

Study Two – Time 1 occurred early in the semester prior to any explicit values-based pedagogy being taught and demonstrated. As such it was expected that the results would be similar to Study One.

The questions used to guide the focus group sessions for Study Two Time One can be viewed in Appendix H. They were similar to Study One focusing on the dimensions of quality teaching. Five focus group sessions were held in Study Two Time 1 with a total of 11 participants. The first session comprised five participants; the second group, three participants; and the remaining three sessions each comprised one participant (refer to Table 5.1).

Intellectual Quality

Intellectual quality consists of higher-order thinking; deep knowledge and deep understanding; knowledge as problematic; substantive conversation and metalanguage.

Findings relating to intellectual quality. The first two questions discussed in the focus groups were concerned with intellectual quality:

1. What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to intellectual quality?
2. How prepared do you feel in your ability to teach these skills and to develop them with your future students?

Similar themes emerged from the Study Two – Time 1 focus groups as in Study One – teaching strategies, critical and creative thinking and, connections.

Table 5.3

Intellectual Quality Thematic Comparison as reported by participants

Intellectual Quality	Study One	Study Two Time 1
1. Teaching strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building on prior knowledge • Questioning – open-ended • Bloom’s taxonomy • Gardner’s intelligences • De Bono’s hats 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building on prior knowledge • Questioning – scaffolded + no right or wrong answer • Bloom’s taxonomy • De Bono’s hats • Inquiry learning • Discovery learning
2. Critical and Creative thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deep understanding • Metacognition • Building block process • Constructing their own knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deep understanding • Scaffolding • Constructing their own knowledge
3. Connecting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different perspectives • Real life • Outside classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different perspectives • Real life – authentic learning • Outside classroom

**Shaded areas indicate differences between the two Studies.*

The participants in Study Two Time 1 spoke of building on students’ prior knowledge, using open-ended questioning and other strategies such as De Bono’s hats (see Appendix K) and Bloom’s Taxonomy (see Appendix C) as part of the teaching strategies they would use to develop intellectual quality. These are the same elements as raised and discussed by the participants of Study One.

The one difference in the responses by the participants of Study Two Time 1 was inquiry and discovery learning, which was not mentioned by Study One participants. They discussed discovery learning and tying that in with authentic

learning. One example of discovery learning that was given was related to a science lesson:

Well I would say with Science would be a lot of modelling and experimentation and stuff like you would say ‘Alright we’re going to see um why you know oil and water what happens with them etc’. So you give them the materials and then they would describe what’s happening instead of saying well oil and water don’t mix and here’s why. You wouldn’t just tell them the answer first you would give them an experiment that would allow them to then discover it (Study Two Participant 6).

The participants defined inquiry learning and discovery learning in the same way and they saw it as

that the kids I guess, they learn how to find their own knowledge. I guess you kind of give them the skills to inquire and just be generally concerned about things rather than being ‘Oh, I’m a student sitting there waiting for you to tell me what to do and what to learn’ (Study Two Participant 10).

Critical thinking, it was noted, related to challenging the students’ ideas and that the students themselves do the work to find the answers.

I suppose I would like the students to be able to think for themselves...I wouldn’t want to dictate to them or say if you gave them an assignment on something it’s not something that’s strictly covered in class content. It’s in content that they have gone and found themselves (Study Two Participant 6).

Discussion regarding intellectual quality. The participants in Study Two Time 1 were very clear about the importance of discovery learning, inquiry learning and connecting learning to the students’ lives and the world outside the classroom. The PP model of intellectual quality discusses the importance of allowing “students to solve problems and discover new (for them) meanings and understandings” (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 42). The pre-service teachers interviewed for this study understood this and expressed this through their discussion of discovery and inquiry learning. Discovery learning is situated within a constructivist framework where the belief is that meaningful learning occurs when people actively try to make sense of the world. The actual concept of discovery learning was postulated in the 1960s by Jerome Bruner. His argument was that too much of school learning took place in the form of didactic teaching with a heavy reliance on step by step verbal or numerical

statements that were not related to life outside the classroom. Bruner's solution for this was the idea that schooling needs to provide children with the opportunity to develop competence at discovering things for themselves and a confidence in their ability to operate independently. It is when this is allowed and encouraged that children will learn to recognise connections within what they have learned, which Bruner states is "the kind of internal discovery that is probably of highest value" (Bruner, 1966, p. 96). So these pre-service teachers understood the idea that knowledge is problematic and children need to explore and discover for themselves and in so doing connections with prior knowledge, themselves, and the real world will be made, which in turn will strengthen their intellectual quality. In this approach students are provided with authentic (real-life) problems which they have to investigate and this is often done in a collaborative manner. Learning continually occurs for the students as the problem unfolds and the students explore new approaches as they reach a resolution (Tangen, 2010).

As can be seen through their discussion of both discovery and inquiry learning and the relationship of these to connectedness, the pre-service teachers defined and understood intellectual quality in terms of the PP elements of higher-order thinking, deep knowledge and understanding and knowledge as problematic. In this way, participants in Study Two Time 1 saw intellectual quality in much the same way as Study One's participants, concentrating on the first four elements of the PP dimension of intellectual quality but not seeing the relationship to and importance of substantive conversation and metalanguage.

Supportive Classroom Environment

A supportive classroom environment includes such things as giving students clear direction in their work; providing social support for all students; ensuring students are academically engaged; providing explicit quality performance criteria, and; developing self-regulated learners.

Findings relating to a supportive classroom environment. Two themes emerged from the participants' discussion of a supportive learning environment: the importance of relationships and valuing.

Table 5.4

A Supportive Classroom Environment Thematic Comparison as reported by participants

Supportive Classroom Environment	Study One	Study Two Time 1
Relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher-student • Teacher-teacher • Student-student • Whole class • Class – family • Respect • Care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher-student • Student-student • Whole class • Class-family • Respect • Care • Teacher as role model
Valuing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student work • Diversity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diversity • Rules and behaviour management

**Shaded areas indicate the differences between the two Studies*

In terms of relationships the participants noted that relationships were not just simply teacher–student but also included student-student, class-family and whole class. Whilst all relationships were seen as important, participants focused on teacher-student relationships.

One huge thing that I want to develop is that relationship thing. I want to change the whole dynamics of what’s seen as teaching I guess. For me I don’t want to be the teacher that just stands there ‘here are the worksheets, we’ve got to do this because it’s my job’. I want it to be an experience very time I come there. So what I would do in my teaching wouldn’t be your standard just sitting at your desk all day. It would be let’s get out of the classroom, let’s do maths outside today, let’s sit in a circle and share ideas, let’s...You know trying different things all the time to build up you know a really good relationship with the students to make them feel like it was a nice place to come...” (Study Two Participant 1).

This participant saw relationships linking to teaching strategies as well as how she saw herself as a teacher and her position and role within the classroom. Participants also mentioned the importance of knowing your students: “...as a teacher you need to be aware of the individual students and their family backgrounds or their social sort of backgrounds” (Study Two Participant 2), and “Well I think um being supportive to the students isn’t just about likes or giving them little chores and making sure their groups are in production, it’s about getting to know them” (Study Two Participant 6).

Within this theme of relationships the pre-service teachers discussed the importance of care and respect and the importance of the teacher as a role model. Respect was mentioned in terms of respecting others in terms of strong relationship building, but it was also discussed in terms of differences and valuing every individual regardless of culture, gender, or talents:

I think sort of respect for everyone's differences, whether it be cultures or genders of anything sort of um like in case of sporting um instances where you know where they'll have the two students at the front of the class being the captains and the best sporting people will be picked first and then yeah but the ones that are struggling won't be in. So I don't think that really creates a great environment for kids to sort of feel accepted and that sort of thing (Study Two Participant 11).

The participants perceived the teacher as being an important role model in relationship building and modelling how people should treat each other and behave properly.

I think as the teacher um you definitely have a huge role in being an example of these things, not just expecting that the kids do them but you as the teacher do the same thing in relation to the students (Study Two Participant 3).

The issue of a safe environment was also raised in connection to a supportive classroom environment, and how important this was in terms of good relationships between all class members:

If there is an issue in the classroom having a safe environment to actually discuss the problem. Or you know if there's a child with a disability, what is this disability, what does it mean for them and have them fully understand that rather than have them going around and saying this person is whatever and picking on them when they don't fully understand the concept (Study Two Participant 9).

They also tied this notion of a safe environment into intellectual quality in that it was important that children could feel safe to share their thoughts and answers even if they were unsure:

I think you want them [the students] to feel that they can say, they can have a thought in their head and put it out there without fear of being laughed at or

something. They feel brave enough to think well this might be worth listening to (Study Two Participant 4).

Rules and behaviour management were mentioned by Study Two Time 1's participants as being important in creating and maintaining a supportive learning environment.

I think that for a supportive classroom environment I think one of the most important things is to start with a class and go into there and automatically just talk with the kids about developing the rules for the classroom and have them take part in that, not just coming in and saying right this is a rule um and this will be your punishment if you don't do it. But have them discuss..." (Study Two Participant 9).

Another participant added if rules and understanding of relationships are established earlier it makes the teacher's job in the classroom easier in the long run.

Discussion regarding a supportive classroom environment. Once again, the discussion on a supportive classroom environment was virtually the same for Study One and Study Two Time 1, with the same two themes of relationships and valuing emerging in both. Within these themes though, two new ideas emerged from the discussion between Study Two Time 1's participants – teacher as role model and the importance of rules and behaviour management.

In the same way as participants in Study One, the participants in this study also visualised a supportive classroom as one that was underpinned by strong relationships between all members of the class community. In the same way, Study Two Time 1's participants spoke of adopting a humanistic approach and the vital parts that respect and care in developing relationships within the classroom community play in determining the environment as a supportive one. What stood out regarding the discussion on a supportive learning environment between participants in Study Two Time 1 was the concept of teacher as a role model. Whilst this was implied by Study One's participants and was raised in connection to teacher values and dispositions it was not explicitly discussed in terms of creating and maintaining a supportive learning environment.

Studies (see for example Babad et al., 1991) have demonstrated that students are sensitive to the differential behaviour of their teacher in both verbal and nonverbal ways and thus the way that a teacher presents him/herself in the classroom

is of great significance. Research by Walls, Nardi, von Minden and Hoffman (2002) demonstrated that in discussing characteristics of effective and ineffective teachers five clear themes emerged: (1) emotional environment; (2) teacher skill; (3) teacher motivation; (4) student participation, and (5) rules and grades. In terms of effective teachers, they were described as warm, friendly and caring in the emotional environment; knew how to create an effective learning environment in terms of being prepared and clear; were enthusiastic and caring, thus motivating their students; they relied on activities that involved authentic student learning with interactive questioning and discussion; they had little or no trouble with classroom management, and they cared about their students' accomplishments and set the tone for fair rules and grading (Walls et al., 2002). Whilst the participants in the current study did not necessarily use all these words and descriptors when they were discussing teachers as role models, these were some of the things they were referring to. It also links nicely to the participants' discussion of rules and behaviour management and how they saw this as important in an effective classroom environment.

When discussing rules and behaviour management the participants, as noted above in the findings, mentioned collaboration with the students. The term behaviour, or classroom, management can mean different things, some educationalists see the term as being synonymous with discipline, whilst others see it more as instilling self-discipline and a set of values that are the foundations for a democratic society (Larrivee, 2009). Either way it can be seen as a balancing act for the teacher with three levels of discipline, preventative, supportive and corrective (Charles, 2008). One of the popular models of classroom management in many classrooms is based on a democratic learning community and this form of behaviour management is certainly discussed in pre-service teacher education. When Study Two Participant 9 discussed the creating of rules that took place with shared input and collaboration between teacher and students this model was probably in mind. Key to the foundation of a caring democratic community is the way the teacher interacts with students and through this, modelling filters through to student-student interactions (Larrivee, 2009). Again, this demonstrates the tight connection between classroom management and teacher modelling. In a caring democratic community a spirit of community is required and a large part of this requires good quality relationships between all members of the class community, which the participants in

this study mentioned when relationships was generally the first topic discussed as soon as a supportive learning environment was mentioned. As part of this relationship building in promoting a spirit of community Larrivee (2009) posits four fundamental attributes for teachers to role model and promote among members of the community: respect, authenticity, thoughtfulness, and emotional integrity. Respect is an attribute mentioned by this study's participants as well as participants in Study One. Another attribute mentioned by both Study One and Study Two participants was care, and care is the fundamental underpinning of Larrivee's *thoughtfulness*. Honesty was another characteristic mentioned by one of Study Two Time 1's participants and this is synonymous with Larrivee's *emotional integrity*.

Connectedness

The PP dimension of connectedness refers to the engagement and connection of students and their learning beyond the classroom and school to the local community, wider community and beyond. The elements of connectedness include knowledge integration; background knowledge; connectedness to the world, and; a problem-based curriculum.

Findings relating to connectedness. The participants spoke of connectedness in three main areas: connectedness to something bigger; connectedness in a more local sense and the importance of making connections in order to make learning relevant to students' lives.

Table 5.5
Connectedness Thematic Comparison as reported by participants

Connectedness	Study One	Study Two Time 1
To something bigger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real life • World beyond classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real life • World beyond classroom • Use of technology
Making it relevant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting content to real world problems and issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting content to real world problems and issues
In a more local sense	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To local community With diversity To family 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To local community • With diversity • To their school – sporting and special interest groups

*Shaded areas indicate the differences between the two Studies

In terms of connectedness in a more localised sense, participants in Study Two noted the importance of students connecting with their school, which in turn connects to the local community:

I think that it's really important that kids feel a connection to their school and that their school is not kind of isolated from the community. I think it has a big impact on whether the kids are engaged in what they're learning...So I think I would love for my students to be able to that and be involved , if it's just school sport or debating or planting trees or something (Study Two Participant 10).

This same participant continued on linking the idea of connecting to schools and local community as being important in students developing skills of active citizenship: "...it teaches kids to be involved in their school and their community and being like an active citizen" (Study Two Participant 10).

Whilst overall, the participants spoke of connectedness in much the same way as Study One's participants, they did add the dimension of technology and how new technological advances made it easier for students to connect beyond the classroom and the school.

One of my favourite [ideas about connectedness] would be to Skype it up with the kids in another class or another teacher or someone. So to use

technology. If they don't have projectors or anything like that, just bring the laptop they can see from that. Just to talk. I know it happens in my sister's high school at ...Charleville. One of the teachers hooks up with a class at Maroochydore or somewhere like that and they do that once a week. So they have like a shared class (Study Two Participant 6).

Another participant in a different focus group session also saw Skype as being a good way of connecting students to others their age in another country and using this to help understand diversity.

...do like a Skype connection...with another school in another country and say this is what we did and this is what we've been studying and all that kind of stuff. Get the kids to engage in that and um well this is what our classroom is like, this is how we work, and have the kids kind of respond with what it's like for them. So in a different context and have them see even though this is what our classroom is like, in another area of the world it could be very different and help them see that they're still kids attending school but they have it in a different way and you know just have a look and see what kind of issues do you think might arise from this (Study Two Participant 9).

I think ICT does help. If you're fluent and familiar with a lot of ICT programmes and you have the equipment and technology available easily to use in your classroom and you know your way around various web things, um I think that can help not just with connectedness but in a supportive classroom environment managing your levels and things like that (Study Two Participant 2).

The pre-service teachers seemed to be quite comfortable with the idea of technology and using this in the classroom and they were aware of different technological tools available to them such as Skype, websites, webcams, projectors, u-tube clips and iPads. They seemed to be very aware of changes in technology and how this might make things easier for them in the classroom.

But technology is changing so much now. You've got the, what's it called?...The iPad you know there's a lot more things that I think we'll gradually see in the classroom that means we don't always have to take them to the computer lab hopefully, but it will probably take quite a while (Study Two Participant 2).

They did perceive the importance of connectedness in terms of assisting the students to understand that learning was worthwhile and it was not just learning for the sake of learning, but that it had a purpose and relationship to their ‘real lives’: “...how they can use it [learnings] later in life, like you’re not just learning this because you have to learn it. It’s for a greater purpose. And when you tell them that they respond well” (Study Two Participant 8). The pre-service teachers in this study understood the concept of a problem-based curriculum as part of connectedness and the importance of this in fostering quality learning.

I think, you know it says here problem-based. I think most topics whether it be SOSE, music or mathematics, I mean if you can put it in a problem-based um exercise which is connected to real world activities, I think that would really help to connect the students to what they’re learning in school to outside and their own personal background experiences (Study Two Participant 2).

Connectedness was also not only just seen in terms of other people but to the environment as well.

I think that just all that recycling and saving water and just how them sort of doing their little parts and contributing to the world as a whole and um you know all around the world is conscious of it and so when they sort of maybe go to another country and see how other people live they can be able to draw connections and say well that’s what I did back in Australia and see that yeah everyone sort of working around the world together can make a difference (Study Two Participant 11).

Discussion regarding connectedness. As can be seen, there is little difference with the same three themes of connectedness to something bigger, making learning relevant, and connecting in a localised sense, emerging from both studies. The two main additions by Study Two Time 1’s participants were the use of technology in aiding connecting to the world beyond the classroom, and the importance of special interest groups within the school to encourage students to connect to others and their school.

“Continuous learning with clear purpose and connection to the real-world is critical to developing the capabilities, dispositions and literacies required to participate in society and to deal with the complexity of issues and change”

(MYCEETYA, 2005). This Australian Government report argues that to achieve this information and computer technology integration (ICT) into schools is vital. To help with this integration the federal government launched the *Digital Education Revolution* which saw \$200 million provisionally allocated for 2013-14 in the May 2010 budget (DEEWR, 2011). According to educational policy makers, ICT in schools should lead to significant educational and pedagogical outcomes (Jimoyiannis & Komis, 2007). When speaking about ICT in terms of an educational curriculum, there are two models: the techno-centric and the humanistic (Kaffash, Kargiban, Karigban, & Ramezani, 2010). In the techno-centric curriculum the emphasis is on equipping students with the necessary skills that will be important for their future, whilst the humanistic curriculum treats the computer like a tool “which empowers children with knowledge, thinking skills and problem solving alternatives” (Kaffash et al., 2010, p. 71). It is the latter humanistic model with which the pre-service teachers are most familiar and to what they were referring to in their discussion surrounding ICT. The participants in Study Two Time 1 spoke of using particular ICT tools such as the internet and Skype as valuable tools that would allow their students to connect to other children in other parts of the world, thus feeling more connected and contributing to a better understanding of global perspectives and thus recognition of difference as well as connectedness.

It was interesting that Study One’s participants did not refer to ICTs at all in their discussion of connectedness or any other dimension, and Study Two Time 1 participants did. Having stated that though, it must be noted that only three out of the five focus groups in Study Two Time 1 did speak about ICTs and only two of those did so in any depth. This seems to be quite consistent with findings from studies into teacher’s beliefs about ICT in education (see for example Hammond et al., 2009; Jimoyiannis & Komis, 2007). A study in Greece noted that whilst 92% of teachers in the sample considered ICTs as a necessity in society they were still very wary and sceptical about ICT pedagogical perspectives and the practical difficulties they will face in using ICTs in classroom situations (Jimoyiannis & Komis, 2007). A British study into pre-service teachers’ use of ICT noted that the key factor influencing pre-service teachers’ decisions to use ICT in their lessons was a belief that by incorporating ICTs into their practice pupils would respond in a positive way

(Hammond et al., 2009). This finding seems to correlate with the discussion of ICTs by this study's participants.

Recognition of Difference

Within the PP dimension of recognition of difference there is an involvement with a range of cultures, different groups of people and individuals. This is important for students as it helps them develop a respect for others different from themselves and creates a sense of community where relationships and responsibilities are seen as vital.

Findings relating to recognition of difference. The same theme of inclusivity arose from the discussion surrounding recognition of difference. Again, the same elements of inclusivity: different abilities; different needs; different learning styles and; different cultures emerged in Study Two Time 1 as did in Study One.

Table 5.6
Recognition of Difference Thematic Comparison as reported by participants

Recognition of Difference	Study One	Study Two Time 1
1.Inclusivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different abilities • Different needs • Different learning styles • Different cultures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different abilities • Different needs • Different learning styles • Different cultures

Different cultures was mentioned the most out of all the forms:

I kind of focused on the arts and bringing different cultural perspectives through that. Through music, different types of music from around the world and I guess enjoying it all...enjoying different cultures and just being aware of culture through that (Study Two Participant 8).

When speaking of different cultures and different groups of people the participants spoke of the need for inviting guest speakers into the classroom and providing the students with a real understanding rather than a superficial examination.

I guess as a teacher I would be concerned about how I'm actually doing it. Like I don't want to give them a superficial view of a particular culture, like indigenous culture is just dot paintings and stuff. I don't want to do that...I guess I would try and get something or someone from that culture as a resource rather than just doing it on my own (Study Two Participant 10).

Similarly to Study One's participants, the participants in this study also seemed to be more hesitant about and less prepared to deal with difference in terms of learning abilities and different learning needs and physical disabilities than they were with cultural diversity. "I think that's [diversity in terms of learning styles and learning difficulties] going to be a huge challenge" (Study Two Participant 4), and "I think it's more of the physical challenges that are going to be a bit more of a challenge" (Study Two Participant 9).

When discussing recognition of difference in these various forms (abilities, needs, learning styles and cultures) the pre-service teachers all mentioned the importance of respect and engendering this in their future students.

Everyone has different lives, and even if they're not like, even if they're not brilliant or that, they enjoy different things, they learn in different ways. Getting them to kind of see that...Even though people appear different we are all human beings and we all deserve the same respect (Study Two Participant 9).

Discussion regarding recognition of difference. The pre-service teachers in Study Two Time 1, in the same way as participants in Study One, clearly identified recognition of difference as the ability to create an inclusive classroom in terms of catering for different abilities; different needs; different learning styles and; different cultures.

As mentioned above in the findings, it was recognition of difference in terms of cultural differences that the focus group participants were most concerned with talking about. With approximately 27% of Australia's population foreign born (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011b), it is certainly understandable why education needs to be very concerned about the impact of cultural diversity. In recent years the proportion of the Australian population who were born in the United Kingdom, traditionally a very large percentage of Australia's foreign born population, experienced a decline. In recent years (2000-2010) proportions of foreign born Australians have increased for people born in Asia, particularly China and India (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011b). The fastest rate of increase of foreign born Australians has been from Nepal, followed by Sudan, India, Bangladesh, Zimbabwe and Pakistan (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011b). Apart from the obvious language and cultural differences these people bring with them, there is also the

added complication of many of these immigrants arriving from war-torn countries and/or as political refugees. Between 2009 and 2010, 13 770 refugee or special humanitarian visas were granted in Australia (Australian Government, 2011).

In terms of education many foreign-born Australians, or children of these, are enrolled in schools throughout Australia. Teachers thus need to be equipped to deal with the challenges this presents in the classroom. One of the main challenges is to help these children adapt to their new country as well as educating all children about recognising and valuing cultural diversity and to be accepting of difference. This is vital not only for a supportive learning environment within the school but also for a more cohesive and peaceful society in general. UNESCO's *Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity* affirms:

that respect for the diversity of cultures, tolerance, dialogue and cooperation, in a climate of mutual trust and understanding are among the best guarantees of international peace and security (UNESCO, 2001).

The pre-service students in this study certainly appeared to recognise this and understood that respect for others, no matter how different from oneself, was vital in a classroom and to teach this to their students.

Values

As discussed in Chapter Four which reported the findings of Study One, I added another dimension – values - to the four PP dimensions of quality teaching. This dimension considers the importance of values, beliefs and attitudes and the role they play in the classroom and in developing characteristics of a quality teacher.

Findings regarding values. Similarly to all of the other dimensions the exact same themes emerged from Study Two Time 1 as from Study One. For values, these three themes were: (1) teacher dispositions; (2) teachers as role models, and; (3) the building of positive relationships.

Table 5.7

Values Thematic Comparison as reported by participants

Values	Study One	Study Two Time One
Teacher dispositions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attitude • Impact on students • Self-knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attitude • Impact on students • Self-knowledge
Teachers as role models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • who we are impacts on students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • who we are impacts on students
Building positive relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connect with students – share personal information • Respect • Honesty • Care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respect • Honesty • Care

**Shaded areas indicate differences between the two Studies.*

Under the theme of teacher dispositions, Study Two Time 1 participants spoke of the importance of teachers knowing themselves and how their own values, attitudes and beliefs might impact on their classroom and their students.

I think it's really important to be strong on who you are. You know like make sure they know exactly who you are and how you think about things. But that doesn't mean enforcing it on them. I want to know what you think, this is what I think, but what do you think?...To give an example of confidence in who you are and what you believe (Study Two Participant 6).

As can be seen from the above quote, with this notion of self-knowledge, in terms of the teacher, the pre-service teachers in this study related this to not enforcing their values, attitudes and beliefs on others. "I think it's being aware of them [your own values and beliefs] and not placing them within the classroom and on the students and on what you're teaching" (Study Two Participant 7).

Again, as in Study One, participants spoke of the need for instilling values of respect, honesty and care in their students and modelling that themselves as well.

I think respect is a big thing. Having kids understand that it's important to respect everyone even though, you have respect for elders, respect for your parents, but that respect doesn't stop there, it has to extend to not only their parents but their...classmates, different kids at school and also different people's belongs and things (Study Two Participant 9).

The notion of care extended to kindness and broader social and environmental responsibilities.

I think even kindness, going out of your way to help someone else, um so not just doing things like not talking when someone else is or not saying mean things, but saying kind things, doing nice things (Study Two Participant 3).

I think um social responsibility and environmental responsibility... I think our society doesn't have a strong sense of that and I think, you know sure you can just live your life and only focus on yourself and have no trouble having a nice life. But you know there's things like social justice and responsibility, you're a part of this society, you're a part of this world and this environment. You shouldn't just be living your own life, you should sort of take on board other things to help society and our world. That's our responsibility (Study Two Participant 2).

Discussion relating to values.

As can be seen from Table 5.7 the same themes emerged from Study Two Time 1 as did from Study One. Generally speaking the consistent pattern when investigating pre-service teachers' reasons for enrolling in a teacher education programme is that of an altruistic, service-oriented goal (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992). This research into the question of motivation for potential teacher candidates dates back to 1960 with Richards' (1960) findings demonstrating that the majority of pre-service teachers in her study "chose teaching as a profession because they wanted to help children and anticipated personal enjoyment in the work" (p. 380), salary and job security were considered secondary to this. It was also interesting that the greatest single influence on their choice of teaching came from teachers they had had when they were students (R. Richards, 1960). In more recent studies (see Brookhart & Freeman, 1992 for a review) helping and serving others and working with people continue to be the main reasons cited as motivation for entering the teaching profession. Elliott Eisner, professor of education at Stanford University wrote: "Each year, thousands of new teachers enter the field. Almost all seek deep satisfaction from the processes of teaching" (Eisner, 2006, p. 44). He goes on to list his top six satisfactions, none of which mention pay or working conditions but do include making a difference and making a whole child. I too ask the question 'Why

do you want to be a teacher?’ of each class I have taught over the years in the pre-service teacher education units in which I have taught. The overwhelming response is always the same “I want to make a difference”. Only one pre-service teacher in all those classes I have taught responded because of the pay and great holidays. To me this reinforces the notion that the vast majority of pre-service teachers who are training to be teachers are doing so because of a deep desire to help and care for others. Block (2008) discusses the reasons for why one should be a teacher and notes that it certainly is not for the salary, which falls way below the average for wage earners of comparable educational attainment, and certainly not for the status attached to teaching, which he amongst others, argues is not great and is often held up to negativity in the media and politics. He comes to the conclusion

that the satisfactions of teaching are to be achieved in its difficulties, and that these satisfactions are hard wrung. Standing ethically before our students, commanding them to command us, we demand their attention with our devotions. We demand they learn to be attentive. To teach is to assume an ethical position in an immoral world. To teach is to be a prophet in a degraded world. To teach is not suffer silently, but to suffer nonetheless. To teach is to change the world student by student and paper by paper (Block, 2008, p. 425).

From the discussion on values in this study and Study One, it is clear that the pre-service teachers in this study feel much the same way.

Time 2

Study Two Time 2 occurred after the 10 weeks of classes for the semester, but prior to the pre-service teachers engaging in their field experience. So the reason for Time 2 focus groups as part of the study was to identify if any changes had occurred in the participants’ understandings of quality teaching as a result of them having engaged in the third year Bachelor of Education compulsory field experience unit where the focus was on Philosophy in the Classroom, which is a values explicit pedagogy.

This subject (FE3) was a 10 week unit where the pre-service teachers attended a 2 hour lecture each week. As stated earlier in this chapter the focus for FE3 was professional standards; ethics, values and diversity; and literacy and all of this was examined through the use of philosophy and particularly the Philosophy in the

Classroom pedagogy. This unit saw pre-service teachers being introduced to the notion of connecting philosophy to the curriculum which involved a brief understanding of different philosophy disciplines; an examination of ethics, values and diversity; an introduction to the ways that philosophy can be utilised across the curriculum, and; a focus on philosophy and literacy and how Philosophy in the Classroom can enhance literacy skills.

The questions used to guide the focus group sessions for this part of the study can be viewed in Appendix I. They were essentially the same as Study Two Time 1 focusing on the four PP quality teaching dimensions plus values, but this time the questions focused on whether or not the subject FE3 better prepared the pre-service teachers to engage in quality teaching skills. Three focus group sessions were held in Study Two Time 2 with the first group containing five participants; the second group, 11 participants; and the final group comprised two participants. So, overall there were 19 pre-service teachers who participated in Study Two Time 2. It must be noted that out of this 19, seven of the participants had also been involved in Study Two Time 1.

Intellectual Quality

The participants were first reminded of the dimension of intellectual quality for those who had participated in Study Two Time 1, for those who had not, they were introduced to this dimension and were given a handout to help with the definitions (see Appendix F). They were then asked the question

1. How has FE3 helped to prepare you to teach skills relating to intellectual quality and to develop them with your future students?

Findings relating to intellectual quality. Overall, the participants stated that FE3 had prepared them in terms of developing intellectual quality with their future students. In Study One and Study Two Time 1 the themes to emerge were teaching strategies, critical and creative thinking and, connections, this time in Study Two Time 2 after exposure to a values-based pedagogy the themes to emerge were still critical and creative thinking and connections, but not teaching strategies.

Table 5.8

Intellectual Quality Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 (as reported by participants)

Intellectual Quality	Study One	Study Two Time 1	Study Two Time 2
1. Teaching strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building on prior knowledge • Questioning – open-ended • Bloom’s taxonomy • Gardner’s intelligences • De Bono’s hats 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building on prior knowledge • Questioning – scaffolded + no right or wrong answer • Bloom’s taxonomy • De Bono’s hats • Inquiry learning • Discovery learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This theme not discussed
2. Critical and Creative thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deep understanding • Metacognition • Building block process • Constructing their own knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deep understanding • Scaffolding • Constructing their own knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher-order thinking • Deep knowledge • Deep understanding • Metacognition
3. Connecting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different perspectives • Real life • Outside classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different perspectives • Real life – authentic learning • Outside classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cross-curricular • Outside classroom • Real life

**Highlighted areas indicate the differences in Study Two Time 2*

Higher-order thinking, deep knowledge and deep understanding, and metacognition were all discussed by the participants as part of critical and creative thinking. They saw the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom as being helpful in terms of specifically assisting students with the development of their thinking skills.

I think the fact that the kids are coming up with their own ideas...It’s not the teacher taking control, it’s the kids coming up with the ideas and building on each others’ ideas. So definitely higher-order thinking (Study Two Participant 4).

It [Philosophy in the Classroom] is a structured process, a logical process where you lead them [students] to think for themselves about something deeply (Study Two Participant 6).

It [Philosophy in the Classroom] was really quite self-directed and from some of the examples we saw I was amazed at how able young students were to achieve what we see as high intellectual quality (Study Two Participant 2).

One participant noted that perhaps assisting students in developing intellectual quality is actually easier through philosophy than in any subject: “It’s a lot easier in philosophy, ‘cause it’s not focusing so much on getting the content across but on their thinking” (Study Two Participant 13).

The participants in Study Two Time Two also noted that the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom seemed to be particularly helpful in terms of encouraging metacognition.

I guess it’s [knowledge about philosophy in schools] given me more depth of understanding in terms of preparing students to think and to know about thinking. So the metathinking about thinking processed and how that’s important for intellectual quality and to allow students a bit more independence in that, in self-directedness (Study Two Participant 2).

They saw this as primarily occurring as a result of the metalanguage associated with philosophy: “[it] give[s] them [students] the language to build on their own thinking processes” (Study Two Participant 4). “Their vocabulary that they [the students] use. It’s just some of the words that they use. I’m like wow that came out of your mouth! In a good way!” (Study Two Participant 7)

The participants seemed to be particularly enthused with the concept that in philosophy there is often more than one answer.

There is not one answer that is right. For example in Maths there might be different ways to get to it but you still have to get to that one place. So we could walk away I suppose from a philosophy lesson and still disagree and have different opinions or a different way of looking at it and just have respect for that and that doesn’t really happen in any other subject (Study Two Participant 15).

They related this is to intellectual quality, arguing that the students had to think more deeply and understand that knowledge is problematic.

I think particularly with the fact that the kids are looking at a set concept and kind of something that they may think is very right or wrong and then say, 'oh! Well we're going to blur the lines. What if it's in this circumstance?' Get them to think...That kind of would link in with the knowledge not as a fixed body of information. You can say, 'Alright, we don't steal, we don't do this, we don't do that, but what if it's for this reason? Oh, hang on now, we've got to think about it in a completely different way.' Developing their justification skills and things so that they're reasoning within themselves and that's kind of questioning how they view the world as well (Study Two Participant 9).

It was also noted by the participants that the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom allowed them the opportunity to teach the transference of skills across the curriculum, thus making connections across the curriculum more explicit for the students.

They can apply these skills into other subjects so they're learning about the importance of higher-order thinking and thinking more deeply about things that they're learning about and they can apply that to all sorts of other subjects that they're learning about. So they're focusing on the importance of what it means to think and apply these to other situations (Study Two Participant 13).

Discussion regarding intellectual quality. The participants' understanding and conversation regarding intellectual quality was much more in tune with the PP dimension and thus quality teaching, in Study Two Time 2 than in Study One and Study Two Time 1, thus highlighting that the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom did have a positive impact on the pre-service teachers' quality teaching dimension of intellectual quality.

One of the key points raised by Study Two Time 2's participants was that Philosophy in the Classroom was very much student controlled and student centred as opposed to teacher controlled and the study's participants perceived this as being vital in encouraging higher order thinking amongst their students. This is supported by the research literature with philosophy offering a "forum for students to learn *different ways of thinking*, not what to think" (Kaye & Sexton, 2004, p. 3).

During the Study Two Time 2 focus groups was the first time any participants discussed the notion that knowledge is problematic. Knowledge as problematic is one of the criterion under the PP model of intellectual quality and involves an understanding of knowledge not as fixed body of information but one that is constructed, and is thus subject to political, social and cultural influences (Hayes et al., 2006). The pre-service teachers in this study identified that Philosophy in the Classroom contributed to increasing students' intellectual quality by "allowing them to look at different ways of thinking" (Study Two Participant 8) which "link[ed] in with the knowledge not as a fixed body of information" (Study Two Participant 9) in a philosophical discussion during a community of inquiry.

In Philosophy in the Classroom the higher-order thinking skills which are developed and practised, for which as a pedagogy it is best known (W. Barrow, 2010), occurs through the process of dialogue within the community of inquiry. The dialogical approach to teaching and learning has a long history dating back to Socrates (Renshaw, 2004). "Socratic dialogue positioned the teacher as neither the author nor transmitter of knowledge, but as an assistant to the learner's search for evidence and application of reasoned argument" (Renshaw, 2004, p. 2). The importance of a dialogic approach is not just stuck in the past though, but has recently been emphasised as being important to children's learning (Wegerif, 2008), through its focus on children's intellectual progression (W. Barrow, 2010). The role of dialogue in the development of children's processes that allow them to participate is crucial not only in terms of intellectual quality but for its ability to engage children in intersubjective understandings with others and improved inter-generational communication (W. Barrow, 2010). Whilst there is debate over whether or not Philosophy in the Classroom is genuinely dialogic, given its focus of inducting children into dialogues, there are those who support it as a genuine form of dialogic (W. Barrow, 2010). Within the quality teaching framework, dialogue and its benefits fit under substantive conversation within the intellectual quality dimension. "In classes where *substantive conversation* is present, there are considerable teacher-student and student-student exchanges; the interaction is reciprocal; and it promotes coherent shared understanding" (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 44). Philosophy in the Classroom with its dialogical and participatory mechanism thus certainly supports an improvement in substantive conversation skills and practices within a classroom, and

the pre-service students in this study clearly identified this benefit of Philosophy in the Classroom.

Closely linked to this idea of Philosophy for Children as dialogic and supportive of substantive conversation is the increased use of metalanguage within a community of inquiry. Metalanguage is another criterion of the PP intellectual quality dimension. The pre-service students noted this use of metalanguage in their conversation regarding intellectual quality and displayed their amazement at how effectively and easily the students they viewed on the videos used the metalanguage of philosophy not just in their philosophy lesson but generally in the classroom and even in the playground: “they [the students] integrated it [philosophical metalanguage] into the playground and that was amazing as well that they used the language instead of name calling. That was pretty crazy.” (Study Two Participant 7). There is evidence to suggest that the use of metalanguage is not generally widespread in classroom practice (see Freebody, Ludwig & Gunn, 1995; Baker & Freebody, 1989 as cited in Hayes et al., 2006), despite the fact that increased skill in using metalanguage has been linked to being beneficial to all students but especially those from more disadvantaged backgrounds (Hayes et al., 2006). So for the pre-service teachers learning and understanding the importance of metalanguage through their pedagogical skills within Philosophy in the Classroom is of benefit in improving their teaching skills within the intellectual quality dimension.

Supportive Classroom Environment

The PP dimension of a supportive classroom environment includes such things as giving students clear direction in their work; providing social support for all students; ensuring students are academically engaged; providing explicit quality performance criteria, and; developing self-regulated learners.

The participants were first reminded of the dimension of a supportive learning environment for those who had participated in Study Two Time 1, for those who had not, they were introduced to this dimension and were given a handout to help with the definitions (see Appendix F). They were then asked:

2. How has FE3 helped to prepare you in creating and maintaining a supportive learning environment?

Findings relating to a supportive classroom environment. The same themes of relationships and valuing (Study One and Study Two Time 1) were discussed in Study Two Time 2 but this time specifically in terms of how their FE3 unit had given the participants specific skills and ideas in terms of how philosophy in schools could help them build and maintain a supportive learning environment.

Table 5.9
A Supportive Classroom Environment Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 as reported by the participants

Supportive Classroom Environment	Study One	Study Two Time 1	Study Two Time 2
1.Relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher-student Teacher-teacher Student-student Whole class Class – family Respect Care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher-student Student-student Whole class Class-family Respect Care Teacher as role model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Student-student Respect Care Teacher-student
2.Valuing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Student work Diversity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Diversity Rules and behaviour management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Valuing their own opinions – develops students’ self-esteem Rules and behaviour management Self-regulation

**Highlighted areas indicate the differences in Study Two Time 2*

Student-student relationships were the type of relationship that the participants in Study Two Time 2 most referred. They identified these as being very positive: “And the way that they would communicate and discuss and listen to each other was really quite amazing” (Study Two Participant 6). In terms of this being achieved, the participants noted that Philosophy in the Classroom provided an excellent foundation with its strict rule of only one person speaking at a time and the use of a ‘speaking ball’ to assist with this process.

With the person that had the ball they were allowed to speak and everyone just respected that, there wasn’t a whole bombard of people just you know

saying what they thought and not letting anyone else get their words in. They could just say what they felt and then roll the ball to someone else (Study Two Participant 8).

The whole idea of a community of inquiry with its rules and ways of operating was also seen as a positive in fostering better relationships.

“...in order to have a successful community of inquiry there needs to be a certain set of rules or guidelines. That there is a shared understanding of, for example, respecting others, listening to someone else when they’re talking and responding to that. That leads to a you know supportive classroom environment (Study Two Participant 2).

They saw the fact that in philosophy, students are required to say they disagree with an idea and not the person contributes positively to the fostering of supportive student relationships.

They separate things out and they can say, ‘Alright, well this is a person and we don’t disagree with the person we disagree with their ideas’, and it’s kind of leaving out that whole, ‘well you’re stupid because of this’, it’s well this idea is not necessarily correct (Study Two Participant 9).

The participants also noted that this did not just occur within philosophy lessons but across all subjects:

It [a supportive classroom environment] does flow and like we’ll go into a classroom to implement philosophy and I think you will find that it will flow into all aspects of our teaching rather than just the philosophy lessons (Study Two Participant 14).

and even outside the classroom.

“Also like integrated into the playground and that was amazing as well that they used the language instead of name calling. That was pretty crazy (Study Two Participant 7).

As well as the bettering of student-student relationships, the pre-service teachers noted that philosophy could have benefits in terms of improving students’ sense of self-esteem. This was related to what was discussed previously under intellectual quality, in that because there is no single right answer, some students who might be normally reluctant to contribute might be more willing.

I think it is going to work really well for those who wouldn't normally talk as well, because they do get that opportunity to have a say. Like you have got the ones that always jump up and say something and the ones who always sit back and say nothing. I think every child in that class is going to walk away from that lesson feeling really good about themselves that they've actually contributed to the conversation (Study Two Participant 14).

The notion of building upon others' ideas which is central to the COI and thus to Philosophy in the Classroom was also identified as being helpful in terms of improving students' self-esteem.

With philosophy you always build on someone's ideas so I'm building on P's idea. Everyone contributes and that's what students do and because regardless of where your academic standing is if I say something someone has to build on my idea and they've obviously had to interpret it and value that to build upon it. And that student that say never contributes anything because they are worried about 'Oh, what are people going to think of me?' They'll get to value themselves a bit more and with that supportive classroom environment built up so too is the students' confidence in their ability to participate in classroom discussions (Study Two Participant 18).

Whilst overall the discussion in Study Two Time 2 did not focus as much on teacher-student relationships, a few participants did comment on seeing philosophy as being an ideal way of building teacher-student relationships, and other participants upon hearing this agreed it was a good idea.

...it [philosophy lessons] is good for building their [teacher-student] relationships. I'm actually going to use mine [philosophy lesson] on the first two days when I get back [to field experience], so that way I'm going to build a relationship with the kids and then I'll know more about what the kids will be like in the classroom and give me a bit of a tool case or whatever, a toolbox, to know how to deal with things and individual kids (Study Two Participant 20).

You can learn from the students and that adds to what A said earlier around building a deeper relationship and understanding about where your students are at and where they come from and so on... (Study Two Participant 15).

Lastly, it was also noted in the focus groups that Philosophy in the Classroom could assist with classroom and behaviour management. So there are the rules of listening to and respecting others which contributes, but it is also in terms of students improving self-regulation as a result of engaging in philosophy.

I think too just with the self-regulated aspect of that they're learning how to employ their skills that they've learnt through philosophy. So if there is problems within the classroom they are negotiating themselves in how to sort it out so the teacher's not having to spend so much time mediating issues and things like that (Study Two Participant 1).

Discussion regarding a supportive classroom environment. The same themes of relationships and valuing emerged from this discussion with Study Two Time 2's participants as did in the previous two studies (Study One and Study Two Time 1) already discussed. What did emerge though, much more strongly in this Time 2 study was the focus on student-student relationships and how the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom gave these pre-service students some helpful and explicit strategies in supporting and maintaining these strong student-student relationships. The pre-service teachers clearly identified that the rules and running of the community of inquiry gave the students firm guidelines for dialogical exchange with others. "In particular, it promotes children's awareness of one another's personalities, interests, values, beliefs and biases" (Lipman et al., 1980, p. 65). This interpersonal sensitivity is crucial not only for improved student-student relationships but is a pre-requisite for a child's successful social development (Lipman et al., 1980). Lipman (2003) notes that because a COI relies on and values the shared experience of its participants, students involved in this very quickly discover that learning does not just occur through self-discovery but that each individual profits from the learning experiences of others. Whilst this might be obvious, Lipman (2003) proceeds to note that actual classroom experience reveals that this seemingly obvious fact appears to be little understood with many college students, and I would also argue adults, stopping listening when someone else speaks. So for teachers who engage regularly with their students in a philosophical community of inquiry they are assisting their students in gaining valuable and crucial skills of strong relationship building and the valuing of others.

Closely linked with this notion of improved student-student relations as a result of Philosophy in the Classroom is the link to reduced bullying and violence within schools. The participants commented that as a result of their learnings about the values-based pedagogy of philosophy they were very interested in the fact that it had been reported that there had been a reduction regarding “the whole bullying aspect in schools” (Study Two Participant 4). In their discussion the pre-service teachers attributed this to the metalanguage, the notion of disagreeing with a person’s opinion and not the actual person, the level of respect, the building upon others’ ideas and the general supportive environment that a COI and philosophical approach adopts. The link between improved student social outcomes and philosophy has been noted in the literature with some practitioners claiming that behavioural problems and bullying have been reduced as a result of children’s participation in Philosophy in the Classroom (see for example Hinton, 2003). Lipman (2003, p. 124) argues that a COI leads to a prevailing of reasonableness in the classroom, which in turn will spill over into other domains such as homes and thus it is within classrooms that children can “learn that the reduction of violence can hinge upon the reconstruction of unfair social, political, and economic practices and institutions”.

Participants in this study also noted that Philosophy in the Classroom can make a valuable contribution to the development of students’ self-esteem. This notion of self-esteem and its importance in contributing to a supportive classroom environment was not mentioned in the non-values explicit studies. The COI approach of philosophy helps children to develop a sound confidence in themselves; to develop a sense of autonomy; to encourage self-reflection and self-correction; and to fulfil the innate desire of each individual to “be seen and heard, to be listened to and understood, to be treated well, in short, to be respected” (Lago, 1991), all of which are crucial in developing positive self-esteem. Lipman (2003) notes that due to the positive sense of belonging that a COI promotes, it has a beneficial effect on enhanced self-esteem of its members. All contributions are welcomed, all students are listened to and thus all members are valued, regardless of academic merit, popularity or sporting prowess.

Connectedness

Connectedness includes such things as knowledge integration; background knowledge; connectedness to the world, and; a problem-based curriculum.

The participants were first reminded of the dimension of connectedness for those who had participated in Study Two Time 1, for those who had not, they were introduced to this dimension and were given a handout to help with the definitions (see Appendix F). They were then asked the question

3. How has FE3 helped to prepare you to teach the skills of connectedness and to develop them with your future students?

Findings relating to connectedness. The same themes of connecting to real life and the world beyond the classroom and with diversity which were discussed in Studies One and Two Time 1 were also discussed in Study Two Time 2. The new topics that were raised by the participants in this study and in neither of the other two studies were firstly, through philosophy the students are taught to make links and connections for themselves and secondly, it also teaches them valuable life-long learning skills.

Table 5.10

Connectedness Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 as reported by participants

Connectedness	Study One	Study Two Time 1	Study Two Time 2
1.To something bigger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real life • World beyond classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real life • World beyond classroom • Use of technology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real life • World beyond classroom • Connecting by themselves
2.Making it relevant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting content to real world problems and issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting content to real world problems and issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting content to real world problems and issues • Life-long learning skills
3.In a more local sense	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To local community • With diversity • To family 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To local community • With diversity • To their school – sporting and special interest groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With diversity

**Highlighted areas indicate the differences in Study Two Time 2*

One participant noted that philosophy can help students to make connections for themselves and thus reinforcing that learning is not just seen in isolation in the classroom:

From my understanding in philosophy inquiry, you're asking children to discuss a topic but not in an abstract – you're wanting them to connect to make examples...A child will state their opinion and you need to encourage them to back that up because da da da and that...So they're connecting to their own life or something they've seen or heard about (Study Two Participant 2).

Another participant noted that whilst other pedagogical tools they have been provided with in their pre-service programme may assist in helping with connectedness, philosophy provided them with a more structured way that she saw as being particularly beneficial.

This [philosophy] is a more structured opportunity to bring that [connectedness] in without judgement...It's like the kids are bringing in their own background knowledge and they're opening communications with each other without anybody making a judgement I guess (Study Two Participant 1).

The participants also noted that Philosophy in the Classroom provided them with an ideal way to engage their students in connecting to big issues in life and society and also making links to the media and use of bias and propaganda.

It's probably a chance to bring in the bigger issues and to discuss them. Provide an opportunity for the kids to get their head around some of the big issues that are in focus (Study Two Participant 1).

There's also with connectedness, looking at things like where kids are going to be approached with things like propaganda when they get out [of school] and leading them to understand that we don't believe everything that we see or that we read and basically that that justification and reason-giving (Study Two Participant 9).

In terms of life-long learning one participant noted that the skills taught and practised in philosophy are useful in terms of developing life-long learning skills with students: "They have to be complex thinkers, they have to be thinking and reasoning all the time" (Study Two Participant 12). Other participants noted that philosophy was giving the students knowledge and skills that would be useful for the students well after their formal education had ceased.

It's about this [philosophy] being useful for them [the students] outside and beyond the school. So to me you know, I think in terms of reasoning or making decisions about things, debating pros and cons about maybe study choices, choices in terms of who I might marry and that kind of thing. How we deal with conflict in a relationship and all those things. I think that as a teacher I'm not only preparing my students to be able to be good at maths or understand the weather but also to be a good citizen and contribute in society and to hopefully one day offer a stable family and that type of thing. So I see that philosophy, probably more than other things we may be doing, is really good for these topics (Study Two Participant 15).

I really like what M said earlier on too about lifelong learners, so we're actually instilling that into them through philosophy. It's not only just about this six hours in a classroom, it's about the rest of their lives, what happens outside the walls. So you're really getting them to be open thinkers in situations in a shopping centre of anywhere else (Study Two Participant 14).

Discussion regarding connectedness. Life-long learning is considered to be an essential life skill which all people should develop and one which is imperative for a democracy (Delors, 1996). Life-long learning is more than formal education and

a willingness to engage in continuing professional development, and it is more than the learning that takes place through the natural processes of living, sometimes outside of our awareness. It is a form of learning that requires active awareness and engagement of the learner, in community (Crick & Wilson, 2005, p. 360).

So apart from the necessary attitudes, dispositions and skills that we should develop in order to be an effective life-long learner, it is also necessary to remember that learning does not take place in private isolation but is more often achieved through social discourse (Crick & Wilson, 2005). In terms of education and learning in relationship to others, one only has to turn to the works of the great educational theorists Vygotsky and Dewey to understand how crucial relationships with others is to an individual's learning.

In *Philosophy in the Classroom* the focus on a community of inquiry and the central belief that learning occurs with a dialogue with one's peers and through the process of inquiry, collaboration, reasoning and justification, certainly impacts on

life-long learning. The skills, attitudes and dispositions that children develop as a result of their participation in a philosophical community of inquiry directly correlate with the skills, attitudes and dispositions required for an effective life-long learner. From the discussion in the focus group of this study's participants it was obvious that the pre-service teachers could see the benefits of philosophy in helping create life-long learners.

Philosophy in the Classroom can offer much in terms of integrating curriculum, teaching and learning as it relates to all curriculum areas with "every discipline presuppose[ing] answers to philosophical questions that cannot be answered by the disciplines themselves" (Burgh & O'Brien, 2002, p. 52). This ability of philosophy to create connections to all areas of the curriculum as well as to outside school is another reason why philosophy can offer teachers much in terms of assisting with the connectedness dimension of quality teaching.

Recognition of Difference

Within the dimension of recognition of difference there is an involvement with a range of cultures, different groups of people and individuals.

The participants were first reminded of the dimension of recognition of difference for those who had participated in Study Two Time One, for those who had not, they were introduced to this dimension and were given a handout to help with the definitions (see Appendix F). They were then asked:

4. How has FE3 helped to prepare you to teach the skills associated with recognising difference and to develop them with your future students?

Findings relating to recognition of difference. The findings were virtually the same across all three.

Table 5.11
Recognition of Difference Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 as reported by participants

Recognition of Difference	Study One	Study Two	Study Two
		Time 1	Time 2
1. Inclusivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different abilities • Different needs • Cultural awareness • Different learning styles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different abilities • Different needs • Cultural awareness • Different learning styles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different abilities • Different needs • Cultural awareness • Different learning styles

Much the same as in the previous two studies, the participants in this study related recognition of difference to inclusivity and understanding others.

If someone different comes into the classroom and all different cultures and things with that kind of philosophical area and yeah they can explore that. They can understand the differences and then when someone new is introduced to the classroom there's not that automatically, 'Oh! You're different. I don't quite know about you', they can accept that (Study Two Participant 9).

When asked if the subject FE3 had helped to better prepare them in terms of helping students acquire skills to better understand, appreciate, and recognise difference in others, one participant responded: "I guess this subject allows us a clear avenue to look at that topic itself – to look at respect, to look at difference, look are we all the same" (Study Two Participant 2). Another responded,

The respect part. To be able to teach kids respect you know. I think that's been lost in the world...Being able to teach like maybe you've got some kids that...go to a low SES area. You've got three or four kids and their family life is really really awful – they have older brothers that have beaten them up and stuff or whatever and their parents don't respect authority and are criminals or whatever you know. To be able to give kids, this youngest student, the opportunity to learn what that concept means that they don't actually get the chance to learn at home (Study Two Participant 6).

Another participant who knew what his field experience school would be and had been to visit also noted how valuable philosophy would be to him in terms of assisting students with recognition of difference:

We have 6 ESL kids in the class and some of them are only comfortable with their peers or at the ESL centre at N. They have very little English but the other kids aren't accepting of them. So my teacher asked me to come up with a few philosophy lessons that teaches them to include difference and accept everyone – working out ways where they're similar to someone and working out the differences. So philosophy will be really helpful (Study Two Participant 19).

The pre-service teachers noted that the values-based pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom seemed to provide them as future teachers with a valuable way and means of dealing with difference and promoting inclusivity and understanding.

Even talking about family and different family structures. It's a great way of bringing that in without having any kind of fixed opinion from anybody. That everybody is just giving their own thoughts and views and building on that. I think that's quite a nice way of bringing that in (Study Two Participant 4).

One specific way a couple of participants observed that Philosophy in the Classroom can promote recognition of difference was the clarification process that occurs within a COI.

I really liked when the teacher was clarifying what they were saying, like if you're saying something and she'd be like, 'Do you mean this?' And they're saying, 'Yes, that's what I meant.' (Study Two Participant 7)....

It's basically leading them to minimise misunderstandings and things (Study Two Participant 9).

One participant noted that in one of their lectures for FE3 the lecturer spoke to them of the difference between acceptance and tolerance.

A lot of the writings and things say that you know tolerance is such a great thing, whereas I found out with S it was actually a really negative thing when you think about what it means. So yes, that's definitely made me second think using that word in a classroom (Study Two Participant 8).

This same participant when asked if Philosophy in the Classroom had allowed her to see that students can be taught the difference between acceptance and tolerance and that a COI supports acceptance over tolerance, responded in the affirmative: “Yeah, definitely just taking that approach is really crucial” (Study Two Participant 8).

Discussion regarding recognition of difference.

The working with and valuing difference dimension of productive pedagogies is crucial in terms of improving the academic and social outcomes of marginalised students, at the same time as improving the social outcomes of all other students (Hayes et al., 2006, p. 67).

The types of pedagogical practices that are discussed in the QSRLS as being beneficial to promoting the valuing of difference are such practices as: providing students with knowledge concerning non-dominant ways of being in terms of such things as gender, ethnicity, sexuality; ensuring all students are included and actively participate; explicitly valuing diversity; employing a range of teaching styles; ensuring individual student identities are acknowledged and valued in ways that build a community based on difference; and providing students with opportunities to participate actively in making a difference to their classroom, school and broader community (Hayes et al., 2006). As noted above in the recognition of difference findings of Study Two Time 2 the participants noted that the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy provided them with an ideal way of fulfilling the quality teaching dimension of recognition of difference.

Research regarding inclusivity in schools has highlighted the important role teachers play in creating an inclusive environment that respects and values recognition of difference (see for example Carrington, 2007; H. Jones, 2004). “It is what teachers think, what teachers believe and what teachers do at the level of the classroom that ultimately shapes the kind of learning experience young people have in our schools” (Carrington, 2007, pp. 42-43). The pre-service teachers in this study clearly understood this and valued the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy that they were taught as one way of helping to create an inclusive classroom where differences were valued. Carrington (2007) posited that whilst teachers may not necessarily hold negative beliefs and attitudes towards inclusivity and diversity and may be quite positive in their beliefs they often do not possess the skills and knowledge to allow for the fulfilment of this in the classroom. The pedagogy of

Philosophy in the Classroom that these focus group participants received in their FE3 subject has appeared to give some of them these skills and knowledge to fulfil this as noted by some of the findings above.

Values

This dimension considers the importance of values, beliefs and attitudes and the role they play in the classroom and in developing characteristics of a quality teacher.

The participants were asked the question:

5. How has Philosophy in the Classroom strengthened your own beliefs and values in the journey to becoming a quality teacher?

Findings regarding values. The conversations regarding values were not as in-depth in the Study Two Time 2 focus groups as they had been in Study One and Study Two Time 1.

Table 5.12
Values Thematic Comparison Highlighting Study Two Time 2 as reported by participants

Values	Study One	Study Two Time 1	Study Two Time 2
1. Teacher dispositions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attitude • Impact on students • Self-knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attitude • Impact on students • Self-knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject strengthened teachers' values and beliefs • Self-knowledge
2. Teachers as role models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who we are impacts on students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who we are impacts on students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who we are impacts on students
3. Building positive relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connect with students – share personal information • Respect • Honesty • Care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respect • Honesty • Care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Useful for discussing school and social issues of concern

**Highlighted areas indicate the differences in Study Two Time 2*

Nevertheless the participants all agreed that through their FE3 subject they had strengthened their own values and beliefs as a beginning teacher. One participant commented,

It [FE3] makes you really think about what you're doing, what you're teaching, why you're teaching and how those kids are thinking too (Study Two Participant 14).

Others commented that it made them take some time for self-reflection and really reflect on their own values and beliefs and opinions and how this could impact upon their teaching.

It really makes you analyse yourself and the way that, you know, without bringing your opinion across. Like how careful you should be about pushing your opinion on the kids...(Study Two Participant 13).

As a part of this self-reflection another participant noted that it made her more open-minded in terms of values and beliefs.

It's made me see that there are different angles for everything...it's broadened, and I'm connecting a lot more, which is good (Study Two Participant 7).

One participant commented that this subject (FE3) had strengthened her own values and beliefs in regard to working in more disadvantaged schools.

One of the things I wanted to do before this [subject] was to work in schools that have behavioural problems or special need kids or something. So I think having something like this [philosophy as pedagogy] under my wing when I go into those sort of classrooms is only going to benefit those kids. It's going to teach them new ways of looking a life, thinking through things and it would be a shame if I didn't pass on those skills to those kids. (Study Two Participant 1)

In terms of values related to the school students some participants noted that the teaching of philosophy clearly linked to and helped with the values education aspect.

I suppose linking to values...they [the students] think around their behaviours and so on...What they're discussing and thinking – that intellectual process – that is happening apparently in the playgrounds and so also gets acted out. So they don't just leave it in the classroom, it is not just a content thing but they apply it in their own lives and I suppose at home. (Study Two Participant 15)

Another noted that Philosophy in the Classroom helped with the students learning to value others and their opinions.

They're learning to value each person's opinion...whereas how often in a Maths lesson or something do people yell out,,,,, carry on like crazy. And with that they value each other...And how often does that happen in another class setting? (Study Two Participant 12)

One participant commented that philosophy was helpful in terms of discussing issues that might be arising in the classroom or schools such as bullying, or in this instance stealing:

If you've got issues with the kids you can use philosophy to deal with them rather than get the kid and say, 'You stole blah blah blah.' You can do the stealing lesson and battle it out holistically rather than single one person out and then everyone can understand and come to same understanding of what stealing is and how it makes people feel, and I really like that. (Study Two Participant 19)

Discussion relating to values. The fact that the participants noted that this was the first time, at least for some of them, that they had had a chance to reflect on their own values and beliefs and how this related to their classroom teaching was significant in terms of developing quality teachers. The ability to understand one's self and how this effects one's teaching is crucial with empirical studies highlighting that "teachers cannot separate their own moral character from their professional self" (Tirri, 2010, p. 154). Despite this fact, the personal is often an overlooked aspect of pre-service teacher education programmes (Shoffner, 2009).

Larrivee (2000, p. 298) notes that self-reflection is a complex process and not one that can be prescribed according to a formula, "rather it is a process that allows insights to surface which serve to challenge our familiar behaviour patterns. It is more a way of knowing than knowing how". Perhaps the learning of Philosophy in the Classroom as a pedagogical tool can assist with this self-reflection as noted by some participants in Study Two Time 2. The opportunity to explicitly discuss and reflect on core values, attitudes and beliefs is a critical aspect of self-reflection (Larrivee, 2000). According to Larrivee's (2000) model a core belief is the fundamental level and it is from this level that one's underlying principles, daily practices and decisions are made, hence highlighting the fact that an understanding of

one's core's beliefs or philosophy is crucial to quality teaching. Certainly a link between critical self-reflection and quality teaching and development of professional identity is evident and indeed fundamental (Hanson, 2011; Larrivee, 2000; Shoffner, 2009).

Participants' Thoughts on the Subject FE3

In addition to the questions concerning the five quality teaching dimensions, Study Two Time 2 participants were also asked to discuss whether or not they thought Philosophy in the Classroom as a particular pedagogical tool was beneficial and whether their learnings from the subject FE3 would be beneficial in terms of their future teaching practice. These two questions were only asked in this aspect of the study, with their aim being to determine if a values-explicit pedagogy and focus for a subject was indeed beneficial in terms of developing better quality teachers.

Overwhelmingly the response from Study Two Time 2's participants in terms of the benefits of Philosophy in the Classroom as a pedagogical tool was positive with responses such as:

I'm really excited about going out and giving it a go. I talked to my prac teacher about it and [she] kind of looked at me like I'd been on drugs or something (laughter). I think I sounded like a philosophy junkie by the time I had finished (Study Two Participant 4).

Some participants commented specifically on how this subject had helped them to really improve their questioning skills.

The questions do help you to guide their discussions. Like I know if I was talking about fractions or something like that with the kids and I could use the same questions to get them to a deeper understanding of fractions. I don't think you just have to use it in a philosophy lesson. Like 'Can you clarify what you mean by that?', 'Have you got an example of that?' (Study Two Participant 13).

Whilst the responses were positive, there were concerns raised by many of the study's participants that because they had not physically and practically engaged in a community of inquiry this caused some concern about whether or not it would actually work for them. "We're learning about it but until you see something you might not necessarily believe it" (Study Two Participant 12), and;

I think in theory it's very exciting seeing what it can do and you know where it can take the kids and stuff. But without actually having done it myself and experiencing it, I don't know yet what I think of it. I think when I do it successfully and I can see something happening I will probably be very convinced (Study Two Participant 1).

I think it's given us the tools but until we actually try this out I'm not quite sure how it's going to go (Study Two Participant 16).

There was certainly a strong element of hesitation among some participants, usually tied up with a fear that the people they had spoken with and who taught them the philosophy pedagogy were very experienced and they did not have this experience and maybe never would.

I think the examples that we saw and the people that we heard from are very experienced in it so it makes it sound like it's very natural and very easy, so I'm just not sure (Study Two Participant 1).

The participants were also asked whether or not they decide to utilise Philosophy in the Classroom as a specific subject with their future students, was the subject FE3 of benefit to them. Again, there was an overwhelming positive response to this, with only one pre-service teacher saying it had made no difference to his teaching.

Even if you didn't teach a philosophical concept you could always take the questioning techniques, the ways to facilitate a discussion, how to structure their thinking, you can take all of that I think (Study Two Participant 13).

Doing this subject has kind of made us better teachers (Study Two Participant 22).

One participant noted that unlike their other education subjects this one was not focused on content but on skills and he found this valuable.

A lot of our other lessons we're always focussing on the content that we're teaching, whereas with philosophy we're focussing more on their reasoning skills. Just the way that they think – we're really focussing on the thinking aspect (Study Two Participant 13).

Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of Study Two Time 1 and Time 2. This study involved participants in the Bachelor of Education primary programme subject FE3 at Time 1, which was before the start of the semester subject and, Time 2, which was at the completion of the 10 week semester unit. Similarly to the previous chapter (Chapter Four), this chapter was organised under the quality teaching model of intellectual quality, supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference, connectedness, and values. Each of these was discussed, firstly in Time 1 and then followed by Time 2 responses. In addition, at the end of Time 2 a report of participants' thoughts on the subject was included to determine the effectiveness of this subject in relation to quality teaching.

Considering all the quality teaching dimensions discussed in this study – intellectual quality, supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference, connectedness and values – it appears that the explicit teaching of a values-based pedagogical tool, in this case Philosophy in the Classroom, does have a positive impact on pre-service teachers and their growth in knowledge and skills related to quality teaching. In all five dimensions, positive comments were made by the participants in terms of how philosophy provided them with tangible ways of helping to implement quality teaching practices with their future students.

In comparing non-values explicit subjects with a values explicit one (such as FE3) has allowed for some findings regarding the possible benefits of introducing pre-service teachers to values-explicit pedagogy in order to improve their knowledge, skills and practice in the dimensions of quality teaching. Whilst these findings will be discussed in detail in Chapter Seven, some brief points have been made in this chapter.

Study Two Time 2 participants noted and discussed all elements within the PP dimension of intellectual quality (higher-order thinking; deep knowledge and deep understanding; knowledge as problematic; substantive conversation, and; metalanguage), as opposed to Study One and Study Two Time 1 participants only discussing three of the five elements. Overall, it could be determined that the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy had provided the participants with increased

questioning skills, amongst other skills, which allowed them to feel more confident and able in supporting and developing their future students' intellectual quality.

Similarly to Study One, participants in Study Two also noted the importance of relationships and connections in developing and maintaining a supportive learning environment. In particular it was noted that philosophy had provided them with effective tools in managing a supportive learning environment. Specifically the students mentioned the rules and formatting of a community of inquiry; the emphasis given to listening and valuing others' opinions; the value-based discussions; and increased student self-regulation and self-esteem that results from philosophy, as being beneficial in terms of a supportive learning environment.

Recognition of difference was yet again, as in Study One, linked to inclusivity and diversity by the participants. It appears, from this study's findings that an explicit values-based subject, did have a positive effect on helping pre-service teachers develop skills to help their future students recognise and value difference. More so than Study One and Study Two Time 1, Study Two Time 2 participants noted they had increased confidence in dealing with diversity. They argued that the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy had given them a valuable tool in terms of discussing controversial and value-based topics with their students. The participants also felt confident that the students could become more accepting of others different from themselves as a result of participating in a philosophical based community of inquiry.

Unlike the previous study, lifelong learning became a focus of the discussion on connectedness. The pre-service teachers seemed particularly delighted that Philosophy in the Classroom seemed to give them specific tools that they could use to develop their future students' skills in developing skills and a passion for lifelong learning. The other strong component of connectedness that emerged though an engagement in the subject FE3 was the assistance it appeared to give the pre-service teachers in finding ways to help students connect different components of the curriculum as well as to outside the classroom.

Lastly, under the values dimension, the participants spoke of the chance they had in this subject to reflect on their own values and beliefs and how this might impact on their teaching. Thus enhancing their level of critical self-reflection, which in turn leads to better professional identity and quality teaching characteristics (Larrivee, 2000; Shoffner, 2009).

Overall, the participants spoke in positive terms of the values-explicit subject FE3 and determined that it had been beneficial; that it had increased their skills and confidence in demonstrating the quality teaching dimensions, and; regardless of whether they would actually utilise Philosophy in the Classroom as a subject with their future students, it had provided them with a valuable pedagogical tool that would assist them in becoming quality teachers. The one significant problem that was raised by Study Two's participants was that while their experience had been positive it was hindered by the fact that for the vast majority they still felt unsure as to the depth of the subject's usefulness given they had not had opportunity to physically and actively engage with the philosophy within a community of inquiry. This is addressed in the following chapter which reports on Study Three where I follow five participants throughout the course of their semester and I interview them after their field experiences where they had the opportunity to teach philosophy lessons with their students.

Chapter 6: **Study Three**

Overview

This chapter will present data collected from five third year Bachelor of Education pre-service teachers. This study is presented as a nested case study within the broader case study of the subject FE3, which was detailed in Chapter Five. The purpose of Study Three was to explore the journeys of five individual pre-service teachers as they engaged in the values explicit subject FE3 and took their learning into their field experience. Whilst Study Two demonstrated a change in pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching as a result of engaging with a values explicit pedagogy, such as Philosophy in the Classroom, with a sample of pre-service teachers, this was more general and did not include their experiences of actually teaching a philosophy lesson whilst on their field experience. The aim of Study Three therefore, was to follow five students during the semester and to talk with them after the semester unit had been completed and they had returned from their field experiences. The benefit of utilising a nested study is that a nested design will allow for a foundation for conclusions and generalisations that may often be difficult if only examining a single case (Gondo, Amis, & Vardaman, 2009).

The principal research questions addressed in Study Three are:

1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?
2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?

Table 6.1
Overview of Research Programme Highlighting Study Three

Study	Time	Research Question	Participants
One	Semester Two, 2009	1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers? 2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?	21 (19 female + 2 male) Fourth Year Bachelor of Education students
Two	Semester Two, 2010 <i>Time 1</i> – prior to commencement of subject FE3 (Week 1) <i>Time 2</i> – post course content and delivery of subject FE3 (Week 10-11)	1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers? 2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?	Third Year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme students enrolled in subject FE3. <i>Time 1</i> – 11 (10 female + 1 male) <i>Time 2</i> – 18 (14 female + 4 male) 22 (18 female + 4 male) in total as 7 participants were the same in <i>Time 1</i> and <i>Time 2</i> .
Three	Semester Two, 2010 <i>Time 1</i> - prior to commencement of subject FE3 (Week 1) <i>Time 2</i> – post course content and delivery of subject FE3 (Week 10-11) <i>Time 3</i> – post field experience (Week 16)	1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers? 2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching?	5 female Third Year Bachelor of Education – Primary Programme students enrolled in subject FE3.

Method

Participants

The participants in this current study were third year Bachelor of Education pre-service teachers from an Australian (Queensland) university with a large pre-service teacher education programme. A total of five female pre-service teachers participated in Study Three. The participants of this study were in Semester Two of their third year in their Bachelor of Education programme and were engaging in a compulsory core field experience unit (FE3) at the time of this study. All five participants in Study Three were also participants in Study Two Time 1 and Study Two Time 2. The participants have been provided with pseudonyms to protect their identities.

Table 6.2

Study Three Participants

Pseudonym for Study Three	Study Two Identification
Aurora	Participant 4
Betty	Participant 2
Clara	Participant 1
Dot	Participant 9
Eliza	Participant 7

Aurora

Aurora is a mature age student. Her field experience occurred in a government primary school situated in a low socio-economic area of a metropolitan city in South-East Queensland. The school's population contains 16% Indigenous students and 32% English as a Second Language (ESL) students, with the majority of the population (68%) falling into the bottom quarter in terms of socio-economic status (ACARA, 2010).

Betty

Betty is a mature age student in her 30s with two young children. Her field experience occurred in a government school's Year Two classroom situated in the far north of the State. The school's population was mainly Indigenous (97%) students with the majority (87%) also ESL students (ACARA, 2010).

Clara

Clara is also a mature age student in her 30s. Clara's field experience occurred in a Year One classroom in a government primary school in a low socio-economic area (66% in the bottom quarter) of a large metropolitan city in South-East Queensland, with 8% of the student population being Indigenous and 14% being ESL students (ACARA, 2010).

Dot

Dot entered her current Bachelor of Education programme immediately after completing Year 12. Her field experience occurred in a Year Five/Six classroom in a government primary school in a rural town in the central-west of New South Wales. This particular school's population included 19% Indigenous students with 4% of the students coming from a non-English speaking background with 55% being in the bottom socio-economic quarter (ACARA, 2010).

Eliza

Eliza, like Dot, also came to university straight after completing high school. Her field experience occurred in a government primary school in a large metropolitan city in South-East Queensland, in a Year Two classroom. In terms of socio-economic status, this school was the most affluent out of all five with only 17% of the school's population being in the bottom quarter and 42% in the top quarter (ACARA, 2010). The Indigenous population of the school is minimal with 1%, but a fairly substantial ESL population of 21% (ACARA, 2010).

Procedure

The procedure for collecting data for Study Three was very straight forward as the participants in this study had already participated in Study Two Time 1 and Time 2. In total there were seven pre-service teachers who had participated in the Times 1 and 2 phases of Study Two. All seven were approached via email during and after their field experience to seek their participation in one final individual interview focusing on the experiences they encountered on their field experience with a particular focus on their philosophy lesson/s and quality teaching. Five out of the seven participants responded affirmatively. Consent forms were included as part of their participation in Study Two.

The interviews took place with four of the participants in a meeting room at university at a time that was convenient for them. The fifth participant met me for the interview at a cafe close to her home residence as this was more convenient for her. Once again the participants were informed that the interview would be audio recorded. The interviews took place within two weeks of the participants having completed their four week field experience placement in which they all taught at least one philosophy lesson. As stated earlier these individual interviews were more casual than the previous focus groups as it was one on one and also a rapport had been developed between me and the participants during their previous two interviews. The interviews were not as structured as in Study One and Study Two but questions used to guide the conversation are included in Appendix J.

Analysis of Data

I undertook the same procedure for the analysis of the interview data as used in Studies One and Two, which was following Marshall and Rossman's (2006) approach of organising the data; immersion in the data; generating categories and themes; coding the data; offering interpretations; searching for alternative understandings, and writing up of the report.

Similar to the previous two studies, I transcribed the tapes verbatim, which allowed me a valuable opportunity to become fully immersed in the dialogue of the participants (Patton, 2002). As in the previous two studies I categorised the data into the four quality teaching dimensions of intellectual quality, supportive learning environment, recognition of difference and, connectedness, as well as a fifth category of values and dispositions. In Study Three however, the focus was on the pre-service teachers' recent field experiences and the teaching of philosophy to their students.

My purpose in conducting Study Three was to track the changes of individual pre-service teachers throughout the course of the subject FE3 from prior to beginning the subject to the end of their field experience which occurred post the completion of the subject. A result of this aim was that I did not generate new categories and themes but rather focused on how the participants had changed in terms of their beliefs surrounding quality teaching to determine the role field experience played in their development.

Results and Discussion

The remainder of this chapter will be spent reporting on the five participants and discussing the changes regarding quality teaching and the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom. Once again the results and discussion will be presented under the quality teaching model. The purpose of Study Three was to track individual's progression throughout the subject FE3 and was particularly concerned with the impact that field experience and the practical application of a Philosophy in the Classroom lesson may or may not have had upon the participants' progression in their quality teaching journey.

Intellectual Quality

In the intellectual quality dimension of quality teaching the elements are: higher-order thinking; deep knowledge and deep understanding; knowledge as problematic; substantive conversation and metalanguage.

Findings Relating to Intellectual Quality

As noted in Study Two, differences could certainly be observed in the participants' confidence in and understanding of intellectual quality from Time 1 to Time 2. These changes can be attributed to the participants' introduction to the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom in their FE3 subject. Time 3 interviews, which occurred post field experience, indicate the important role that engaging practically with Philosophy in the Classroom played in the ways the participants understood and felt confident in helping their students improve their intellectual quality. The changes are summarised in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to Intellectual Quality across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3

Participant	Time 1 Prior to Commencing Subject	Time 2 After Completion of Subject	Time 3 Post Field Experience
Aurora	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Related to teaching strategies • Confident 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not teacher directed • Justification important 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Despite students' academic results some students can excel in philosophy discussions and have an opportunity to demonstrate intellectual quality
Betty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Defined as looking at a topic broadly • Confidence related to KLA and curriculum content 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Philosophy provided greater depth of understanding in how to better prepare students • Reduces teacher talk 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Noted how philosophy allowed students to develop substantive conversation skills • Believes extending students' intellectual quality can be achieved through philosophy
Clara	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questioning, authentic learning, critical thinking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Another tool in teacher's kit • Skills in philosophy can be adopted to other ways of thinking outside the classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students' deep level responses surprised her • Believed practice in philosophy would improve students' intellectual quality
Dot	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge does not have to be fixed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students responses at first shallow but deepened with practice
Eliza	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not confident 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impressed with metalanguage and higher order thinking she saw happening as a result of philosophy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Noted higher-order aspect of philosophy went well in classroom • Ideal way to challenge brighter students

The participants noted that the pedagogy of philosophy gave them the tools to better engage their students with the intellectual quality criteria of higher-order thinking: “it’s the kids coming up with the ideas and building on each others’ ideas” (Aurora); substantive conversation:

Because they don’t have a lot of practice doing lengthy oral responses to have really long oral interaction in standard Australian English...that’s what they need to improve their speaking and listening. So I think doing it in that sort of format...would be better (Betty);

knowledge as problematic:

we’ve got to think about it in a completely different way and developing their justification skills and things so that they’re reasoning within themselves and that’s kind of questioning how they view the world as well (Dot);

and deep understanding:

Like there was one girl that doesn’t speak two words and she got the ball and she said, we were talking about when do people change or something like that, and she said, ‘You know adults change and it might not be what they want but it’s just because they have to work and they have to look after the kids and they have to clean the house – that they don’t have time, the time to do things they want so they are forced to change.’ And out of little Grade One’s mouth and I thought wow! (Clara).

While the participants were told about philosophy and saw videos of children engaging in philosophy lessons, until they experienced it for themselves whilst on field experience they didn’t really understand its potential in terms of developing intellectual quality. In relation to this, they also noted that the actual successful utilisation of Philosophy in the Classroom requires practice.

You could see like sort of a light starting to shine and...the odd kid say something really deep and philosophical...the potential’s there (Clara).

Discussion Regarding Intellectual Quality

Upon examining the progression of the students which can be seen at a glimpse in Table 6.3, it can be noted that the participants’ understanding of intellectual quality was enhanced by the subject FE3 and by their practical experience of teaching philosophy lessons to students on their field experience. At Time 1, the

participants discussed intellectual quality in terms of teaching strategies; questioning; looking at a topic broadly, authentic learning, connectedness and critical thinking. Whilst some of these terms broadly align with the PP definition of intellectual quality, overall the participants did not deeply understand the rigour of intellectual quality in terms of quality teaching. By Time 2 after their subject FE3 with its focus on Philosophy in the Classroom as a pedagogy, the participants identified knowledge as problematic, metalanguage, and higher-order thinking as being significant in terms of quality teaching. All these elements are criteria of the intellectual quality dimension and none were previously addressed in Time 1 by the participants. To these elements, in Time 3 the participants added substantive conversation and deep knowledge and deep understanding to the terminology used in relation to intellectual quality. So by the end of their experiences the participants had identified and were more confident in discussing and implementing aspects of the quality teaching dimension of intellectual quality.

Research into teacher education and the role of purposeful, integrated field experiences notes the importance of providing pre-service teachers with opportunities to test new ideas and theories raised in university coursework and to try out practices advocated by their teacher educators (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). The field experience placement following the subject FE3 was such a time provided to the pre-service teachers. The pre-service teachers' learnings in FE3 were explicitly linked to their field experience in that it was a part of the FE3 subject. In addition a compulsory core aspect of the assessment for this subject for the pre-service teachers was to teach a minimum of one philosophy lesson while on field experience. Seeing it in practice for themselves clearly added to their pedagogical knowledge and confidence as highlighted by Clara's comment that she was surprised by the quality of student responses in terms of the depth of their thinking during a philosophy lesson.

It appears from the participants' responses in Study Three that they linked the depth of intellectual quality attributed to the use of philosophy as a pedagogical tool very closely with the use of substantive conversation in a community of inquiry (COI). All five participants commented on the COI they participated in with their students and all noted the element of substantive conversation and the important role they saw this playing in the students' development. The role of talk is certainly

widely recognised as being crucial to a child's cognitive development (see for example Vygotsky, 1962), and a resurgence of interest in the role of dialogic teaching has been witnessed in research in education, particularly primary education in recent years (Smith, 2010). Dialogic teaching is defined by Robin Alexander (2008, as cited in Smith, 2010, p. 52) as collective, reciprocal, supportive, cumulative and purposeful. The COI model within Philosophy in the Classroom fulfils all these criteria of dialogic teaching and was noted by the participants in this present study as assisting students' intellectual quality as well as helping to establish a more respectful, supportive and inclusive learning environment.

A Supportive Classroom Environment

A supportive classroom environment in the quality teaching dimension includes such things as giving students clear direction in their work; providing social support for all students; ensuring students are academically engaged; providing explicit quality performance criteria, and; developing self-regulated learners.

Findings Relating to a Supportive Classroom Environment

The findings in Study Three relating to a supportive classroom environment demonstrate that the changes in the participants were not as marked as they were in relation to intellectual quality. This is not surprising given that the data from the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study observed that the supportive classroom environment dimension out of all four quality teaching dimensions was the one teachers felt most comfortable in and also scored the highest (The University of Queensland, 2001). Small changes can be noted however and these are summarised in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4

Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to a Supportive Classroom Environment across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3

Participant	Time 1 Prior to Commencing Subject	Time 2 After Completion of Subject	Time 3 Post Field Experience
Aurora	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students should be able to feel comfortable to share responses and thoughts • Didn't believe you could prepare for this dimension of quality teaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Noted how philosophy was supposed to help reduce bullying 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioural problems such as talking over top of others was eliminated in a philosophy lesson. • Students who normally didn't participate became involved in a philosophy lesson
Betty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A place where everyone's opinion is valued • Feels prepared to teach and implement this 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Philosophy has cemented previous learnings from other subjects in this dimension 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helpful in terms of respecting other's opinions.
Clara	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Important to build strong relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Could increase students' confidence in discussing things • Improved student self-regulation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saw that the rules of a COI allowed for good discussion and students respecting each other • A big difference to one intellectually impaired student in the field experience class
Dot	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishing rules in consultation with students • Respect for others • Feels reasonably prepared but sees there are no hard and fast rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • COI rules helpful 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good in terms of building understandings
Eliza	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making all students feel important and included 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saw COI as allowing for discussion and difference of opinion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Had troubles with behaviour management with this class and she felt philosophy helped her to improve this

The idea of creating an environment where students felt safe, supported, respected and valued seemed to be paramount to the participants when discussing the dimension of a supportive classroom environment. Following their introduction to Philosophy in the Classroom in the lectures and upon seeing it themselves on field experience they realised that this pedagogical tool provided them as teachers with an ideal tool for creating such an environment. Aurora commented on the fact that philosophy supposedly reduced instances of bullying in schools: “it’s cut down on the whole bullying aspect I think in schools because they’re engaging in productive discussions”.

This procedural element of a COI was also noted by the participants in terms of helping students listen to and respect each other, which in turn assisted with behaviour management problems.

I guess it reinforces that understanding that everyone needs a set of rules or guidelines...I think children appreciate rules (Betty).

The calling out was a really big issue and I really honed on that for the four weeks that I was there...And through the philosophy lesson that really helped as well (Eliza).

They were really good you know at having those rules of respect and appreciating each other and accepting each other (Clara).

I think it was the only time they actually stopped and listened to each other instead of talking over the top of each other, cause they loved the idea of having that ball (Aurora).

This procedural element had other benefits for the participants too, in that they observed that students’ respect for each other increased and that this was not just limited to philosophy lessons in the classroom:

They were getting really good at doing the whole I love what you had to say, or I like the idea. They learnt very quickly that you don’t disagree with the person you disagree with the idea and they were telling their friends about that at lunch and that’s not how we talk. So I can see how that would filter out into the playground and stuff like that (Clara).

The other benefit of Philosophy in the Classroom in terms of developing and maintaining a supportive classroom environment that the participants noted was that children who were normally very quiet and did not participate in class discussions seemed to be more willing to be actively involved in the philosophy lesson.

Because it's a circle and you're trying to encourage, it doesn't matter what you say. I tried to say that to some of the girls that were quiet there's no right or wrong answer just say what makes you feel good and I did get them to say some things (Betty).

Aurora commented on the fact that her mentor teacher, who was initially very much against the philosophy approach, was impressed with this aspect:

I think she quite enjoyed the fact that a lot of the kids who don't normally participate actually did, and had fairly valid things to say. I think they felt okay to speak up and she was quite impressed with some of the conversations going on.

Discussion Regarding a Supportive Classroom Environment

In their Time 1 interviews the participants noted that they wanted their classrooms to be: supportive, in that the students would feel comfortable in sharing responses; a place where everyone's opinions were valued; a place where good strong relationships were formed and maintained; a place where everyone respected each other; a place where all students felt important and included, and; a place where rules were seen as being important. The pre-service teachers' learnings and practice in regard to Philosophy in the Classroom seemed to fulfil these desires they had for their supportive classroom environment. They noted that behavioural problems such as students not listening to each other or in other words not respecting everyone were eliminated in the COI and difficulties with classroom management seemed to improve after the first philosophy lesson with the students. They noted relationships improved and this extended beyond the actual philosophy lesson to the playground. It was also noted by the participants that students who were not normally engaged or were shy and did not contribute much became more involved in the philosophy lessons.

Whilst the participants all clearly described their vision of a supportive classroom environment in Time 1, two participants commented that a teacher couldn't really prepare for this quality teaching dimension and only one participant

stated that she felt confident and prepared to implement her ideal supportive classroom environment. However, despite this perceived reluctance and unpreparedness, all five participants noted that the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy equipped them with the tools for being able to develop and maintain a supportive learning environment. For a COI to be effective a procedural element is put in place by the community and strictly adhered to. This ensures that all members listen carefully to each other, that each member builds upon one another's ideas, that disagreements are explored respectfully and constructively, and that all members are open-minded and willing to change their opinion if faced with convincing evidence and reasons (Cam et al., 2007). This information about the procedural elements was discussed with the pre-service teachers in the subject FE3, it was reiterated in their textbook – *Philosophy with young children: A classroom handbook* (Cam et al., 2007) and they were provided with audio-visual snippets from taped philosophy lessons with students to give them practical ideas such as the use of a speaking ball, and reminders about the rules. This stood the pre-service teachers in good stead and perhaps contributed to the success they had in terms of the supportive classroom environment dimension during their field experiences.

Recognition of Difference

Within this quality teaching dimension the elements are: cultural knowledge; inclusivity; narratives; group identities in a learning community; active citizenship and global education.

Findings Relating to Recognition of Difference

The understanding of this dimension, and confidence in it, certainly changed for the participants over the course of the subject FE3 and their field experience as evidenced from Table 6.5.

Table 6.5

Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to Recognition of Difference across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3

Participant	Time 1 Prior to Commencing Subject	Time 2 After Completion of Subject	Time 3 Post Field Experience
Aurora	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Didn't feel prepared in catering for diverse learning needs especially in terms of physical difference. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Philosophy can provide a good way for students to talk about difference without judgement being passed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whilst the ideal might be for no judgement in her lesson the students displayed prejudice towards Moslems but after further discussion they started to question themselves and their first responses.
Betty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More contemporary authentic resources are needed in classrooms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saw that philosophy could help with students learning to respect others opinions both through the topic under discussion as well as the process of inquiry and procedure in a COI 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No comment on this dimension
Clara	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does not feel comfortable or confident in teaching or dealing with controversial issues in the classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Will help students learning to respect others' opinions and to respect difference 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One intellectually impaired student in the class came to be more appreciated and valued after their philosophy lesson
Dot	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feels fairly prepared with different learning styles and needs but not physical differences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gives the students opportunities to explore different people and beliefs and come to be more accepting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No comment on this dimension
Eliza	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Associated with cultural difference 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Now identified it as more than cultural awareness. • Recognised connections between recognition of difference and intellectual quality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less focus on cultural difference as in Time 1 and talked about utilising visuals and flash cards in her philosophy lesson to cater for students with reading difficulties.

While initially the participants noted difference in terms of learning styles and needs, after their introduction to philosophy as a pedagogy they changed to firstly identifying this dimension in terms of more cultural difference and difference of beliefs and opinions. They identified that the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy provided the students with opportunities to be more accepting and inclusive of differences.

The kids can explore things like different people and they can see alright well if someone's different does it necessarily make them bad? And they can explore that (Dot).

It's like the kids are bringing in their own background knowledge and they're opening communications with each other without anybody making a judgement (Aurora).

So whilst the ideal might be for Philosophy in the Classroom to be a pedagogical tool in helping acceptance of difference, it does not mean it will happen immediately, but will occur over time and with repeated practice. This is demonstrated by Aurora's experience with her philosophy activity on whether one can judge an individual merely by looking at them.

I had a few photographs that I took in and one of them was a guy with a hood up and it was quite dark and I was kind of showing it to them and as I was putting it on the carpet in the middle of the room one of them shouts out, 'Oh, that's a Muslim!' And the next thing I knew there's another kid going, 'Oh, Muslims are really bad' (Aurora).

Aurora reported that the discussion began to get quite heated and it was obvious there was quite a lot of prejudice towards Muslims. So Aurora intervened, as she explains in her own words:

There was another little kid there who had a hoodie on, so I said put your hood up for a sec and so I said, 'Are you a Muslim?' And he has gone no, then I said, 'Why is this man a Muslim?' And they've gone, 'Oh!' So yeah it made them think (Aurora).

Aurora's experience with her field experience class demonstrates how students can start to think about difference in others maybe outside of the immediate

classroom, whilst Clara's experience demonstrates how it can be of benefit to individual students who may be different within the actual class itself.

We had one II [intellectually impaired] boy and no one would give him the time of day, wouldn't talk to him, he got teased quite a bit and he was the one they actually laughed at (Clara).

Through her philosophy lessons Clara and her mentor teacher encouraged this intellectually impaired student to contribute to the discussion and she noted that:

His classmates started to look at him in a different way and he actually formed some friendships. In my last week there, there were a couple who invited him over to play on Friday and you know he had to go off to the Special Ed. Unit to play at lunch time but he was starting to say, 'I want to play with my new friends now.' So I don't know if it was directly linked to it but we were giving them opportunities to try and appreciate him and know that he was just as valued as they were (Clara).

Discussion Regarding Recognition of Difference

This dimension was probably given the least attention in the interviews out of all the dimensions by the participants. Their immediate thoughts on the dimension of recognition of difference were associated with diversity in terms of different learning styles and needs; physical disabilities and cultural diversity. Three out of the five participants commented in Time 1 that they did not feel prepared to deal with some aspect/s of this dimension in their teaching. By Time 2 after the university component of FE3 the participants noted that Philosophy in the Classroom could provide them with a way for getting students to talk about difference and controversial issues without judgement being passed. They also noted that it gave the students opportunities to explore differences in people and beliefs and as a result come to be more respectful and accepting of others. So the pedagogical tool they had been provided with gave them increased confidence in dealing with difference, inclusivity and controversial issues within their classrooms, though Aurora noted after her field experience philosophy lessons that whilst FE3 had given her the pedagogical tool this was not always going to be easy and would take much practice with the students for them to adapt their thinking.

Whilst the students did not specifically use the Productive Pedagogies' terminology of "group identities in a learning community" this was exactly what

Betty was referring to when she noted that Philosophy in the Classroom taught students respect and the valuing of difference in two ways: (1) though the actual topic being discussed in the COI, and (2) the procedure of a COI. The COI itself, like any community, is made up of individuals, and thus differences will naturally exist as each individual in the community possesses a unique identity. One of the roles of education is to incorporate two dimensions in relation to this: (1) to help young people develop a sense of who they are, and (2) how they can do this in a more ideal world (Splitter, 2007). In a community of inquiry students learn to think *for* themselves through the process of thinking *with* others, thus the COI is relational in that the individual's identity and values is intrinsically bound to the identity and value of all other members of the community (Splitter, 2007). Splitter (2007) goes on to argue that it is the dialogic aspect of a COI that is crucial in bridging barriers that might exist between individuals – the only way forward “is to engage in dialogue which both attempts strenuously to persuade, and respects the other sufficiently to self-correct if given reasons to do so” (p. 273). Thus, as Betty observed, the form and procedure of a COI intrinsically leads to respecting and valuing of others and difference.

Connectedness

Connectedness refers to the engagement and connection of students and their learning beyond the classroom and school to the local community, wider community and beyond.

Findings Relating to Connectedness

Similarly to the supportive classroom environment, changes in the participants' understanding of and confidence in connectedness were not marked as demonstrated in table 6.6.

Table 6.6

Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to Connectedness across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3

Participant	Time 1 Prior to Commencing Subject	Time 2 After Completion of Subject	Time 3 Post Field Experience
Aurora	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identified this dimension as bringing things in from everywhere and making connections to these for the students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saw philosophy being a way of bringing in big issues and big questions into the classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Noted that the students didn't necessarily make connections between issues discussed in philosophy and to their own lives.
Betty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Important to connect to real world activities and students' own lives Saw ICT as being beneficial in helping with this – felt confident in this aspect of using ICTs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saw philosophy as a way of making connections to the students' own lives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saw it connecting to their lives as well as helping them as a future adult in society
Clara	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saw ICTs as being helpful in making connections 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not comment on this dimension 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Did not comment on this dimension
Dot	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Important to make connections with local community and further afield – even with another class in another class through using an ICT tool like Skype 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saw philosophy as being useful in helping students make connections to real life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saw philosophy as a way of helping students connect with other as a class
Eliza	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making connections to outside the classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Changed her idea about connectedness and now saw it as more connecting to lifelong learning and skills. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saw philosophy as connecting to what the students were learning in the classroom in other subjects.

The participants noted that philosophy allowed for connections to be made to the children's own lives and to real life.

In philosophy inquiry...you're asking children to discuss a topic but not in an abstract...you need to encourage them to back that up...So they're connecting to their own life or something they've seen or heard about (Betty).

Connecting what's being spoken about to real life occurrences and having the kids reflect on things that have already happened in their lives and thinking about it in a different way (Dot).

Whilst this might be the ideal, as with the recognition of difference dimension, the students will not always, at least initially, make connections between their learnings and discussions in philosophy lessons to other aspects of their lives, even within the classroom. This is noted by Aurora:

There's one about having a neighbour or somebody sit next to you in class and somebody has six pencils or something and you take one of them – 'Is that stealing?' And they're all going, 'Yes!' And I go it happens every day in here [the classroom], so why?

Discussion Regarding Connectedness

With regard to the elements of background knowledge and connectedness to the world, the participants' field experience (Time 3) appeared to further reinforce their thoughts which they first expressed in Time 2. Overall the participants' progression in this particular quality teaching dimension was not one of large change. Connectedness to the world and utilising students' background knowledge were identified as being important prior to FE3 in Time 1 and this importance did not change but was mentioned by participants in all of Times, 1, 2, and 3. While they did observe that philosophy helped with these elements and that it was a great way of connecting to real life and to their future as adults in society, none of the participants noted how Philosophy in the Classroom could have helped with the other elements of connectedness such as a problem-based curriculum and knowledge integration.

Burgh and O'Brien (2002) discuss how Philosophy in the Classroom can be integrated into the key learning areas (KLAs) within a curriculum. In connecting philosophy to the curriculum, Burgh and O'Brien identify that a philosophical approach contributes to an "embodiment of lifelong learning and transformative

thinking” (Burgh & O'Brien, 2002, p. 45). When the procedural and substantive nature of philosophy is brought into all areas of the curriculum it encourages students to make reasoned judgments; to explore philosophical issues relating to a wide variety of subject and curriculum content; to express points of view; to construct and validate arguments; to make judgments based upon scholarly thinking; to engage intellectually with the topic and; to engage in high quality dialogue with others (Burgh & O'Brien, 2002). Knight and Collins (2010) take this idea further arguing that the tools of philosophical inquiry, as opposed to merely utilising a KLA inquiry-based problem or a resource-based question will excite and motivate a child to understand the world and their place in it. So by using Philosophy in the Classroom as a pedagogical tool, the pre-service teachers are motivating their students to understand their connectedness to the world, utilising prior knowledge all within a problem, or inquiry, based curriculum.

Values

This dimension considers the importance of values, beliefs and attitudes and the role they play in the classroom and in developing characteristics of a quality teacher.

Findings Relating to Values

The changes in participants understanding of the values dimension of quality teaching are highlighted in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7

Changes in Participants' Understanding and Confidence in Relation to Values across the Semester as a Result of the Subject FE3

Participant	Time 1 Prior to Commencing Subject	Time 2 After Completion of Subject	Time 3 Post Field Experience
Aurora	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Believes being open-minded is an important value to have as a teacher 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Philosophy can help with life-long learning and values like respect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saw potential with philosophy in terms of a way of discussing values and beliefs in the classroom
Betty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-reflection is important • Social responsibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FE3 built on ideas she already had about how she wanted to teach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saw philosophy as a good way of discussing values and beliefs in the classroom
Clara	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She perceived that there was no time given at university to reflect on her own values and beliefs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Believed philosophy was a good pedagogical tool for her to have 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saw it as a good way of discussing values and beliefs in the classroom
Dot	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respect was important • Said her SOSE curriculum units had given her a chance to learn about values and the teaching of them • Dot was aware that her own values and beliefs would impact on her teaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did not comment on this dimension 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saw it as a good way of discussing values and beliefs in the classroom
Eliza	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respect was what Eliza wanted to develop with her students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The subject FE3 helped her strengthen her own beliefs and values and made her see things more clearly and more broadly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saw it as a good way of discussing values and beliefs in the classroom but acknowledged that not all philosophy lessons or stimulus books could do so. • Thought it might be easier with the higher grades in primary school

All participants commented that Philosophy in the Classroom gave them the tools for discussing values and beliefs within the classroom with their students:

I think that it would definitely help in...values and valuing others and bringing in diversity” (Dot).

Some of the participants noted this discussion of values and beliefs is very important, particularly when not all students would be receiving that instruction from their home lives.

It’s a very good way explicit way to develop their values...They might not have parents that want to sit down with them and talk about issues and stuff like that particularly in the schools we were in. So having that opportunity in the classroom to develop those is a good thing...it’s a very insightful way of doing it (Clara).

There’s certainly a lot of kids that maybe perhaps don’t have a strong foundation of that around them so I think on a whole that is certainly beneficial to explore those and to explore the depth and the variation and the idea that different people can have different ethical beliefs or different moral values and still be functioning in society quite normally (Aurora).

All participants commented in some way on the benefits in terms of values that occurred in their philosophy lessons and in some cases spilled over to other aspects of the class and even into the playground. Aurora noted that the students were more willing to listen to each other in philosophy than they were in other lessons:

it was the only time they actually stopped and listened to each other instead of talking over the top of each other (Aurora).

The participants observed that with this increased willingness to listen to each other came the notion of respect and respecting other’s opinions. Clara’s mentor teacher noted to Clara after a philosophy lesson that she was so surprised in hearing “the kids talk in a way I haven’t heard them talk”. This respect that Clara and her mentor teacher both noted happening in the COI also extended to the playground:

They were getting really good at doing the whole I love what you had to say, or I like the idea. They learnt very quickly that you don’t disagree with the person you disagree with the idea and they were telling their friends about

that at lunch and that's not how we talk. So I can see how that would filter out into the playground and stuff like that (Clara).

It was also observed that the students' motivation to learn was increased in philosophy:

She [mentor teacher] said they were so interested and so engaged. She said they had no idea of what was going on around them which they're normally looking out the window or trying to do everything else and she said it was good to see that (Clara).

In terms of the participants' own values and beliefs as a developing teacher, Dot noted that it was very important to be conscious of these as they would impact upon one's teaching practices:

I don't think anyone could say that their beliefs aren't going to influence the way they teach. Because you know I've got my own beliefs and obviously when I go into a classroom I'm not going in and just leave them at the door, it's going to become a whole part (Dot).

Aurora's comments also demonstrate that a teacher's values and beliefs are important and will be reflected in the classroom, even if this is an unconscious act.

I think if you've got someone who thinks if you're pretty open-minded about things and you're open to different perspectives I think that will come across in your teaching. So that's all good and well but if you've got somebody who thinks they are open-minded but isn't, then when they go out as teachers it is probably going to come out with a different result. So even though they might think that they are open...they're going to put their own values and ideas on the kids (Aurora).

Given the importance the participants attributed to understanding one's own values and beliefs and given some did not perceive that they had never been given this opportunity for explicit self-reflection in terms of values and beliefs and dispositions ("there really has been no room to be yourself in a sense" – Clara), they saw this subject being very worthwhile in this regard.

It's made me see that there are different angles for everything...it's broadened and I'm connecting a lot more, which is good (Eliza).

Discussion Regarding Values

Only one participant, Eliza, commented that she felt that this subject had helped to strengthen her own values and beliefs, but all five participants noted how Philosophy in the Classroom as a pedagogy was an ideal avenue for discussing values and beliefs in the classroom. As stated earlier in Chapter Two, schooling is about more than learning knowledge and skills; it is also about socialisation, wellbeing and values. Whilst there is continuing debate over whether values and ethics *can* be taught and *if* they should be taught at all (see for example D. H. Brown, 2007; B. V. Hill, 2004; Revell & Arthur, 2007; Veugelers & Vedder, 2003), it is becoming more explicit in government documents relating to education of young people. *The Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* states:

As well as knowledge and skills, a school's legacy to young people should include national values of democracy, equity and justice, and personal values and attributes such as honesty, resilience and respect for others (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs, 2008).

The VEGPSP adds support to this by confirming that values education was both important and 'right' and that it goes "to the very heart of what it is that teachers, schools and educational systems are about" (Bereznicki et al., 2008, p. 23).

In the Values Education Good Practice Schools Project (VEGPSP), numerous schools utilised the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom to improve school values education practices. The report from these schools noted that; children enjoyed the freedom to explore some of life's big questions; students' motivation to listen to each other was increased; children were more willing to share ideas and thoughts; children's respect and compassion for others increased; the students came to 'know' each other better; teachers reported less fighting and bad behaviour; and relationships in the classroom improved (Bereznicki et al., 2008). Whilst the participants in this study were only at their field experience schools for four weeks and only taught between one and three philosophy lessons, they still did observe, albeit on a much smaller scale, some similar findings to the VEGPSP. As noted in the findings above, the pre-service teachers noted that children were more willing to share ideas; the students were more willing to listen to each other; improvements in student-student relationships were observed.

Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of five pre-service teachers enrolled in the third year of their Bachelor of Education programme who were completing their field experience subject FE3, and who participated in Study Two, both Times 1 and 2, plus an interview following their four week field experience (Time 3). Similarly to the previous two chapters, the present chapter was organised under the quality teaching model with its dimensions of intellectual quality, supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference, connectedness, and values. Each of these dimensions was discussed, firstly by presenting a table briefly summarising each of the five participants' responses to the dimension over the three points in time which they were interviewed. By presenting a cross-section over time, this study identified changes which could be determined in the participants in terms of growth in their quality teaching skills and knowledge. Following these tables within each dimension the findings were then presented in more detail particularly focussing on the participant comments in Time 3 (post field experience) as it was these findings that separated Study Two from Study Three. The findings and discussion of the results from Study Three proved to be useful for this research programme in that by presenting five individual case studies which looked at individual progression from prior to the commencement of the subject FE3 right through to the completion of the subject including field experience, allowed for a solid examination of the impact of a values explicit subject on the formation of pre-service teachers' knowledge, skills and confidence in quality teaching dimensions.

Study Three has reinforced the findings of Study Two in that it has demonstrated, once again, that the teaching of Philosophy in the Classroom as a pedagogy enhances the participants' understanding of quality teaching. Study Three continued to go a step beyond this, by demonstrating that pre-service teachers' field experiences continue to build on this new-found knowledge and confidence by allowing them to practise it and to see it in action for themselves, thus further enhancing their quality teaching skills. Research demonstrates that "the learning of student teachers is only meaningful and powerful when it is *embedded in the experience* of learning to teach (F. Korthagen et al., 2006, p. 1030). From the five case studies presented here in Study Three, it appears that the pre-service teachers

became more positive towards the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom as a result of their practical field experience.

It's actually quite exciting really because I very much intend to do philosophy in my future classroom. But what's exciting to me is that you know to be able to do that from the beginning of the year and look forward to the time when you are gradually improving not only their behaviour but their responses and all those areas – intellectual quality, supportive classroom environment (Betty).

This occurred even if their mentor teachers were not supportive of the philosophy pedagogy, which is interesting given that research has demonstrated that when pre-service teachers' beliefs and aspirations are challenged by their mentors during field experience, ideas and beliefs that had been embraced during university coursework are often cast aside (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981). Thus it appears that for these five pre-service teachers the benefits that they themselves witnessed during the philosophy lessons they taught their students on field experience were of greater pull than any negative concerns raised by their mentor teachers.

Overall, the findings of Study Three have demonstrated that knowledge combined with practical application and practise in a values explicit pedagogy does help with pre-service teachers' knowledge and skill development in quality teaching dimensions as well as increasing their confidence in these.

Chapter 7: **Conclusions**

Overview

The aim of this final chapter is to review the research detailed in this thesis. I begin Chapter Seven by providing an overview of the research programme discussing its importance and relevance. I then proceed to discuss the major findings of the research programme. The findings of all the three studies are drawn together, so the overall picture and outcomes of the research programme can clearly be seen. Next, key contributions of the research to scholarship are outlined, as well as a discussion of the research programme's limitations. Finally, the chapter concludes with implications for further research and some recommendations for practitioners in pre-service teacher education.

Overview of the Research Programme

This research programme attempted to determine if the use of an explicit values pedagogy within a pre-service teacher education programme had a positive impact on enhancing the potential for quality teaching dimensions. An exploration of the research literature in Chapter Two on quality teaching, values education, and pre-service teacher education identified that there was a gap in the research concerning an explicit values education focus and links to quality teaching at the pre-service teacher education level. This demonstrated that the timing and value of this research programme was extremely pertinent given the importance of producing quality teachers for the improvement and advancement of quality education for Australian students. To my knowledge, there are no studies to date that focus on the role of an explicit values pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the influence this has on quality teaching. This is significant given that research has suggested that a values-based pedagogical approach to education assists students in becoming more self-knowledgeable, self-managing and reflective, and provides them with greater capacity in terms of academic diligence, perseverance and attainment (Toomey et al., 2010a). So, if teacher education programmes can provide pre-service teachers with values-based pedagogies that they can then implement in the classroom, it will provide the teachers with quality teaching skills and dispositions, which in turn provides students with better skills, knowledge and opportunities.

This present research programme defined a values explicit pedagogy as one that “incorporates the moral, social, emotional, physical, spiritual and intellectual aspects of human development” (Lovat, Toomey, Dally, & Clement, 2009, p. 17). The particular values-based pedagogy that was used in this research programme was that of Philosophy in the Classroom. Quality teaching was defined in this research programme by five dimensions: the four PP dimensions of intellectual quality; a supportive classroom environment; recognition of difference and; connectedness; as well as a fifth dimension of values. Each of the three studies used this model when presenting and discussing the findings of the pre-service teacher interviews.

Figure 7.1
Quality Teaching Model



The research programme employed a qualitative methodology. All three studies employed interviews as the source of data collection as they are a common and powerful tool in qualitative case study designs (Fontana & Frey, 2003; Merriam & Associates, 2002; Patton, 2002; Robson, 1993). This particular methodology provided rich contextual data on pre-service teachers’ understandings of quality teaching and the role played by a values explicit pedagogy on these understandings. All interviews were transcribed by the researcher and analysed according to Marshall and Rossman’s (2006) seven step process of data organisation; data immersion; generation of categories and themes; coding of data; interpretation; search for

alternate understandings; and report writing. All three studies addressed the two principal research questions:

1. In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?
2. Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understanding of quality teaching?

Study One provided insight into 21 pre-service teachers' understandings of quality teaching. These 21 participants had not engaged in an explicit values-based pedagogy as Studies Two and Three participants had. Thus, the findings from Study One allowed me to more accurately identify the role of a values explicit pedagogy as I could compare the findings from Studies Two and Three directly with Study One.

Study Two involved the interviewing of 22 pre-service primary teachers at two separate points in time – prior to exposure to a unit (FE3) within their Bachelor of Education programme that employed a values-explicit pedagogy and after this subject's lecture content delivery. By interviewing participants in this study at two points in time allowed first, for a direct comparison of Study One and Study Two Time 1 data, and second, to trace the impact that a values-based pedagogy had on quality teaching dimensions within one particular cohort of pre-service teachers.

Study Three reported on and analysed individual case studies of five participants from Study Two Time 1 and Time 2. In Study Three these participants were also interviewed a third time following the successful completion of their school based field experience which occurred after the lectures and coursework for the semester. This nested case study design allowed for an in-depth examination of the effect of a values-based pedagogy on five individuals in terms of the development of their quality teaching dimensions.

Research Questions Revisited and Summary of Findings

This research programme was concerned with the relationship between quality teaching and a values-based pedagogy (in this case Philosophy in the Classroom) within pre-service teacher education. In exploring this relationship two research questions were posed and addressed.

Research Question 1

In what ways do pre-service teachers perceive they are being prepared to become quality teachers?

This question was addressed in Studies One, Two and Three. Study One participants had not engaged in a values-explicit subject and pedagogy within their pre-service teacher education programme. Overall, they did demonstrate some understanding of the quality teaching dimensions, but this understanding and confidence did not extend to all the elements within the quality teaching dimensions. The pre-service teachers in Study One particularly felt the explicit self-reflection and knowledge about and skills in values and dispositions were lacking in their pre-service teacher education programme.

Study Two was broken into two phases with data collected at Time 1 and Time 2. Time 1 interviews occurred before the values-explicit subject FE3 began and Time 2 occurred at the conclusion of the lecture component of the subject but prior to the pre-service teachers' field studies. As could be expected the findings of Study Two Time 1 closely correlated with Study One's findings. This was no surprise given that both of these studies occurred without the participants having engaged in an explicit values-based unit. In each of the five dimensions the same themes emerged as in Study One. The only differences were some minor variations in the examples given by participants within some of the themes. Study Two Time 2 interviews occurred after the 10 weeks of classes and it was evident that there had been changes in the participants' understandings of quality teaching as a result of their participation in the subject FE3 with its values-based pedagogy of Philosophy in the classroom.

Study Three took the form of a nested case study design in that it sat 'nested' amongst the broader case study of the values explicit subject FE3. Within the broad context of the subject FE3 the stories of five individual pre-service teachers (Aurora, Betty, Clara, Dot and Eliza) and their journey through the subject are told in Study Three. The participants were interviewed at three points in time during the subject FE3, prior to the subject beginning (Time 1 – Week 1), at the conclusion of the lecture component of the subject (Time 2 – Week 11), and after the completion of their field study practicum placement (Time 3 – Weeks 16-17). Overall, the findings from Study Three support Study Two's findings that demonstrate that exposure to a

values-based pedagogy does enhance pre-service teachers' development of quality teaching understanding and skills. However, Study Three went beyond this to also demonstrate that the practical application of the values-based pedagogy by the pre-service teachers whilst on their school-based field experience reinforced the subject's learnings to further consolidate preparedness in terms of quality teaching dimensions.

Research question 1 was addressed through the use of the Productive Pedagogy (PP) model of quality teaching which has four dimensions, plus I added a fifth dimension concerned with values, beliefs and dispositions. Thus, in all three studies participants were asked to respond to the question of how they perceived they were being prepared to become quality teaching by referring to the quality teaching model as seen in Figure 7.1.

The findings of this question are discussed below under the headings of the quality teaching model.

Intellectual Quality

In Study One and Study Two Time 1, three themes emerged from the participants' discussion of intellectual quality: teaching strategies; critical and creative thinking and; connecting. While these participants did utilise key words associated with intellectual quality such as higher-order thinking, deeper understanding, processing, and connecting they did not overall demonstrate a clear and comprehensive understanding of all of the elements within the PP dimension of intellectual quality.

Much of teacher education is concerned with helping pre-service teachers understand children's thinking through focusing on pedagogical content knowledge (Grossman, Schoenfield, & Lee, 2005), and in turn much of this focus is on understanding and applying learning taxonomies (Snowman et al., 2009). In focusing on these, however, it appeared that participants displayed an over-reliance on these and thus did not display a readiness to allow for unpredictability in their lessons. Whilst these teaching strategies are indeed beneficial and can support the development of children's intellectual quality the actual practicalities of effectively employing these in the classroom still appeared to be elusive for the majority of participants, with many of the pre-service teachers interviewed showing an over-reliance on the more basic levels of recall and comprehension rather than the more

complex higher order thinking levels. This pitfall is exactly what the teaching of these taxonomies is supposed to prevent (Snowman et al., 2009), however this research programme demonstrated that despite extensive learning of taxonomies, particularly in their curriculum subjects, the pre-service teachers' questioning skills in terms of developing students' intellectual quality appeared to be limited and they were not as responsive to their students' needs as more highly skilled teachers (Hattie, 2004). They also seemed reticent in terms of allowing for student self-construction of knowledge. This reticence is quite common in beginning teachers (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Mandel, 2006) with quality teaching skills being less well developed.

After exposure to the values-based pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom, it could be observed that the participants' quality teaching skills in terms of developing students' intellectual quality had improved, and their responses were much more closely aligned with the PP elements. Prior to the values-based pedagogy, the pre-service teachers spoke of teacher control and direction and teacher questioning, whereas afterwards the participants spoke much less about these and instead focused on how they saw Philosophy in the Classroom as a student-centred and student-controlled pedagogy, which they identified as being vital for increasing students' intellectual quality. Philosophy in the Classroom with its focus on a community of inquiry and student direction aided the pre-service teachers in gaining skills in allowing for elements of uncertainty and unpredictability in instructional and outcome processes which had been stated by participants as a fear in the non-values explicit component. This is very much a positive outcome in terms of better developing student intellectual quality by the pre-service teachers in that they now could identify the importance of allowing students to solve problems themselves and to discover their own new meanings and understandings (Hayes et al., 2006). Another significant factor to emerge from the values-based pedagogy was the understanding that knowledge is problematic.

Over this time of approximately 16 weeks of exposure to the values-based pedagogy and practice in this while on field experience, it could be noted that the participants' confidence in their ability to effectively develop their students' intellectual quality grew quite substantially. Their understanding of intellectual quality moved beyond general teaching strategies and questioning to the realisation

that teacher talk should be reduced; that knowledge is problematic and; that Philosophy in the Classroom can facilitate increased metalanguage and higher-order thinking. This understanding was cemented even further as a result of their employment of the new pedagogy whilst on field placement with participants now adding substantive conversation, increasing challenges to and improvement in students' intellectual quality in their discussion surrounding the quality teaching dimension of intellectual quality. The importance of the field experience in strengthening the participants' quality teaching skills and dispositions was indeed evident, and aligns with research which suggests that field experience is crucial in terms of allowing pre-service teachers the opportunity to test ideas and theories raised in university coursework (see for example Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

A Supportive Classroom Environment

In Study One and Study Two Time 1, the two themes to emerge from the supportive classroom dimension when participants from the non-values based subject were interviewed were relationships and valuing. Within the theme of relationships, participants spoke of teacher–teacher; student–teacher; student-student; class-family; class-class; and class-school relationships. In discussing the importance of effective relationships in these different forms, the pre-service teachers spoke of the important roles of care, respect, communication and acceptance of difference in creating and maintaining these relationships. Overall, the participants felt that the valuing of all members of the class community and the valuing of students' work were very important to the successful development of a supportive classroom environment. Again, similar to the findings under intellectual quality, the participants noted some key elements of the PP dimension but failed to display a comprehensive understanding. In terms of the PP elements the participants with no explicit values-based pedagogy totally disregarded many of the key elements of a supportive classroom dimension such as, academic engagement; self-regulation; student direction of activities; and explicit criteria regarding student achievement.

After exposure to Philosophy in the Classroom (Study Two Time 2 and Study Three), participants spoke about an increase in their understanding and preparedness in this dimension as a result of the values explicit pedagogy which they had been exposed to in their FE3 unit. They commented that the rules and running of a community of inquiry (see for example Lipman, 2003; Lipman et al., 1980; Pardales

& Girod, 2006) provided them with explicit strategies to develop and improve their students' dialogical exchanges with others, which increased students' interpersonal sensitivity, self-esteem and sense of discovery that comes from operating within a community of learners. This social operation is crucial to a child's cognitive development according to educational psychologists such as Vygotsky (1962) who view social interaction as the primary crucible for cognitive development. Language which occurs through social interaction, such as in a community of inquiry, is vital to the development of intellectual activities such as problem solving, regulating behaviour and self talk (Snowman et al., 2009).

Overall the changes in participants' understanding of and confidence in this dimension was the least marked of all five quality teaching dimensions. This is perhaps not surprising in that in the QSRLS (The University of Queensland, 2001) findings it was noted that a teacher's ability to create a supportive learning environment was the one dimension most teachers felt comfortable with and confident in their ability to create and maintain. The participants did observe though that Philosophy in the Classroom provided students with increased confidence in discussions; increased student willingness to become involved in class discussions; and helped to improve relationships and respect within the class.

Recognition of Difference

All three studies saw the emergence of just one distinct theme – that of inclusivity, in the third dimension of recognition of difference. Under this broad umbrella the participants discussed the recognition and valuing of different abilities, needs, cultures and learning styles.

The importance of diversity and the ability to create an inclusive classroom was clearly identified by the pre-service teachers who were not exposed to a values-based pedagogy. This though is only one element of the recognition of difference dimension and again these participants did not demonstrate a comprehensive understanding of the dimension by their preclusion of the notion of citizenship and participation in a democratic society, which is a key criteria of the PP dimension (The University of Queensland, 2001). Education for thoughtful and active citizenship has been identified as a key objective of education by educationalists (see for example Dewey, 1916; Lipman, 2003) and governments (see for example Curriculum Corporation, 2006; Ministerial Council on Education Employment

Training and Youth Affairs, 2008) alike. Despite its importance, the link to active citizenship within the recognition of difference dimension was not recognised by the participants in Study One, Study Two or Study Three. Philosophy in the Classroom has well defined links to active citizenship with Lipman (2003) arguing that in order to have an effective democracy children have to be taught how to think for themselves. The skills required for active participation in a democratic society are taught and practised in a philosophical community of inquiry (Bleazby, 2006; Burgh et al., 2006; Burgh & O'Brien, 2002; McCall, 2009). So whilst the pre-service teachers were made aware of this in their values-based subject FE3 they did not clearly make the links between the practice of active citizenship and the PP dimension of recognition of difference.

The dimension of recognition of difference was probably the most similar out of all the dimensions across the three studies. The same theme of inclusivity emerged with a similar discussion on different abilities, needs, learning styles and cultural diversity and awareness. What was noted though was the strength of the pedagogical tool of Philosophy in the Classroom and the benefits this provided the pre-service teachers with in terms of successfully implementing this quality teaching dimension. Philosophy in the Classroom had provided these participants with a specific way of promoting an inclusive classroom where differences were valued and embraced and overall the participants felt much better prepared in terms of successfully implementing this in their future classrooms as a result of the subject FE3.

Connectedness

From the discussion on connectedness, three distinct themes emerged: connectedness to something bigger, making things relevant, and connectedness in a local sense. The non-values based pre-service teacher participants did demonstrate an understanding of the importance of a holistic education in terms of connecting to the world beyond the classroom in terms of providing connections to students' families and socio-cultural backgrounds, but they failed to demonstrate an understanding of the important role of knowledge integration within a holistic education.

With regard to the connectedness dimension, following exposure to the values-based pedagogy, participants noted that the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy provided them with a structured way of assisting students to make connections which the participants linked to life-long learning. The development of life-long learning

skills which are linked to values education are argued to confer: dignity upon the learners; a questioning of authority relationships; an understanding that knowledge is problematic; and a development of respect for individuals (Robinson & Campbell, 2010). The discussion surrounding life-long learning was explicitly linked to Philosophy in the Classroom by the participants and they equated it with the benefits of social discourse and the importance of this in the development of an individual's learning. The pre-service teachers, as a result of their introduction to the values explicit pedagogy, now understood the importance of peer dialogical exchange (see for example Crick & Wilson, 2005; Vygotsky, 1962) that occurs within a community of inquiry through the process of collaborations, reasoning and justification, in terms of developing life-long learners. Once again, the pre-service teachers, after exposure to the values explicit pedagogy demonstrated an increased and more comprehensive understanding of the PP dimension than had been demonstrated with no values explicit pedagogy.

The participants noted that Philosophy in the Classroom gave them a concrete tool for bringing big issues and questions into the classroom and connecting these to the students' lives and life-long learning skills. This was directly related to the ability of a values-based pedagogy to transcend specific curriculum content and to engage with and connect to all elements of a school's curriculum. Philosophy in the Classroom provided the pre-service teachers with specific ways to integrate curriculum and teaching and learning strategies by the fact that philosophical questions are raised in all areas of a curriculum but yet cannot be specifically answered by the curriculum and subject content themselves (Burgh & O'Brien, 2002).

Values

The final dimension to be discussed was that of values, where once again three themes emerged: teacher dispositions; teachers as role models and; the building of positive relationships. While the pre-service teachers interviewed in this research programme agreed that personal and professional dispositions, self-knowledge, reflection and personal values were important considerations in teaching, the majority of non-values based participants felt that these were not addressed in their pre-service teacher education programme and had mostly transpired through their individual family and cultural backgrounds. In terms of participants' preparedness to

teach values education and morals in the classroom the pre-service teachers did not feel prepared and indeed were divided on their thoughts as to whether this was even their role as a teacher. This is a common debate among both teachers and educational researchers (Cairns, 2000), however I concur with Howard (2005, p. 43) that “it is neither possible nor desirable to leave moral issues outside the realm of schooling”. Schooling is much more than the teaching and learning of academic content and skills, though for some of the participants in this research programme the explicit teaching of values/morals is not something they are comfortable with. While these participants, and for those who agree with them, teaching is not about imparting values and morals to children, I would argue that regardless of this all schools and teachers, to some extent, engage in moral education. While engaging in what one might call ordinary teaching tasks, a teacher is engaged in decision-making activities that require moral reasoning, such as assigning grades, allocating resources, managing students’ behaviour, and brokering and negotiating curriculum and other matters with fellow teachers, parents, principals, and community (Cummings, Maddux, & Cladianos, 2010). Regardless of any conscious awareness of imparting moral/values education, daily acts of teachers demonstrate that they do indeed engage with values education.

Having engaged with the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy the pre-service teachers now demonstrated an increased awareness of the important role that their own values and beliefs play in their development as a quality a teacher. Participants noted the valuable experience the subject FE3 provided them with in terms of giving them an opportunity to reflect on their own values and beliefs and the role this played in their classroom teaching. In Studies One and Two Time 1, it was noted by participants that no time had really been given in terms of self-reflection on their own values and beliefs and then how these were linked to their future teaching and teaching practices.

The participants in Study Three noted that Philosophy in the Classroom was an ideal avenue for opening up discussions concerning values and beliefs in the classroom, but only one of the five participants noted how it specifically impacted upon her values and beliefs and the strengthening of these. The pre-service teachers observed from their philosophy lessons whilst on field experience that as a result of this pedagogy, students were more willing to share ideas with other class members;

were more willing to listen to each other; and overall improvements in student-student relationships were noticed.

Summary of Research Question 1

The pre-service teachers in this research programme did identify with the five quality teaching dimensions and noted that many of these elements were taught in their teacher education programme. Overall it can be determined that the values-explicit pedagogical focus of Philosophy in the Classroom in the unit FE3 did have more of a positive impact on the pre-service teachers' understanding and confidence in the five quality teaching dimensions. Whilst the non-values explicit participants identified with the same quality teaching dimensions, their knowledge of and confidence in many of the elements were not as great as the students who participated in the values explicit subject FE3. This then, leads to research question 2 which was concerned with determining if a connection exists between an explicit values-based pedagogy and pre-service teachers' development in quality teaching.

Research Question 2

Is there a connection between an explicit values-based pedagogy in pre-service teacher education and the development of pre-service teachers' understanding of quality teaching?

This question was addressed in Studies One, Two and Three. In the same way as Research Question 1 was addressed through the use of the five quality teaching dimensions, so too was this question. The findings of this question are discussed below under the headings of the quality teaching model (see Figure 7.1). To demonstrate the extent of the connection between a values explicit focus and a non-values explicit focus each dimension is first discussed by displaying a table clearly showing a comparison between the non-values explicit and the values explicit.

Intellectual Quality

Table 7.1

Comparison of Participants' Understandings of the Intellectual Quality Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit

Non Values Explicit Pedagogy Study One & Study Two Time 1	Values Explicit Pedagogy subject Study Two Time 2	Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject + Post Field Experience Study Three
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching strategies such as Bloom's Taxonomy, Gardner's multiple intelligences • Critical and creative thinking in terms of deep understanding and construction of own knowledge • Metacognition • Connecting to different perspectives, real life and outside the classroom 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher-order thinking • Deep knowledge and deep understanding • Metacognition • Connecting to real life and outside the classroom • Cross-curricular teaching • Philosophy reduces teacher talk • Knowledge is problematic • Use of metalanguage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All students have an opportunity in philosophy despite academic results • Development of substantive conversation • Deep level of students' responses came as a surprise • Higher-order thinking • Ideal way to challenge brighter students • Deep knowledge and deep understanding

Overall it can be seen that exposure to the values-based pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom enhanced the pre-service teachers' understandings of the quality teaching dimension of intellectual quality. Without the values-based pedagogy the participants stressed the importance of particular teaching strategies such as Bloom's Taxonomy in helping to increase students' higher-order thinking but didn't necessarily always know how to use this effectively. Philosophy in the Classroom with its focus on a community of inquiry and student direction aided the pre-service teachers in gaining skills in allowing for elements of uncertainty and unpredictability in instructional and outcome processes which had been stated by participants as a fear in the non-values explicit component.

The exposure to the values-based pedagogy and the opportunity to implement this for themselves whilst on field experience allowed the participants to see much greater levels of higher order intellectual quality in children than they had previously considered possible. Quite a few pre-service teachers commented that they were very surprised by some of the children's responses in the philosophy lessons they saw at university via DVDs. This surprise was reiterated by Study Three participants who saw this intellectual depth in their own philosophy lessons whilst on field experience. It is well documented in the literature (see for example Cam, 1995; Cam, 2006b; Daniel & Auriac, 2009; Lipman et al., 1980; McCall, 2009) surrounding Philosophy in the Classroom that the practice of engaging in regular philosophical communities of inquiry assists in the development of critical, complex and creative thinking (Lipman, 2003) where learning is focused on the active construction of knowledge rather than reproduction (Hayes et al., 2006)

When learning the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom the pre-service teachers learnt about the importance of metalanguage and teaching and practising this with their students. So skills and words like reasoning, justifying, explaining, analogies, and counter-arguments become commonplace in classrooms where philosophy is practised. While research has demonstrated that the use of metalanguage in classrooms is crucial, particularly for students from disadvantaged backgrounds, there is evidence to suggest that the use of metalanguage in classrooms is not widespread (Hayes et al., 2006). So, surely any encouragement given in pre-service teacher education in how to better utilise metalanguage should be promoted. The use of substantive conversation is important in terms of developing student intellectual quality (Hayes et al., 2006; The University of Queensland, 2001), as well as in developing a caring classroom environment (Noddings, 2005a), but yet was not raised by participants in the non-values explicit discussions. The importance of these lengthy group interactions, however, was noted by pre-service teachers after their exposure to a values-explicit pedagogy.

A Supportive Classroom Environment

Table 7.2

Comparison of Participants' Understandings of the Supportive Classroom Environment Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit

Non-Values Explicit Pedagogy Study One & Study Two Time 1	Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject Study Two Time 2	Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject + Post Field Experience Study Three
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationships • Valuing of student work and diversity • Rules/behaviour management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationships – philosophy reduces bullying • The development of student self-esteem where they begin to value their own opinions • Rules/behaviour management • Student self-regulation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationships in classroom improved • Students who didn't normally participate, did so in philosophy • Students learnt to respect others' opinions • Behavioural problems decreased – helped with teacher behaviour management

While both groups (non-values explicit and values explicit) identified the importance of effective relationships and social support within a classroom, it was obvious that the pre-service teachers with the values explicit pedagogy were more confident in knowing exactly how to ensure this occurred within their classroom. It was noted that effective behaviour management and strong student to student relationships were enhanced through the utilisation of Philosophy in the Classroom. This was observed by the pre-service teachers in their lectures where they commented on research that suggested bullying was decreased through the use of Philosophy in the Classroom (see for example Glina, 2009; Hinton, 2003) and was then seen for themselves when teaching philosophy whilst on field experience placement and improved relationships amongst the students was observed. It is well documented that establishing secure, caring relationships are vital for learning and the commitment of students to work together as well as being crucial to the development of an environment that is supportive of ethical behaviour (Narvaez,

2010). While the importance of establishing secure caring relationships was recognised by all participants regardless of having engaged with a values-based pedagogy, it was those pre-service teachers who had engaged with the Philosophy in the Classroom pedagogy that could see the potential for moral development that is innate within the development of caring relationships. Moral development is a contentious term and is often misunderstood (LePage et al., 2005); however, moral climates, as espoused by the likes of Kohlberg, emphasise fairness, care, and democratic procedures and principles (Power, Higgins, & Kohlberg, 1989) and this is supported by Noddings (1997, p. 28) who writes that schools “should be able to produce competent, caring, loving, and loveable people”. In effective learning communities where the teacher effectively manages the children’s behaviour, children get along with others, they make moral choices, they care for others and they learn to be good citizens (LePage et al., 2005). On top of this, moral development is closely intertwined with intellectual development (LePage et al., 2005), making it a crucial element of quality teaching and supportive classrooms.

Student self-regulation was noticed to have improved with the use of a values explicit pedagogy but was not even mentioned in the non-values explicit discussions. Increased student self-esteem was also noted by the participants in the values explicit subject, and whilst this is not an element of the PP dimension it is significant in demonstrating that a supportive classroom environment is enhanced through the use of a values explicit pedagogy. Student self-confidence in their own opinions and their articulation of these in a shared community of inquiry strongly suggests that they feel safe and valued by all class members.

One participant also noted the usefulness of Philosophy in the Classroom in helping her to improve her behaviour management skills. Research has demonstrated that effective behaviour management is the most important (out of effective and powerful teaching strategies and organisational structure) ingredient in impacting upon student achievement (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1993). Strategies for effective classroom management are rated by pre-service teachers as one of the most crucial topics to be learned in their education degree, but is often one of the most ignored (Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999; Silvestri, 2001). Shifting paradigms in teachers’ roles in recent years have seen a change in behaviour management theory from one of teacher authoritarianism to teacher facilitation (Larrivee, 2009;

LePage et al., 2005). Some of the ways to improve classroom management are employing: engaging pedagogy; intrinsic motivational techniques; culturally responsive pedagogy; organisational techniques; and assisting in the successful development of a classroom community; and children’s moral development (LePage et al., 2005). The values-based pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom provided the pre-service teachers in this research programme with opportunities in all of those areas and seemed to enhance participants’ behaviour management skills.

Recognition of Difference

Table 7.3

Comparison of Participants’ Understandings of the Recognition of Difference Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit

Non-Values Explicit Pedagogy Study One & Study Two Time 1	Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject Study Two Time 2	Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject + Post Field Experience Study Three
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusivity in terms of different learning styles, needs, abilities, and cultures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusivity in terms of different learning styles, needs, abilities and cultures • Talk about difference without judgment being passed • Teaches students to be more accepting of others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students appeared to better understand difference in their own classroom context after philosophy lessons

The importance of the valuing of cultural knowledge was noted by all participants regardless of a values explicit pedagogy or not. This finding was to be expected given that diversity and inclusivity have been leading agendas within education and teacher education programmes since the latter part of the 20th century, with programmes being heavily focused on issues surrounding culture and diversity (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2008) and inclusivity (Slee, 2007), especially regarding learning needs and differences (UNESCO, 1994), as well as social differences and contexts (Keefe, 2007). What was observed by participants in the values-based subject though was how the pedagogical tool of Philosophy in the Classroom provided them with an explicit way of opening up substantive conversation regarding

inclusivity and cultural knowledge. This was done both through the shared narrative (another PP element of this dimension) which became the stimulus for the philosophy lesson/s and the actual discussion in the community of inquiry itself.

The importance of adopting a global perspective (Slee, 2007) was noted by all participants, but again the values explicit subject provided the pre-service teachers with an explicit tool for implementing this within their classroom. One pre-service teacher raised the question of judging people by their physical appearance alone in her philosophy lesson with the issue of prejudice against Moslems being raised by the students. Whilst she said this was a good thing, she also observed that the students would need much more practice in philosophical discussions and begin to be more open-minded if this was to have a more positive impact on values and beliefs regarding diversity and recognition of difference.

Connectedness

Table 7.4
Comparison of Participants' Understandings of the Connectedness Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit

Non-Values Explicit Pedagogy Study One & Study Two Time 1	Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject Study Two Time 2	Post Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject + Post Field Experience Study Three
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To something bigger (real life and world beyond classroom) • Making it relevant by connecting to real world problems and issues • In a local sense to school and community • In terms of diversity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To something bigger (real life and world beyond classroom) • Connections made to students' own lives • Making it relevant by connecting to real world problems and issues • Life-long learning skills • In terms of diversity • Cross-curricular 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students didn't always make connections between issues in philosophy and their own lives • Life-long learning skills • Made better connections with others in the class • Cross-curricular

Knowledge integration is the first element cited within the PP dimension of connectedness, but yet was not mentioned by the non-values explicit participants. However, after being exposed to the value-explicit pedagogy the pre-service teachers immediately became aware of the potential of Philosophy in the Classroom in connecting and integrating knowledge across all areas of the curriculum leading to a more holistic view. All participants noted the importance of making connections to students' lives and the world beyond the classroom and school and this belief was not really impacted upon by the introduction of a values explicit pedagogy. Whilst ideally Philosophy in the Classroom should be a way of assisting students to make strong connections between their own lives and big issues within philosophy and society (Lipman et al., 1980), this is not always the case as observed by one participant when students clearly demonstrated examples of stealing in the philosophy lesson but then did not make links to what was occurring in their own classroom regarding the issue of stealing. Regardless of whether the students made links in this instance or not, what is important is the finding that a values-based pedagogy such as Philosophy in the Classroom does provide students with a means of making strong connections between different subjects and content areas; to others both within and without the classroom; to the world beyond the classroom; and to their own and others' experiences.

Life-long learning skills was an element of connectedness only mentioned by those participants who were engaged in the values-explicit subject with clear links being made between Philosophy in the Classroom and its skills of open-mindedness; reflective thinking; self-regulation; self-knowledge; and critical and creative thinking, all of which are crucial dispositions for life-long learning (Curtis, 2010).

Values

Table 7.5
Comparison of Participants' Understandings in the Values Dimension between Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit

Non-Values Explicit Pedagogy Study One & Study Two Time 1	Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject Study Two Time 2	Post Values Explicit Pedagogy Subject + Post Field Experience Study Three
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher dispositions such as a positive attitude, self-knowledge and impact on students • Teachers as role models • The importance of building positive relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-knowledge • Strengthened teachers' values and beliefs • Teachers as role models • Building positive relationship • Pedagogy useful for discussing school and social issues of concern • Increased respect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pedagogy useful for discussing school and social issues of concern

The majority of teachers agree that teaching is a moral endeavour (Totterdell, 2000) and that values are central to the daily work of a teacher (Toomey, 2006), but they are perceived as being implicit (Toomey, 2006) and receive far less time and attention in a classroom than subject matter and behavioural issues (Patry et al., 2007). This being the case it would seem that values and beliefs, both a teacher's own and how to teach/impart values and beliefs to students, should be a component of pre-service teacher education, but this is not necessarily the case, with many researchers spurring teacher education institutions to make the moral dimensions of teaching a central aspect of teacher education programmes (see for example Beyer, 1997; Bolotin Joseph, 2003; Goldstein & Freedman, 2003; Noddings, 1997). The pre-service teachers in this research programme who were not exposed to a values explicit subject remarked that not enough attention was given to values and beliefs in their teacher education programme, whilst one pre-service teacher who had engaged in the values explicit subject commented that it had strengthened her own values and beliefs. This is particularly important given that the process of understanding one's own values and beliefs and how this will impact upon teaching decisions and

practices is crucial to quality teaching (Collinson, 1996). Positive teacher dispositions were observed by all participants as being significant in terms of developing good relationships with students and fellow teachers.

Summary of Research Question 2

Overall, this research question has demonstrated that a better understanding of and confidence in quality teaching dimensions are achieved by pre-service teachers who are engaged with a values-explicit pedagogy. The following table highlights this at a glance by listing the quality teaching dimensions with their individual elements and then noting whether or not this element was observed and displayed by the pre-service teachers.

Table 7.6

Overview of Quality Teaching Elements in Non-Values Explicit and Values Explicit Subjects

Elements of Quality Teaching Dimensions	Non-Values Explicit Pedagogy	Values Explicit Pedagogy
Intellectual Quality		
• Higher-order thinking	✓	✓
• Deep knowledge	X	✓
• Deep understanding	✓	✓
• Knowledge as problematic	X	✓
• Substantive conversation	X	✓
• Metalanguage	X	✓
• Critical and creative thinking	✓	✓
Connectedness		
• Knowledge integration	X	✓
• Background knowledge	✓	✓
• Connectedness to the world	✓	✓
• Problem-based curriculum	X	✓
A Supportive Classroom Environment		
• Academic engagement	X	✓
• Self-regulation	X	✓
• Student direction of activities	X	✓
• Social support	✓	✓
• Explicit criteria	X	X
Recognition of Difference		
• Cultural knowledge	✓	✓
• Inclusivity	✓	✓
• Narrative	X	X
• Group identities in a learning community	✓	✓
• Active citizenship	X	X
• Global education	✓	✓
Values		
• Developing students' values	X	✓
• Teachers as role models	✓	✓
• The importance of strong relationships	✓	✓
• Teachers' values and beliefs	X	✓

This research programme has demonstrated that when a values-explicit pedagogy is taught and then practised in an actual classroom with students the potential for greater understanding and confidence in the quality teaching dimensions by pre-service teachers is certainly enhanced. Pre-service teacher understanding within all five quality teaching dimensions was enhanced by the addition of a values explicit pedagogy within their teacher education programme, but the improvement in some dimensions was much more marked than others. Changes in the dimension of intellectual quality were perhaps the most marked with all seven elements within the dimension being understood and practised after exposure to the values-based pedagogy, as opposed to only three elements being discussed in the non-values explicit interviews (see Table 7.6). The supportive classroom environment dimension also saw positive changes in terms of closer alignment with the PP elements with three more elements noted by the participants engaged in the values explicit subject than by the non-values participants (see table 7.6). The next dimension of recognition of difference was the only dimension out of the five where the non-values explicit participants and the values explicit participants' responses were virtually the same. The non-values explicit participants identified half of the elements within the connectedness and values dimensions, but all four elements in each of the last two dimensions were identified by the values explicit participants.

Contributions to Scholarship

The latter part of the twentieth century and into the twenty-first century has seen a new learning paradigm emerge. This new paradigm of learning has resulted from the increased concentration aimed at maximising student achievement within school education (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009). This new paradigm encompasses research and practice into quality teaching, values education, and authentic pedagogy and all are united by the belief that learning is holistic (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009). As a result of these new paradigms there has been a resurgence in the educational literature surrounding quality teaching, where a recurrent theme “is the call for appropriate professional development to advance the quality of teaching in order to improve student achievement” (Clement, 2007, p. 22). Despite this plea, little in-depth attention has been given to the development of quality teaching dimensions in pre-service teacher education. Whilst research exists to prove that there is a positive link between quality teaching and values education

(see for example Lovat, 2007a; Lovat & Toomey, 2007b, 2007c; Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009), again this has not been investigated in any depth with regard to pre-service teacher education. Clement (2007, p. 24) wrote: “it is still not yet completely transparent what the relationship between values and quality teaching might be”. It is hoped that the findings of this present research programme may go some way in assisting the transparency of this relationship.

This research programme has highlighted the potential for an explicit values-based pedagogy to positively enhance pre-service teachers’ competence in quality teaching dimensions. It has contributed to the belief that pedagogy can be transformative (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009) and that solid values-based practice can have a positive effect on quality teaching. More than ever values education in the 21st century is vital if education is to be the agent of society and to address matters of personal integrity; social development; self-reflection; and moral and spiritual awareness (Lovat, Toomey, Clement, et al., 2009). This study demonstrates that education can achieve just this if teachers are well prepared and versed in both a values-based pedagogy and quality teaching and this in turn will positively impact upon student achievement and wellbeing. This could be the new foundation for teacher education, and specifically pre-service teacher education. Whilst there are many calls on precious time and resources in pre-service teacher education programmes, if a values explicit pedagogy and focus could become the foundational core of all pre-service teacher programming then as the findings of this research programme suggest quality teaching will be enhanced.

Limitations

In this research programme I adopted a constructivist-interpretative paradigm, which means I hold a constructivist view of social reality which sees human social life being based less on objective factual reality than on the ideas, beliefs, values and perceptions people hold about reality (Neuman, 2004b). For this research programme I elicited pre-service teachers’ responses regarding quality teaching through interviews. Similar to Silverman (2003), and within this constructivist-interpretative paradigm, I hold the belief that people do not necessarily attach rigid, singular meanings to their experiences. The questions asked of the participants in this

research programme may have drawn different answers if asked at a different point in time or under different conditions or with a different group of people. Similarly, when analysing this data if I had approached it differently using a different methodology or if my research questions had been different, the results outlined in this research programme may have been quite different. Given this, I have taken care to follow the methodological and analytical approaches outlined in Chapter Three in the hope that through following these my account is consistent and logical, thus allowing other researchers using the same data and methodology as myself to reasonably concur with my findings.

As this research programme was a qualitative one I needed to understand and document participants' responses within their version of reality (Patton, 2002) and thus had to become intimately familiar with the subject (FE3) and the participants' roles in this (Merriam, 1998). In becoming familiar and in developing relationships with those interviewed, especially those in Study Three, there is always the risk of becoming overly subjective where the findings and conclusions may be seen as skewed. I agree with Patton (2002) that predispositions and beliefs must be taken as a given and I cannot distance myself from these, but what I did do in this research programme was to counter suspicion by clearly detailing my predispositions, values and beliefs right from the outset in Chapter One.

The other major limitation to this research programme was its focus on one particular values-based pedagogy. This research programme has concluded that a values explicit pedagogical focus in pre-service teacher education programmes does enhance pre-service teacher's knowledge of an aptitude in quality teaching. While I make no apologies for making this claim, and the research presented in this research programme certainly concurs with this, it must be noted that these findings and claims are based on one example of a values-based pedagogy. Given the limitations of this research programme in terms of length, finances and time constraints it was only possible to do an in-depth investigation of one values-based pedagogy, but I do openly acknowledge that there would no doubt be increased benefits to investigating more than one particular pedagogy.

A final limitation was concerned with the sample population. The sample used in this research programme contained a high preponderance of female participants. Whilst this correlated with the latest available ABS statistics that showed males as

comprising less than one third of all full time teaching staff within Australia, with males accounting for 32% of all primary school teachers (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011a) it would have been advantageous to have acquired a more representative gender balance within the sample population. Overall in this research programme males only accounted for 16%, so it would have been preferable to have had more male participants in order to effectively gauge if gender influenced quality teaching dimensions.

Recommendations

In this section I offer recommendations for (a) further research and (b) for pre-service teacher educators and programme developers. These recommendations are based on the findings, analysis and conclusions of this research programme.

Recommendations for Further Research

Only one values-based pedagogy was explored in this research programme, namely that of Philosophy in the Classroom. Further research needs to be undertaken into other values-based pedagogies in pre-service teacher education to determine their effect on quality teaching and if they also have the same positive effect on quality teaching as did Philosophy in the Classroom. Some examples of other values-based pedagogies that could be researched are service learning and environmental education.

Study Three within this present research programme followed five pre-service teachers over a 16 week period. The data collected from these participants was rich and demonstrated their development as quality teachers. These participants were in the third year of their teacher education programme and it would be interesting and contribute greatly to this research programme if these participants could be followed into the fourth year of their studies and then into their teaching career. This would allow for a greater and deeper longitudinal study which would then be able to draw more firm conclusions regarding the effect of values-based pedagogical practices on the development of quality teaching.

*Recommendations for Pre-service Teacher Educators and Programme
Developers*

It is clear from this research programme that the inclusion of an explicit values-based pedagogy taught to and practised by pre-service teachers in their education programme does make a difference to their quality teaching dimensions. Given this, it is important that pre-service teacher educators and programmers give thought and attention to how to better allow for the inclusion of values-based pedagogical practices for all pre-service teachers.

This research programme has reiterated the importance of values education and the need for teachers to be prepared in this. Whilst this need has been stated in numerous studies, it appears from the participants in this research programme that not all pre-service teachers feel prepared for this aspect of teaching. A values-based pedagogy, such as Philosophy in the Classroom, is imbued with a range of values such as respect, care, empathy, tolerance, cooperation and inclusion. The routine practice of these values within the pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom provides pre-service teachers with the opportunities to practice and engage with these values which will not only aid their quality teaching techniques but will also make them more respectful, caring and cooperative people who are more likely to have dispositions conducive to quality teaching (Curtis, 2010).

Whatever form the values-based pedagogy takes within pre-service teacher education programmes, the pre-service teachers themselves need to engage in the active learning of the pedagogy. For a true understanding of the power of values-based pedagogical practices on the development of quality teaching skills and dispositions the pre-service teachers need to live the experience and feel themselves challenged in the same way their future students will.

The importance of practical field experience in pre-service teacher education should not be undervalued. It was clear from this research programme that the depth of understanding of quality teaching dimensions and the pre-service teachers' developing confidence in these was closely related to the opportunities they experienced on field placement to directly teach and experience the new pedagogy which they had been taught, thus allowing them to determine its true potential for themselves.

Summary

At the beginning of this thesis I quoted a letter written by a Boston school principal who had survived the Holocaust (see p.1). This letter was his plea to his teaching staff to ensure that education was about making our children more human. To me, this equates with a values-based education where the affective is given an equal place with the cognitive. Values education has received renewed attention at the outset of the twenty-first century, where we live in a world increasingly wrestling with global issues such as conflict resolution, sustainability, human rights, social justice and intercultural harmony. Values education, properly speaking, is what education should be about (Toomey et al., 2010a).

This research programme's findings concerning the role that a values-based pedagogy can have on pre-service teachers' quality teaching dimensions support this. By basing teacher education programmes on a values-explicit pedagogy, such as Philosophy in the Classroom, teachers are better prepared in terms of quality teaching dimensions and this in turn positively impacts upon student achievement and student well-being. Children enter the education system bright-eyed, filled with trust and wonder and sparked by curiosity. But as they progress through the system all too many of them progressively become more despondent, apathetic and despairing (Lipman, 1988). We cannot allow this to continue to happen – it must be turned around. A values-based pedagogy that exists in a context of mutual respect, of disciplined dialogue, of cooperative inquiry, free of manipulation (Lipman, 1988), where curiosity is encouraged and wonder ignited surely is what our children need. By engaging pre-service education teachers in the values-explicit pedagogy of Philosophy in the Classroom allows them the practical experience to implement quality teaching dimensions at the same time as helping them to become “more respectful, tolerant, caring and cooperative people and thus more likely to be quality teachers” (Curtis, 2010, p. 119).

If society truly wants to help its children become more fully human then the answer must lie in teacher education. It is only by developing quality teachers that the education of our children can be bettered. By providing beginning teachers with an explicit understanding of values and a specific values-based pedagogy we will be providing for better quality teachers. This research programme has shown the way forward for enhancing quality teaching skills of beginning teachers. I can only hope

that teacher education institutions take this great step forward as it is through quality teaching that the very heart of education will be enhanced.

In all our efforts for education – in providing adequate research and study – we must never lose sight of the very heart of education: good teaching itself.

- Dwight D Eisenhower

References

- Abrams, L. M., & Madaus, G. F. (2003). The lessons of high-stakes testing. *Educational Leadership*, 61(3), 31-35.
- ACARA. (2010). My School. Retrieved 1/8/2011, from <http://www.myschool.edu.au/>
- Adkins, A. (2006). Not to be taken lightly: Education in moral and sacred terms. *Journal of Thought*, 2006(Fall), 23-27.
- Aggarwal, J. C. (2005). *Education for values, environment and human rights*. Delhi: Shipra Publications.
- Alvesson, M. (2003). Methodology for close up studies: Struggling with closeness and closure. *Higher Education*, 46(2), 167-193.
- Appleman, D., & Thompson, M. J. (2002). "Fighting the toxic status quo": Alfie Kohn on standardized tests and teacher education. *English Education*, 34(2), 95-103.
- Arthur, J. (2003). *Education with Character: The moral economy of schooling*. London: Routledge and Farmer.
- Aspin, D. (1999). The nature of values and their place and promotion in schemes of values education. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 31(2), 123-143.
- Aspin, D. (2002). An ontology of values and the humanisation of education. In S. Pascoe (Ed.), *Values in Education* (pp. 12-24). Deakin, ACT: The Australian College of Educators.
- Aspin, D. (2007). The ontology of values and values education. In D. Aspin & Chapman (Eds.), *Values education and lifelong learning: Principles, policies, programmes* (pp. 27-47). The Netherlands: Springer.
- Assor, A., Kaplan, H., Kanat-Maymon, Y., & Roth, G. (2005). Directly controlling teacher behaviors as predictors of poor motivation and engagement in girls and boys: The role of anger and anxiety. *Learning and Instruction*, 15(5), 397-413.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2006). *Adult literacy and life skills survey: Summary results*. Retrieved from [http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/B22A471C221C7BADCA2573CA00207F10/\\$File/42280_2006%20\(reissue\).pdf](http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/B22A471C221C7BADCA2573CA00207F10/$File/42280_2006%20(reissue).pdf).
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2011a). *4221.0 - Schools, Australia, 2010*. Canberra: Australian Bureau of Statistics.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2011b). *Migration, Australia, 2009-10* (No. 3412.0). Canberra: Australian Bureau of Statistics.
- Australian Council of Deans of Education Incorporated. (2005). *Teaching tomorrow's teachers: ACDE submission to the House of Representatives inquiry into teacher education, 2005*. Canberra: ACDE.
- Australian Government. (2008). *Global perspectives: A framework for global education in Australian schools*.
- Australian Government. (2011). *Fact Sheet 60 - Australia's refugee and humanitarian program*. Retrieved from <http://www.immi.gov.au/media/fact-sheets/60refugee.htm>.
- Australian Government Department of Education Science and Training. (2005). *National Framework for Values Education in Australian Schools*. Canberra: Australian Government Department of Education Science and Training

- Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership. (2011). *National professional standards for teachers*. Retrieved from http://www.aitsl.edu.au/verve/resources/AITSL_National_Professional_Standards_for_Teachers.pdf.
- Babad, E., Bernieri, F., & Rosenthal, R. (1991). Students as judges of teachers' verbal and nonverbal behaviour. *American Educational Research Journal*, 28(1), 211-234.
- Ball, D. L., & Forzani, F. M. (2009). The work of teaching and the challenge for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 60(5), 497-511.
- Barber, M., & Mourshed, D. (2009). *Shaping the future: How good education systems can become great in the decade ahead. Report on the International Education Roundtable: 7 July, 2009, Singapore*: McKinsey and Company.
- Barell, J. (2007). *Problem-based learning: An inquiry approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Barrow, R. (1999). 'Or what's a heaven for?': The importance of aims in education. In R. Marples (Ed.), *The aims of education* (pp. 14-22). London: Routledge.
- Barrow, W. (2010). Dialogic, participation and the potential for Philosophy for Children. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 5(2), 61-69.
- Baum, A. C., & King, M. A. (2006). Creating a Climate of Self-Awareness in Early Childhood Teacher Preparation Programs. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 33(4), 217-222.
- Benninga, J. S., Berkowitz, M. W., Kuehn, P., & Smith, K. (2006). Character and academics: What good schools do. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 87(6), 448-452.
- Bereznicki, B., Brown, D., Toomey, R., & Weston, J. (2008). *At the heart of what we do: Values education at the centre of schooling*. Carlton, Vic: Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations.
- Berg, B. L. (2001). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Beyer, L. E. (1997). The moral contours of teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 48(4), 245-254.
- Binnie, K. (2010). Parliament passes new teacher testing laws. Retrieved 21/03/2011, from <http://www.abc.net.au/news/stories/2010/02/25/2829560.htm>
- Birch, S. H., & Ladd, G. W. (1996). Interpersonal relationships in the school environment and children's early school adjustment: The role of teachers and peers. In J. Juvonen & K. R. Wentzel (Eds.), *Social motivation: Understanding children's school adjustment* (pp. 199-225). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Bleazby, J. (2006). Autonomy, democratic community, and citizenship in Philosophy for Children: Dewey and philosophy for children's rejection of the individual/community dualism. *Analytic teaching*, 26(1), 30-52.
- Block, A. A. (2008). Why should I be a teacher? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 59(5), 416-427.
- Bloomberg, L. D., & Volpe, M. (2008). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A roadmap from beginning to end*. California: Sage Publications.
- Blume, R. (1971). Humanizing Teacher Education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1971(March), 411-415.
- Bolotin Joseph, P. (2003). Teaching about the Moral Classroom: infusing the moral imagination into teacher education. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(1), 7.

- Brady, L. (2011). Teacher values and relationship: Factors in values education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(2), 56-66.
- Bransford, J., Darling-Hammond, L., & LePage, P. (2005). Introduction. In L. Darling-Hammond & J. Bransford (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do* (pp. 1-39). San Francisco: John Wiley and Sons.
- Brookhart, S. M., & Freeman, D. J. (1992). Characteristics of entering teacher candidates. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(1), 37-60.
- Brown, D. H. (2007). A vision splendid? The national initiative in values education for Australian schooling. In Aspin & Chapman (Eds.), *Values education and lifelong learning: Principles, policies, programmes* (pp. 211-237). The Netherlands: Springer.
- Brown, N., Morehead, P., & Smith, J. B. (2008). ...But I Love Children: Changing elementary teacher candidates' conceptions of the qualities of effective teachers. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 2008(Winter), 169-183.
- Bruner, J. S. (1966). *Toward a theory of instruction*. Cambridge, MA: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.
- Burant, T. J., Chubbuck, S. M., & Whipp, J. L. (2007). Reclaiming the moral in the dispositions debate. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 58(5), 397-410.
- Burgh, G., Field, T., & Freakley, M. (2006). *Ethics and the Community of Inquiry: Education for deliberative democracy*. Melbourne: Thomson Social Science Press.
- Burgh, G., & O'Brien, M. (2002). Philosophy and education: Integrating curriculum, teaching, and learning. *Critical and Creative Thinking*, 10(1), 45-58.
- Cairns, J. (2000). Morals, ethics and citizenship in contemporary teaching. In R. Gardner, J. Cairns & D. Lawton (Eds.), *Education for Values: Morals, ethics and citizenship in contemporary teaching* (pp. 6-23). London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Calderhead, J., & Robson, M. (1991). Images of teaching: Student teachers' early conceptions of classroom practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 7(1), 1-8.
- Cam, P. (1995). *Thinking Together: Philosophical inquiry for the classroom*. Alexandria, NSW: Hal & Iremonger.
- Cam, P. (2006a). *20 Thinking Tools: Collaborative inquiry for the classroom*. Camberwell, Vic.: ACER Press.
- Cam, P. (2006b). *Philosophy and the school curriculum: Some general remarks*. Paper presented at the Inaugural Conference on Philosophy in Schools Singapore, April 2006.
- Cam, P., Fynnes-Clinton, L., Harrison, K., Hinton, L., Scholl, R., & Vaseo, S. (2007). *Philosophy with young children: A classroom handbook*. Deakin, ACT: Australian Curriculum Studies Association.
- Campbell, R. J., Kyriakides, L., Muijs, R. D., & Robinson, W. (2004). Effective teaching and values: some implications for research and teacher appraisal. *Oxford Review of Education*, 30(4), 451-465.
- Carnegie Corporation of New York. (1994). *Years of Promise: A comprehensive learning strategy for America's children. Executive summary*. New York.
- Carr, D. (2005). Personal and interpersonal relationships in education and teaching: A virtue ethical perspective. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 53(3), 255-271.

- Carr, D. (2006). Professional and personal values and virtues in education and teaching. *Oxford Review of Education*, 32(2), 171-183.
- Carr, D. (2007). Character in teaching. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 55(4), 369-389.
- Carrington, S. (2007). Developing an inclusive school culture. In M. Keeffe & S. Carrington (Eds.), *Schools and diversity* (2nd ed., pp. 31-45). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education Australia.
- Carroll, D. (2005). Developing dispositions for teaching: Teacher education programs as moral communities of practice. *The New Educator*, 1(2), 81-100.
- Carson, B. H. (1996). Thirty years of stories: The professor's place in student memories. *Change*, 28(6), 10-17.
- Charles, C. M. (2008). *Building classroom discipline* (9th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Clement, N. (2007). Perspectives from research and practice in values education. In T. Lovat & R. Toomey (Eds.), *Values education and quality teaching: The double helix effect* (pp. 13-27). Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Clement, N. (2010). Student wellbeing at school: The actualization of values in education. In T. Lovat, R. Toomey & N. Clement (Eds.), *International research handbook on values education and student wellbeing* (pp. 37-62). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (2001). Higher standards for prospective teachers: What's missing from the discourse? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52(3), 179-181.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (2004). The problem of teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 55(4), 295-299.
- Cochran-Smith, M., & Fries, K. (2008). Research on teacher education. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D. J. McIntyre & K. Demers (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (pp. 1050-1093). New York: Routledge.
- Cochran-Smith, M., & Zeichner, K. M. (Eds.). (2005). *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education*. Washington: American Educational Research Association.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* (7th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Collinson, V. (1996). *Staff Development through Inquiry: Opening a Pandora's Box of Teacher Beliefs*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators St Louis. Retrieved from <http://gateway.library.qut.edu.au/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=ED393842&site=ehost-live>
- Collinson, V. (1999). Redefining teacher excellence. *Theory into Practice*, 38(1), 4-11.
- Colnerud, G. (2006). Teacher ethics as a research problem: Syntheses achieved and new issues. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 12(3), 365-385.
- Cornelius-White, J. (2007). Learner-centered teacher-student relationships are effective: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 113-143.
- Cotton, K. (1988). Classroom Questioning. *School Improvement Research Series*, 5. Retrieved from <http://www.learner.org/workshops/socialstudies/pdf/session6/6.ClassroomQuestioning.pdf>

- Council for the Australian Federation. (2007). *Federalist Paper 2: The future of schooling in Australia*. Melbourne: Department of Premier and Cabinet - Victoria.
- Craig, S. D., Sullins, J., Witherspoon, A., & Gholson, B. (2006). The deep-level-reasoning-questioning effect: The role of dialogue and deep-level-reasoning questions during vicarious learning. *Cognition and Instruction, 24*(4), 565-591.
- Crebbin, W. (2004). *Quality teaching and learning: Challenging orthodoxies*. New York: Peter Lang Publishing.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education.
- Crick, R. D., & Wilson, K. (2005). Being a learner: A virtue for the 21st century. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 53*(3), 359-374.
- Cummings, R., Maddux, C. D., & Cladianos, A. (2010). Moral reasoning of education students: The effects of direct instruction in moral development theory and participation in moral dilemma discussion. *Teachers College Record, 112*(3), 621-644.
- Curriculum Corporation. (2006). *Statements of Learning for Civics and Citizenship*. Carlton, Vic: Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs.
- Curtis, E. (2010). Embedding 'philosophy in the classroom' in pre-service teacher education. In R. Toomey, T. Lovat, N. Clement & K. Dally (Eds.), *Teacher education and values pedagogy: A student wellbeing approach* (pp. 108-120). Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Daniel, M.-F., & Auriac, E. (2009). Philosophy, critical thinking and philosophy for children. *Educational Philosophy & Theory, Early View*(November 2009).
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1996). What matters most: A competent teacher for every child. *Phi Delta Kappan, 78*(3), 193-200.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher quality and student achievement: A review of state policy evidence. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 8*(1), 1-44.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2004). Standards, accountability, and school reform. *Teachers College Record, 106*(6), 1047-1085.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2005). Educating the new educator: Teacher education and the future of democracy. *The New Educator, 1*(1), 1-18.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st-Century teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 57*(3), 300-314.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education, 61*(1-2), 35-47.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Youngs, P. (2002). Defining "highly qualified teachers": What does "scientifically-based research" actually tell us? *Educational Researcher, 31*(9), 13-25.
- Dasoo, N. (2010). Nurturing teacher wellbeing through values education. In T. Lovat, R. Toomey & N. Clement (Eds.), *International research handbook on values education and student wellbeing* (pp. 359-375). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Davey Chesters, S. (forthcoming). *The Socratic Classroom*. The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.
- David, J. L. (2011). High-stakes testing narrows the curriculum. *Educational Leadership, 68*(6), 78-80.

- DEEWR. (2011). *Digital education revolution - overview*. Retrieved from <http://www.deewr.gov.au/Schooling/DigitalEducationRevolution/Pages/default.aspx>.
- Delors, J. (1996). *Learning: The treasure within. Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century*. Paris UNESCO.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2003). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and Interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed., pp. 1-45). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Department of Education Employment and Workplace Relations. (2009). *Values for Australian schooling - Building values across the whole school: Professional learning program*.
- Department of Education Employment and Workplace Relations. (2011). Improving teacher quality. Retrieved 18/03/2011, from <http://www.smarterschools.gov.au/nationalpartnerships/Pages/ImprovingTeacherQuality.aspx>
- Department of Education Science and Training. (2005). *National framework for values education in Australian schools*.
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education: An introduction to the philosophy of education*: The Floating Press.
- Dewey, J. (1964). *John Dewey on education: Selected writings*. New York: Modern Library.
- Dewey, J. (1991). *How We Think*. New York: Prometheus Books.
- Dottin, E. S. (2009). Professional judgment and dispositions in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25, 83-88.
- Doyle, W. (1986). Classroom organization and management In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed.). New York: Macmillan.
- Drucker, P. F. (1994). The age of social transformation. *The Atlantic Monthly*, 274, 53-80.
- Eckersley, R. (2004). *A revolution of wellbeing. Recognising why values matter: Individualism versus community*. Paper presented at the 2004 Communities in Control conference, convened by Our Community and Catholic Social Services. Retrieved from www.ourcommunity.com.au/control/control_main.jsp
- Edwards, J. (1996). Planning for values education in the school curriculum. In J. M. Halstead & M. J. Taylor (Eds.), *Values in education and education in values* (pp. 167-179). London: The Falmer Press.
- Eisner, E. (2006). The satisfactions of teaching. *Educational Leadership*, 63(6), 44-46.
- Facione, P. A. (2007). Critical thinking: What it is and why it counts. *Insight Assessment*. Retrieved from http://www.insightassessment.com/pdf_files/what&why98.pdf
- Fantilli, R. D., & McDougall, D. E. (2009). A study of novice teachers: Challenges and supports in the first years. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(6), 814-825.

- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: Designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record*, 103(6), 1013-1055.
- Fenstermacher, G. D. (1990). Some moral considerations on teaching as a profession. In J. Goodlad, R. Soder & K. A. Sirotnik (Eds.), *The moral dimensions of teaching* (pp. 130-151). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fern, E. F. (2001). *Advanced focus group research*. Thousand oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Fierro Evans, C. (2005). Values in the practice of teaching, and questions for quality and equity in schools. *Improving Schools*, 8(1), 59-77.
- Fisher, R. (1998). *Teaching thinking: Philosophical enquiry for the classroom*. London: Cassell.
- Fisher, R. (2000). Philosophy for children: How philosophical enquiry can foster values education in schools. In R. Gardner, J. Cairns & D. Lawton (Eds.), *Education for Values: Morals, ethics and citizenship in contemporary teaching* (pp. 50-66). London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Flick, U. (2002). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (2003). The interview: From structured questions to negotiated text. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed., pp. 61-106). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (2005). The interview: From neutral stance to political involvement. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 695-727). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Gazzard, A. (2002). Emotional intelligence: Does philosophy have a part to play? *Analytic Teaching*, 21(2), 140-150.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Glina, M. (2009). Democracy as morality: Using philosophical dialogue to cultivate safe learning communities. *Analytic Teaching and Philosophical Praxis*, 29(1), 31-38.
- Goldberg, M. F. (2004). The test mess. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 85(5), 361-.
- Golding, C. (2006). What is philosophy in schools? *Critical and Creative Thinking*, 14(1), 1-21.
- Goldstein, L. S., & Freedman, D. (2003). Challenges enacting caring teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 54(5), 441-454.
- Goldstein, L. S., & Lake, V. E. (2000). "Love, love, and more love for children": exploring preservice teachers' understandings of caring. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16(8), 861-872.
- Gondo, M., Amis, J., & Vardaman, J. (2009). Case within a case. In E. Wiebe, A. J. Mills & G. Durepos (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Goodlad, J. (1994). *What schools are for* (2nd ed.). Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Grossman, P., Schoenfield, A., & Lee, C. (2005). Teaching subject matter. In L. Darling-Hammond & J. Bransford (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do* (pp. 201-222). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Guy, G. V., Spalding, W., B., & Westcott, H. E. (1961). The role of values in teacher education. *The Journal of Teacher Education*, 12(1), 12-17.
- Halstead, J. M., & Pike, M. A. (2006). *Citizenship and Moral Education: Values in action*. London: Routledge.
- Hammond, M., Crosson, S., Fragkouli, E., Ingram, J., Johnston-Wilder, P., Johnston-Wilder, S., et al. (2009). Why do some student teachers make very good use of ICT? An exploratory case study. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, 18(1), 59-73.
- Hansen, D. T. (2001). Reflections on the manner in teaching project. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 33(6), 729-735.
- Hansen, D. T. (2001). Teaching as a moral activity. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (Fourth ed., pp. 826-857). Washington: American Educational Research Association.
- Hanson, K. (2011). 'Reflect' - is this too much to ask? *Reflective Practice*, 12(3), 293-304.
- Hargreaves, A. (1997). Rethinking educational change: Going deeper and wider in the quest for success. In A. Hargreaves (Ed.), *Rethinking Educational Change with Heart and Mind: 1997 ASCD Yearbook* (pp. 1-26). Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Harris, K. (1999). Aims! Whose aims? In R. Marples (Ed.), *The aims of education* (pp. 1-13). London: Routledge.
- Harrison, J., MacGibbon, L., & Morton, M. (2001). Regimes of trustworthiness in qualitative research: The rigors of reciprocity. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 7(3), 323-344.
- Hattie, J. (2003). *Teachers make a difference: What is the research evidence?* Paper presented at the Australian Council for Educational Research, October 2003. Retrieved from http://www.acer.edu.au/documents/Hattie_TeachersMakeADifference.pdf
- Hattie, J. (2004). It's official: Teachers make a difference. *Educare News: The National Newspaper for all Non-government Schools*, 2004(44), 24-31.
- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London: Routledge.
- Hayes, D., Mills, M., Christie, P., & Lingard, B. (2006). *Teachers and Schooling Making A Difference: Productive pedagogies, assessment and performance*. Crows Nest, NSW: Allen & Unwin.
- Haynes, J. (2008). *Children as philosophers: Learning through enquiry and dialogue in the primary classroom* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Heidegger, M. (1962). *Being and time* (J. Macquarie & E. Robinson, Trans.). New York: Harper and Row.
- Hill, B. (2006). Values in free fall? RE and values in public schools. *Journal of Religious Education*, 54(2), 51-58.
- Hill, B. V. (2004). *Values education in schools: Issues and challenges*. Paper presented at the National Values Education Forum.
- Hinton, L. (2003). Reinventing a school. *Critical and Creative Thinking*, 11(2), 47-60.
- Hollingsworth, S. (1989). Prior beliefs and cognitive change in learning to teach. *American Educational Research Journal*, 26(2), 160-189.
- Howard, R. W. (2005). Preparing moral educators in an era of standards-based reform. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 32(4), 43-58.

- Howard, R. W., Berkowitz, M. W., & Schaeffer, E. F. (2004). Politics of character education. *Educational Policy*, 18(1), 188-215.
- Humphrey, D. C., & Weschler, M. E. (2007). Insights into alternative certification: Initial findings from a national study. *Teachers College Record*, 109(3), 483-530.
- Jimoyiannis, A., & Komis, V. (2007). Examining teachers' beliefs about ICT in education: implications of a teacher preparation programme. *Teacher Development*, 11(2), 149-173.
- Jones, H. (2004). A research-based approach on teaching to diversity. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 31(1), 12-19.
- Jones, M. G., & Carter, G. (2006). Science teacher attitudes and beliefs. In S. K. Abell & N. G. Lederman (Eds.), *Handbook of research on science education* (pp. 1067-1104). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kaffash, H. R., Kargiban, Z. A., Karigban, S. A., & Ramezani, M. T. (2010). A close look in to the role of ICT in education. *International Journal of Instruction*, 3(2), 63-82.
- Kalantzis, M., Cope, B., & Harvey, A. (2001). *New Learning: A charter for Australian education*. Canberra: The Australian Council of Deans of Education.
- Kalantzis, M., & Harvey, A. (2004). *New teaching, new learning: A vision for Australian education*. Canberra: Australian Council of Deans of Education Incorporated,.
- Katzner, L. I., & Nieman, D. G. (2006). Making values education everyone's business. *About Campus*, 11(5), 16-23.
- Kaye, Z., & Sexton, A. (2004). Questioning curriculum: (Re-)introducing philosophy for children. *Teacher Learning Network*, 11(1), 3-5.
- Keeffe, M. (2007). The inclusive society. In M. Keeffe & S. Carrington (Eds.), *Schools and diversity* (2nd ed., pp. 17-30). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education Australia.
- Knight, S., & Collins, C. (2010). Enlivening the curriculum: The power of philosophical inquiry. *Theory and Research in Education*, 8(3), 305-318.
- Kohn, A. (2005). Unconditional teaching. *Educational Leadership*, 63(1), 20-24.
- Korthagen. (2004). In search of the essence of a good teacher: towards a more holistic approach in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(1), 77-97.
- Korthagen, & Kessels, J. P. A. M. (1999). Linking Theory and Practice: Changing the Pedagogy of Teacher Education. *Educational Researcher*, 28(4), 4-17.
- Korthagen, F., Loughran, J., & Russell, T. (2006). Developing fundamental principles for teacher education programs and practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(8), 1020-1041.
- Kottler, J. A., Zehm, S. J., & Kottler, E. (2005). *On being a teacher: The human dimension* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Kounin, J. S. (1970). *Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Krueger, R. A. (1994). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2000). *Focus Groups: A practical guide for applied research* (Third ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Lago, J. C. (1991). The Community of Inquiry and the Development of Self-Esteem. *Thinking: The Journal of Philosophy for Children*, 9(1), 12-16.

- Landorf, H., Rocco, T. S., & Nevin, A. (2007). Creating permeable boundaries: teaching and learning for social justice in a global society. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 34(1), 41-56.
- Larrivee, B. (2000). Transforming teaching practice: Becoming the critically reflective teacher. *Reflective Practice*, 1(3), 293-307.
- Larrivee, B. (2009). *Authentic classroom management: Creating a learning community and building reflective practice* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- LePage, P., Darling-Hammond, L., Akar, H., Gutierrez, C., Jenkins-gunn, E., & Rosebruck, R. (2005). Classroom Management. In L. Darling-Hammond & J. Bransford (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do* (pp. 327-357). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Lerum, K. (2001). Subjects of desire: Academic armour, intimate ethnography, and the production of critical knowledge. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 7(4), 466-483.
- Levine, A. (2006). *Educating school teachers*. Retrieved from http://www.edschools.org/pdf/Educating_Teachers_Report.pdf.
- Lickona, T. (1991). *Educating for character: How our schools can teach respect and responsibility*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lindop, C. (1991). Critical thinking and philosophy for children: The educational value of philosophy. *Thinking: The Journal of Philosophy for Children*, 9(3), 32-35.
- Lipman, M. (1988). *Philosophy Goes to School*. Philadelphia: Temple Press.
- Lipman, M. (2003). *Thinking in Education* (2nd ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Lipman, M., Sharp, A. M., & Oscanyan, F. (1980). *Philosophy in the Classroom* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Litosseliti, L. (2003). *Using focus groups in research*. London: Continuum.
- Loughran, J. (2006). *Developing a pedagogy of teacher education: Understanding teaching and learning about teaching*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Loughran, J. (2007). Enacting a pedagogy of teacher education. In T. Russell & J. Loughran (Eds.), *Enacting a pedagogy of teacher education: Values, relationships and practices* (pp. 1-15). London: Routledge.
- Lovat, T. (2006). *Values education: The missing link in quality teaching*. Paper presented at the The National Values Education Forum, Canberra, May 2006.
- Lovat, T. (2007a). *Synergies and balance between values education and quality teaching*. Paper presented at the Moral Education and Australian Values Conference. Retrieved from <http://www.education.monash.edu/research/conferences/moral-education/index.html>
- Lovat, T. (2007b). Values education and quality teaching: Two sides of the learning coin. In T. Lovat & R. Toomey (Eds.), *Values education and quality teaching: The double helix effect* (pp. 1-12). Terrigal NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Lovat, T., & Clement, N. (2008). Quality teaching and values education: coalescing for effective learning. *Journal of Moral Education*, 37(1), 1 - 16.
- Lovat, T., Dally, K., Clement, N., & Toomey, R. (2011). *Values pedagogy and student achievement: Contemporary research evidence*. Dordrecht: Springer.

- Lovat, T., & Toomey, R. (2007a). *The 'double helix' relationship between quality teaching and values education: Emerging issues for teacher educators*. Canberra: Australian Council of Deans Incorporated.
- Lovat, T., & Toomey, R. (2007b). Values education: A brief history to today. In T. Lovat & R. Toomey (Eds.), *Values education and quality teaching: The double helix effect* (pp. xi-xix). Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Lovat, T., & Toomey, R. (Eds.). (2007c). *Values education and quality teaching: The double helix effect*. Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Lovat, T., Toomey, R., & Clement, N. (Eds.). (2010). *International research handbook on values education and student well-being*. Dordrecht: Springer.
- Lovat, T., Toomey, R., Clement, N., Crotty, R., & Nielsen, T. W. (2009). *Values Education, Quality Teaching and Service Learning: A troika for effective teaching and teacher education*. Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Lovat, T., Toomey, R., Dally, K., & Clement, N. (2009). *Project to test and measure the impact of values education on student effects and school ambience*. Canberra: Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR).
- Lunenberg, M., Korthagen, F., & Willemse, M. (2007). Value-based teacher education. In T. Russell & J. Loughran (Eds.), *Enacting a Pedagogy of Teacher Education: Values, relationships and practices* (pp. 166-181). London: Routledge.
- Mandel, S. (2006). What new teachers really need. *Educational Leadership*, 63(6), 66-69.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2006). *Designing qualitative research* (Fourth ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Marshall, J. (1992). Researching women in management as a way of life. *Management, Education and Development*, 23(3), 281-289.
- Martin, A. J. (2006). The relationship between teachers' perceptions of student motivation and engagement and teachers' enjoyment of and confidence in teaching. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(1), 73-93.
- Martin, A. J., Linfoot, K., & Stephenson, J. (1999). How teachers respond to concerns about misbehaviour in their classroom. *Psychology in the Schools*, 36(4), 347-358.
- Masters, G. N. (2009). *A shared challenge: Improving literacy, numeracy and science learning in Queensland primary schools*. Camberwell, Vic: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- McCall, C. C. (2009). *Transforming thinking: Philosophical inquiry in the primary and secondary classroom*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- McCardle, F. (2010). Preparing quality teachers: Making learning visible. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(8), 60-78.
- McKinsey and Company. (2007). *How the world's best-performing school systems come out on top*: McKinsey and Company.
- McLeod, J. (2003). Why we interview now: Reflexivity and perspective in a longitudinal study. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 6(3), 201-211.
- McLeod, J., & Thomson, R. (2009). *Researching social change: Qualitative approaches*. London: Sage Publications.
- McLeod, J. H., & Reynolds, R. (2007). *Quality Teaching for Quality Learning: PLanning through Reflection*. Melbourne: Thomson Social Science Press.

- McNeil, M. (2010). Duncan carving deep mark on policy: Education secretary's first year in office provides template for agency's direction. *Education Week*, 29(18), 1-4.
- Meijer, P. C., Korthagen, F. A. J., & Vasalos, A. (2009). Supporting presence in teacher education: The connection between the personal and professional aspects of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(2), 297-308.
- Mergler, A., Curtis, E., & Spooner-Lane, R. (2009). Teacher educators embrace philosophy: Reflections on a new way of looking at preparing pre-service teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(5), 1-14.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. B., & Associates. (2002). *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mertens, D. M. (2005). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Meyer, D. K., & Turner, J. C. (2007). Scaffolding emotions in classrooms. In P. A. Schutz & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotion in education* (pp. 243-258). Burlington, MA: Elsevier.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *An Expanded Sourcebook: Qualitative Data Analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Miller, R. (1999). Holistic education for an emerging culture. In S. Glazer (Ed.), *The heart of learning: Spirituality in education* (pp. 189-201). New York: Jeremy P. Tarcher/Putnam.
- Millet, S. (2004). *We can't teach values, can we?* Paper presented at the 2004 National Educators' Conference.
- Millet, S. (2006). *Teaching philosophy in Australian schools*. Paper presented at the Inaugural Conference on Philosophy in Schools Singapore, April 2006.
- Millet, S. (2007). Coming in from the margins: Teaching philosophy in Australian schools. *Thinking: The Journal of Philosophy for Children*, 19(1), 36-43.
- Millet, S., & Tapper, A. (2011). Benefits of collaborative philosophical inquiry in schools. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 2011(Early View).
- Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs. (2003). *A national framework for professional standards for teaching*.
- Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs. (2008). *Melbourne declaration on educational goals for young Australians*.
- Morgan, D. L. (1997). *Focus groups as qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Murray, S., Nuttall, J., & Mitchell, J. (2008). Research into initial teacher education in Australia: A survey of the literature 1995-2004. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(1), 225-239.
- MYCEETYA. (2005). *Contemporary learning: learning in an online world*. Carlton South, Vic: Curriculum Corporation.
- Narvaez, D. (2010). Building a sustaining classroom climate for purposeful ethical citizenship. In T. Lovat, R. Toomey & N. Clement (Eds.), *International research handbook on values education and student wellbeing* (pp. 659-673). Dordrecht: Springer.

- Neale, B., & Flowerdew, J. (2003). Time, texture and childhood: The contours of longitudinal qualitative research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 6(3), 189-199.
- Neuman, W. L. (2004a). *Basics of social research: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston: Pearson Education.
- Neuman, W. L. (2004b). *Basics of social research: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston: Pearson Education.
- Newmann, F. M., & Associates. (1996). *Authentic achievement: Restructuring schools for intellectual quality*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Newspoll Market Research. (2007). *What young people are thinking*.
- Nielsen, T. W. (2005). Values education through thinking, feeling and doing. *Social Educator*, 23(2), 39-48.
- Noddings, N. (1984). *Caring: A feminine approach to ethics and moral education*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Noddings, N. (1997). A morally defensible mission for the schools in the 21st century. In E. Clinchy (Ed.), *Transforming public education: A new course for America's future* (pp. 27-37). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Noddings, N. (2001). The caring teacher. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (4th ed., pp. 99-105). Washington: American Educational Research Association.
- Noddings, N. (2005a). *The challenge to care in schools: An alternative approach to education* (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Noddings, N. (2005b). What does it mean to educate the whole child? *Educational Leadership*, 63(1), 8-13.
- Noddings, N. (2006). *Critical Lessons: What our schools should teach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Nuthall, G. (2005). The cultural myths and realities of classroom teaching and learning: A personal journey. *Teachers College Record*, 107(5), 895-934.
- OECD. (2005). *Teachers matter: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*: OECD.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Dickinson, W. B., Leech, N. L., & Zoran, A. G. (2009). A qualitative framework for collecting and analyzing data in focus groups. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(3), 1-21.
- Osguthorpe, R. D. (2008). On the reasons we want teachers of good disposition and moral character. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 59(4), 288-299.
- Osterman, K. F. (2000). Students' need for belonging in the school community. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(3), 323-367.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' Beliefs and Educational Research: Cleaning up a Messy Construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307 - 332.
- Palmer. (1999). The grace of great things: Reclaiming the sacred in knowing, teaching, and learning. In S. Glazer (Ed.), *The heart of learning: Spirituality in education* (pp. 15-32). New York: Jeremy P. Tarcher/Putnam.
- Pardales, M. J., & Girod, M. (2006). Community of inquiry: Its past and present future. *Educational Philosophy & Theory*, 38(3), 299-309.
- Patry, J.-I., Weyringer, S., & Weinberger, A. (2007). Combining values and knowledge education. In Aspin & Chapman (Eds.), *Values education and lifelong learning: Principles, policies, programmes* (pp. 160-179). The Netherlands: Springer.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). California: Sage Publications.

- Paul, R. W. (1993). *Critical thinking: How to prepare students for a rapidly changing world*. Santa Rosa, CA: Foundation for Critical Thinking.
- Perakyla, A. (2005). Analyzing talk and text. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 869-886). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pianta, R. C., & Stuhlman, M. W. (2004). Teacher-child relationships and children's success in the first years of school. *School Psychology Review, 33*(3), 444-458.
- Planas, C. C. (2003). The role of the community of inquiry in the process of knowing. *Analytic Teaching, 23*(2), 84-96.
- Power, F. C., Higgins, A., & Kohlberg, L. (1989). *Lawrence Kohlberg's approach to moral education*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Powney, J., Cullen, M.-A., Schlapp, U., Glissov, P., Johnstone, M., & Munn, P. (1995). *Understanding values education in the primary school*. Edinburgh: The Scottish Council for Research in Education.
- Pring, R. (2001). Education as a moral practice. *Journal of Moral Education, 30*(2), 101-112.
- Pring, R. (2010). Introduction. In T. Lovat, R. Toomey & N. Clement (Eds.), *International research handbook on values education and student wellbeing* (pp. xix-xxiv). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Pritchard, A. (2005). *Ways of learning: Learning theories and learning styles in the classroom*. London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Queensland College of Teachers. (2006). *Professional standards for Queensland teachers*. Retrieved from <http://www.qct.edu.au/Publications/ProfessionalStandards/ProfessionalStandardsForQldTeachers2006.pdf>.
- Ramsey, G., Mowbray, B., & Moore, J. (2001). Teacher educators: Making and leading a quality profession. In K. J. Kennedy (Ed.), *Beyond the rhetoric: Building a teaching profession to support quality teaching* (pp. 96-103). Deakin, ACT: The Australian College of Education.
- Renshaw, P. D. (2004). Dialogic learning teaching and instruction. In J. van der Linden & P. D. Renshaw (Eds.), *Dialogic learning: Shifting perspectives to learning, instruction, and teaching* (pp. 1-15). New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Revell, L., & Arthur, J. (2007). Character education in schools and the education of teachers. *Journal of Moral Education, 36*(1), 79 - 92.
- Richards, L., & Morse, J. M. (2007). *Readme First for a User's Guide to Qualitative Methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Richards, R. (1960). Prospective students' attitudes toward teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education, 11*(3), 375-380.
- Robinson, W., & Campbell, R. J. (2010). School values and effective pedagogy: Case studies of two leading edge schools in England. In T. Lovat, R. Toomey & N. Clement (Eds.), *International research handbook on values education and student wellbeing* (pp. 75-90). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Robson, C. (1993). *Real World Research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Rodgers, C. R., & Raider-Roth, M. B. (2006). Presence in teaching. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice, 12*(3), 265-287.

- Roeser, R. W., Eccles, J. s., & Sameroff, A. J. (2000). School as a context of early adolescents' academic and social-emotional development: A summary of research findings. *The Elementary School Journal*, 100(5), 443-471.
- Rogers, C. R. (1969). *Freedom to learn*. Columbus: Charles E Merrill.
- Rogers, C. R. (1983). *Freedom to learn: For the 80s*. Columbus: Charles E Merrill.
- Rompelman, L. (2002). *Affective Teaching*. Maryland: University Press of America.
- Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (2003). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Rowe, K. J. (2004a). *The importance of teaching: Ensuring better schooling by building teacher capacities that maximise the quality of teaching and learning provision - implications of findings from emerging international and Australian evidence-based research*. Paper presented at the Making Schools Better Conference: A Summit Conference on the Performance, Management and Funding of Australian Schools.
- Rowe, K. J. (2004b). In good hands? The importance of teacher quality. *Educare News: The National Newspaper for all Non-government Schools*, 149, 4-14.
- Rubie-Davies, C. (2006). Teacher expectations and student self-perceptions: Exploring relationships. *Psychology in the Schools*, 43(5), 537-552.
- Ryan, G. W., & Bernard, H. R. (2003). Data management and analysis methods. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and Interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed., pp. 259-309). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Sadker, M., & Sadker, D. (2006). Questioning skills. In J. Cooper (Ed.), *Classroom teaching skills* (8th ed., pp. 104-150). Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Schaps, E. (2003). Creating a school community. *Educational Leadership*, 60(6), 31-33.
- Scheurich, J. J. (1995). A postmodernist critique of research interviewing. *International journal of qualitative studies in education*, 8(3), 239-252.
- Schussler, D. I., Bercaw, L. A., & Stooksberry, L. M. (2008). Using case studies to explore teacher candidates' intellectual, cultural, and moral dispositions. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 2008(Spring), 105-122.
- Seidman, I. (1998). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences* (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Sharp, A. M. (1991). The community of inquiry: Education for democracy. *Thinking: The Journal of Philosophy for Children*, 9(2), 31-37.
- Sherman, S. (2006). Moral dispositions in teacher education: Making them matter. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 2006(Fall), 41-57.
- Shoffner, M. (2009). The place of the personal: Exploring the affective domain through reflection in teacher preparation. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(6), 783-789.
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4-14.
- Shulman, L. S. (2000). Teacher development: Roles of domain expertise and pedagogical knowledge. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 21(1), 129-135.
- Silverman, D. (2003). Analyzing talk and text. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed., pp. 340-362). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing Qualitative Research: A practical handbook*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

- Silvestri, L. (2001). Pre-service teachers' self-reported knowledge of classroom management. *Education*, 121(3), 575-580.
- Sirotnik, K. A. (1990). Society, schooling, teaching, and preparing to teach. In J. Goodlad, R. Soder & K. A. Sirotnik (Eds.), *The moral dimensions of teaching* (pp. 296-327). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Slee, R. (2007). Inclusive education - aspirations scrambled by the yoke of history? In M. Keeffe & S. Carrington (Eds.), *Schools and diversity* (2nd ed., pp. 1-16). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education Australia.
- Smith, J. (2010). *Talk, thinking and philosophy in the primary classroom*. Exeter: Learning Matters.
- Snowman, Dobozy, Scevak, Byer, Bartlett, & Biehler. (2009). *Psychology applied to teaching* (1st Australian ed.). Milton, Qld: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sockett, H., & LePage, P. (2002). The missing language of the classroom. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18(2), 159-171.
- Splitter, L. (2007). Do the groups to which I belong make me me?: Reflections on community and identity. *Theory and Research in Education*, 5(3), 261-280.
- Splitter, L., & Sharp, A. M. (1995). *Teaching for better thinking: The classroom community of inquiry*. Melbourne: The Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Spooner-Lane, R., Curtis, E., & Mergler, A. (2010). Embracing philosophy and raising the standard of pre-service teacher education programs. In T. Lovat, R. Toomey & N. Clement (Eds.), *International Research Handbook on Values Education and Student Well-Being* (pp. 377-394). Dordrecht: Springer
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stake, R. E. (2003). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry* (2nd ed., pp. 134-164). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 443-466). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stuart, C., & Thurlow, D. (2000). Making It Their Own: Preservice Teachers' Experiences, Beliefs, and Classroom Practices. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(2), 113-121.
- Tan, S., & Leong, T. C. (2006). *The place of philosophy in affective education*. Paper presented at the Inaugural Conference on Philosophy in Schools Singapore, April 2006.
- Tangen, D. (2010). Diverse learning approaches. In D. Tangen, T. Sedgley, A. Mergler, D. Bland, E. Curtis, R. Spooone-Lane & L. Mercer (Eds.), *Engaging diverse learners* (pp. 25-48). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education Australia.
- Tangen, D., Sedgley, T., Mergler, A., Bland, D., Curtis, E., Spooone-Lane, R., et al. (2010). *Engaging Diverse Learners* (2nd ed.). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Australia.
- Taylor, M. (1994). Overview of values education in 26 European countries. In T. M (Ed.), *Values education in Europe: A comparative overview of a survey of 26 countries in 1993* (pp. 1-66). Dundee: Scottish Consultative Council on the Curriculum.
- The University of Queensland. (2001). *The Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study*. Brisbane: The State of Queensland (Department of Education).

- Thomson, R., Plumridge, L., & Holland, J. (2003). Longitudinal qualitative research: A developing methodology. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 6(3), 185-187.
- Thornberg, R. (2008). The lack of professional knowledge in values education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(7), 1791-1798.
- Thornton, H. (2006). Dispositions in Action: Do dispositions make a difference in practice? *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 2006(Spring), 53-68.
- Tirri, K. (1999). Teachers' perceptions of moral dilemmas at school. *Journal of Moral Education*, 28(1), 31-47.
- Tirri, K. (2010). Teacher values underlying professional ethics. In T. Lovat, R. Toomey & N. Clement (Eds.), *International research handbook on values education and student wellbeing* (pp. 153-161). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Toomey, R. (2006). *Values as the centrepiece of the school's work: A discussion paper on learnings from VEGPSP Stage 1*. Canberra: Curriculum Corporation.
- Toomey, R. (2007a). The double helix and its implications for the professional lifelong learning of teachers. In T. Lovat & R. Toomey (Eds.), *Values Education and Quality Teaching: The double helix effect* (pp. 157-166). Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Toomey, R. (2007b). The double helix and its implications for the professional lifelong learning of teachers. In T. Lovat & R. Toomey (Eds.), *Values education and quality teaching: The double helix effect* (pp. 157-166). Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Toomey, R., Lovat, T., Clement, N., & Dally, K. (2010a). Preface. In R. Toomey, T. Lovat, N. Clement & K. Dally (Eds.), *Teacher education and values pedagogy: A student wellbeing approach* (pp. vii-xiv). Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Toomey, R., Lovat, T., Clement, N., & Dally, K. (Eds.). (2010b). *Teacher education and values pedagogy: A student wellbeing approach*. Terrigal, NSW: David Barlow Publishing.
- Topping, K. J., & Trickey, S. (2007a). Collaborative philosophical inquiry for schoolchildren: Cognitive gains at 2-year follow-up. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77(4), 787-796.
- Topping, K. J., & Trickey, S. (2007b). Impact of philosophical enquiry on school students' interactive behaviour. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 2(2), 73-84.
- Totterdell, M. (2000). The moralization of teaching: A relational approach as an ethical framework in the professional preparation and formation of teachers. In R. Gardner, J. Cairns & D. Lawton (Eds.), *Education for Values: Morals, ethics and citizenship in contemporary teaching* (pp. 127-146). London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Trickey, S., & Topping, K. J. (2004). 'Philosophy for children': A systematic review. *Research Papers in Education*, 19(3), 365-380.
- Tudbull, L. (2007). Whole-school approaches to values education: Models of practice in Australian schools. In D. Aspin & J. D. Chapman (Eds.), *Values education and lifelong learning: Principles, policies, programmes* (pp. 395-410). Dordrecht: Springer.
- UNESCO. (1994). *The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education*: UNESCO.
- UNESCO. (2001). *Universal declaration on cultural diversity*.
- UNESCO. (2007). *Philosophy: A School of Freedom*. Paris: UNESCO.

- United Nations. (2010). *General Assembly Resolution - Keeping the promise: United to achieve the Millennium Development Goals*: United Nations General Assembly.
- van Petegem, K., Aelterman, A., Rosseel, Y., & Creemers, B. (2007). Student perception as moderator for student wellbeing. *Social Indicators Research*, 83(3), 447-463.
- Van Petegem, K., Aelterman, A., Van Keer, H., & Rosseel, Y. (2006). The influence of student characteristics and interpersonal teacher behaviour in the classroom on student's wellbeing. *Social Indicators Research*, 85(2), 279-291.
- van Petegem, K., Aelterman, A., Van Keer, H., & Rosseel, Y. (2008). The influence of student characteristics and interpersonal teacher behaviour in the classroom on student's wellbeing. *Social Indicators Research*, 85(2), 279-291.
- Velasco, M. (2001). Philosophy for children: An alternative to re-signify the educative experience. *Analytic Teaching*, 20(2), 105-118.
- Veugelers, W., & Vedder, P. (2003). Values in teaching. *Teachers & Teaching*, 9(4), 377.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). *Thought and language* (E. Hanfmann & G. Vaker, Trans.): Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Wakefield, D. (1997). Who's teaching teachers about character education instruction?
- Walls, R. T., Nardi, A. H., von Minden, A. M., & Hoffman, N. (2002). The characteristics of effective and ineffective teachers. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 29(1), 369-348.
- Wang, M. C., Haertel, G. D., & Walberg, H. J. (1993). Toward a Knowledge Base for School Learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 63(3), 249-294.
- Wegerif, R. (2008). Dialogic or dialectic? The significance of ontological assumptions in research on educational dialogue. *British Educational Research Journal*, 34(3), 347-361.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1997). Student motivation in middle school: The role of perceived pedagogical caring. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89(3), 411-419.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1998). Social relationships and motivation in middle school: The role of parents, teachers, and peers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90(2), 202-209.
- Wentzel, K. R. (2002). Are effective teachers like good parents? Teaching styles and student adjustment in early adolescence. *Child Development*, 73(1), 287-301.
- Wenzlaff, T. L. (1998). Dispositions and portfolio development: Is there a connection? *Education*, 118(4), 564-572.
- Willemse, M., Lunenberg, M., & Korthagen, F. (2005). Values in education: a challenge for teacher educators. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(2), 205-217.
- Willis, J. W., Jost, M., & Nilakanta, R. (2007). *Foundations of qualitative research: Interpretive and critical approaches*. California: Sage Publications.
- Willms, J. D. (2000). Monitoring school performance for 'standards-based reform'. *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 14(3 & 4), 237-253.
- Wright, S. P., Horn, S. P., & Sanders, W. L. (1997). Teacher and classroom context effects on student achievement: Implications for teacher evaluation. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 11, 47-57.
- Zajonc, R. B. (1980). Feeling and Thinking: Preferences need no inferences. *American Psychologist*, 35(2), 151-175.

- Zbar, V., Brown, D., & Bereznicki, B. (2003). *Values Education Study: Final report August 2003*.
- Zbar, V., & Toomey, R. (2006). *Implementing the National Framework for Values Education in Australian Schools. Report of the Values Education Good Practice Schools Project - Stage 1. Final Report September 2006*. Carlton, Vic.: Curriculum Corporation,.
- Zecha, G. (2007). Opening the Road to Values Education. In Aspin & Chapman (Eds.), *Values education and lifelong learning: Principles, policies, programmes* (pp. 48-60). The Netherlands: Springer.
- Zeichner, K. M., & Tabachnick, B. R. (1981). Are the effects of university teacher education "washed out" by school experience? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(3), 7-11.
- Zumwalt, K., & Craig, E. (2005). Teachers' characteristics: Research on the indicators of quality. In M. Cochran-Smith & K. M. Zeichner (Eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education* (pp. 157-260). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.

Appendices

Appendix A

Professional Standards for Queensland Teachers

1. Design and implement engaging and flexible learning experiences for individuals and groups.
2. Design and implement learning experiences that develop language, literacy and numeracy.
3. Design and implement intellectually challenging learning experiences.
4. Design and implement learning experiences that value diversity
5. Assess and report constructively on student learning
6. Support personal development and participation in society
7. Create and maintain safe and supportive learning environments
8. Foster positive and productive relationships with families and the community
9. Contribute effectively to professional teams
10. Commit to reflective practice and ongoing professional renewal

(Queensland College of Teachers, 2006)

Appendix B

National Professional Standards for Teachers

1. Know students and how they learn
2. Know the content and how to teach it
3. Plan for and implement effective teaching and learning
4. Create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments
5. Assess, provide feedback and report on student learning
6. Engage in professional learning
7. Engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community

(Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011)

Appendix C

Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

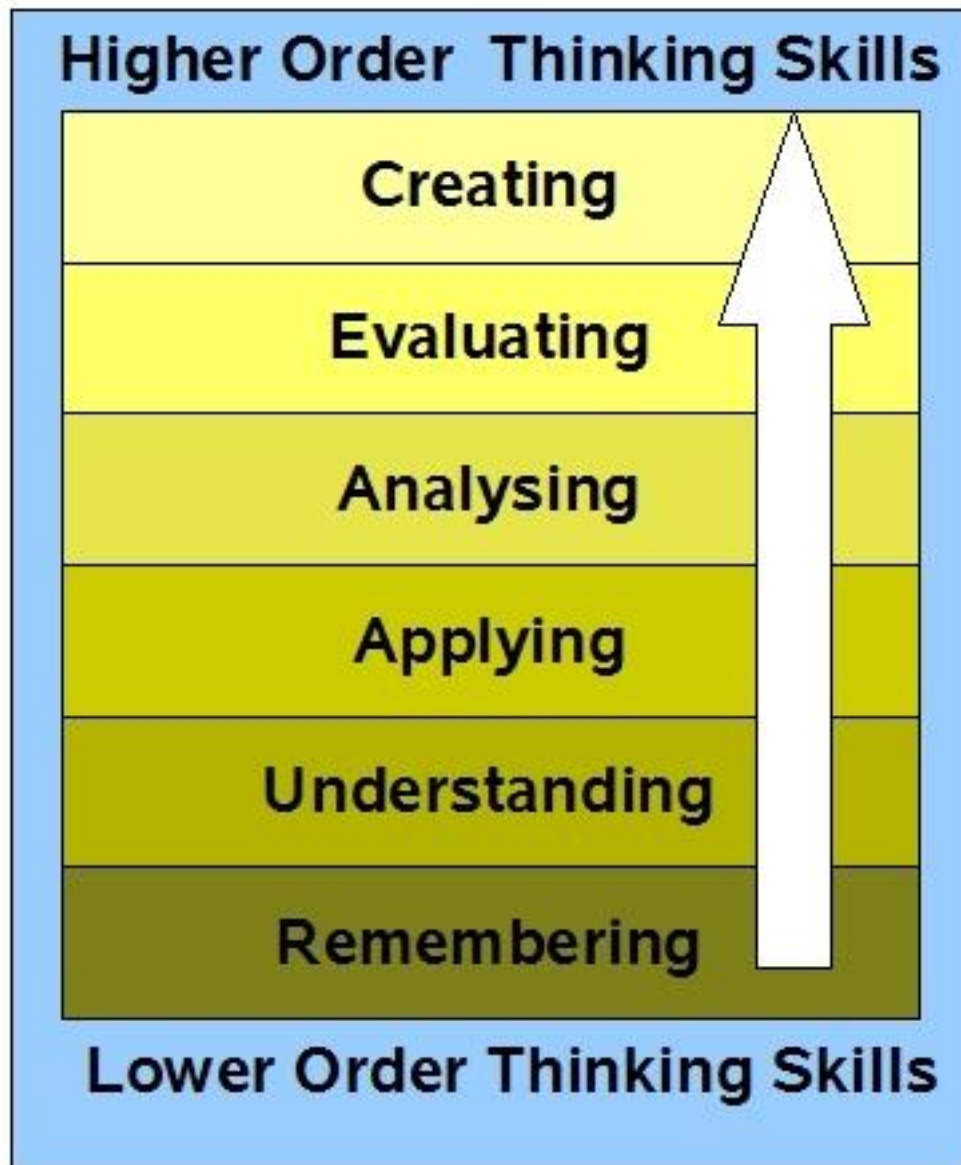


Image taken from

<http://www.edorigami.wikispaces.com/Bloom's+Digital+Taxonomy>

Appendix D

Pre-Service Teacher Focus Group Participant Information Sheet

Quality Teaching, Values and Pre-Service Teacher Education

Research Team Contacts

Elizabeth Curtis

PhD student

School of Learning & Professional Studies

07 3138 5922

e.curtis@qut.edu.au

Dr. Rebecca Spooner-Lane

Principal Supervisor

School of Learning & Professional Studies

07 3138 8619

rs.spooner@qut.edu.au

Description

This project is being undertaken as part of a PhD project for Elizabeth Curtis and is supervised by Dr. Rebecca Spooner-Lane and Prof. Wendy Patton from QUT.

The overall aim of this study is to develop a conceptual model to inform research and practice into the development of quality teaching, through the explicit use of values, within pre-service teacher education programmes. This project will investigate the ways in which pre-service teachers are trained to be quality teachers, and the links of this to values. Quality teaching is defined as teaching that makes a positive difference in students' learning and their lives. It is a balance between knowledge, actions and the affective. Although research has examined quality teaching; the teaching of values in schools; and the training of teachers in values education through in-service programmes, values education and its link to quality teaching in pre-service teacher education programmes has not been adequately researched. This study aims to address this gap by exploring quality teaching and values in the teacher education programme at QUT.

The research team requests your assistance because you can help us to understand pre-service teachers' views, attitudes and beliefs about quality teaching, values in education and pre-service teacher education.

Participation

Your participation in this project is voluntary. If you choose to participate, your participation will involve 2 focus group sessions of approximately 6 fellow EDB022 pre-service teachers which will be facilitated by the researcher, Elizabeth Curtis. During the focus group session you will have the opportunity to discuss issues and questions about quality teaching, and values in a supportive and non-threatening environment. These sessions will be audio taped. The information gained from these focus groups will be used to gain valuable insight into the ways your teacher education programme is preparing you to become a quality teacher, as well as specifically how EDB022 with an explicit values component is aiding your development into a quality teacher.

Your decision to participate will in no way impact upon your current or future relationship with QUT (for example your grades).

Each focus group session will take approximately 1 hour of your time. The first session will be held early in Semester 2, 2010 and the final session will be held post lectures in approximately Week 10 of Semester 2, 2009. The groups will be held at Kelvin Grove campus at a time convenient for students.

Expected benefits

The research will provide valuable insight into students' perceptions and understandings of quality teaching and the link to values in education. It is hoped that the results will be used to develop better ways to enhance pre-service teachers' knowledge and skills to be quality teachers as well as effective teachers of values.

Risks

There are no risks beyond normal day-to-day university attendance associated with your participation in this project, and your usual involvement in field studies/internship placement.

We do realise that a small proportion of pre-service teachers encounter some distress during their field experience/internship. Should you require help with managing this distress, QUT provides a general free counselling service for students via QUT Counselling (07 3138 3488) available 9am-5pm Monday to Thursday and 9am-4pm on Friday.

QUT provides a limited free counselling for research participants of QUT projects, who may experience some distress as a result of their participation in the research. Should you wish to access this service please contact the Clinic Receptionist of the QUT Psychology Clinic on 07 3138 4578. Please indicate to the receptionist that you are a research participant.

Confidentiality

All comments and responses will be treated confidentially. The names of individual persons are not required in any of the responses. Your identity will be protected by the use of a code or pseudonym (false name) which will be inserted when the audiotape is transcribed.

Consent to Participate

We would like to ask you to sign a written consent form (attached) to confirm your agreement to participate.

Questions / further information about the project

Please contact the researcher team members named above to have any questions answered or if you require further information about the project.

Concerns / complaints regarding the conduct of the project

QUT is committed to researcher integrity and the ethical conduct of research projects. However, if you do have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project you may contact the QUT Research Ethics Officer on 3138 2340 or ethicscontact@qut.edu.au. The Research Ethics Officer is not connected with the research project and can deal with your concern in an impartial manner.

Appendix E

Participant Consent Form

**PRE-SERVICE TEACHER FOCUS GROUP
CONSENT FORM for RESEARCH PROJECT**

Quality Teaching, Values and Pre-Service Teacher Education

Statement of consent

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- have read and understood the information document regarding this project
- have had any questions answered to your satisfaction
- understand that if you have any additional questions you can contact the research team
- understand that you are free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty
- understand that you can contact the Research Ethics Officer on 3138 2340 or ethicscontact@qut.edu.au if you have concerns about the ethical conduct of the project
- agree to participate in the project
- understand that the project will include audio recording

Name

Signature

Date / /

Appendix F

Productive Pedagogies Dimensions

Definitions

Quality Teaching

Teaching that makes a positive difference in students' learning and their lives, and this is based not only around factual knowledge but around social and personal knowing as well (Lovat, 2007).

For discussing the dimensions of quality teaching the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study's (2001) model will be used.

1. Intellectual quality

focuses on producing deep understanding of important, substantive concepts, skills and ideas. Through the manipulation of information and ideas that occurs in this dimension new meanings and understandings will be discovered and explored and thus students will come to realise that knowledge is not a fixed body of information.

2. Supportive classroom environment

this includes such things as ensuring students are clearly directed in their work; providing social support for all students in the class; ensuring that the students are academically engaged with work that has an explicit quality performance criteria as well as developing students who are self-regulated learners.

3. Recognition of difference

which involves exposing students to a range of cultures, to different groups of people, and to individuals different from themselves.

4. Connectedness

where the aim is to ensure the engagement and connection of students beyond the classroom walls to the wider school, the community and beyond. Connectedness incorporates knowledge integration; background knowledge, connectedness to the world and a problem-based curriculum to ensure that connections are made to students' prior knowledge as well as to the 'outside' world.

Values

In terms of what it means in regard to 21st century education there is still no one exact and agreed upon definition, as values mean different things to different people. Generally though, it could be argued that values are the guidelines for an individual's life. For the purpose of this study, values will include, but go beyond, religious and moral meanings; they "engage our cognition, emotions and behaviour" (Powney et al., 1995, p. 2). Values are more than just a set of beliefs, they impinge on our very being and are intrinsically linked to our behaviour, to our decisions and to our feelings.

Values Education

Values education is about relating to others and developing the ability to apply values and rules intelligently (Aspin, 1999). Values education also aids in encouraging reflection, exploration of opportunities and commitment to responsibilities (Taylor, 1994).

Appendix G

Study One Focus Group Questions

In the Productive Pedagogy model of quality teaching there are four dimensions used. I'd like to look at each one of these in turn. (handout with these on for the students)

1. Intellectual quality

Focuses on producing deep understanding of important, substantive concepts, skills and ideas. Through the manipulation of information and ideas that occurs in this dimension new meanings and understandings will be discovered and explored and thus students will come to realise that knowledge is not a fixed body of information.

- What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to intellectual quality?
- How has your teacher education programme prepared you to teach these skills?

2. Supportive classroom environment

This includes such things as ensuring students are clearly directed in their work; providing social support for all students in the class; ensuring that the students are academically engaged with work that has an explicit quality performance criteria as well as developing students who are self-regulated learners.

- What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to creating and maintaining a supportive learning environment?
- How has your teacher education programme prepared you to teach these skills?

3. Recognition of difference

Involves exposing students to a range of cultures, to different groups of people, and to individuals different from themselves.

- What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to developing their skills in terms of recognising difference?
- How has your teacher education programme prepared you to teach these skills?

4. Connectedness

The aim is to ensure the engagement and connection of students beyond the classroom walls to the wider school, the community and beyond.

Connectedness incorporates knowledge integration; background knowledge, connectedness to the world and a problem-based curriculum to ensure that connections are made to students' prior knowledge as well as to the 'outside' world.

- What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to connectedness?
- How has your teacher education programme prepared you to teach these skills?

5. Values Education

- As a future teacher, what values/attitudes/beliefs do you want to try and instil in your students?
- What will you bring to/do in the classroom which would strengthen your students' values, attitudes and beliefs?
- How has your teacher education programme prepared you in terms of reflecting on your own values/attitudes/beliefs and the effect these have on your teaching?

Appendix H

Study Two Time 1 Focus Group Questions

In the Productive Pedagogy model of quality teaching there are four dimensions used. I'd like to look at each one of these in turn. (handout with these on for the students)

1. Intellectual quality

Focuses on producing deep understanding of important, substantive concepts, skills and ideas. Through the manipulation of information and ideas that occurs in this dimension new meanings and understandings will be discovered and explored and thus students will come to realise that knowledge is not a fixed body of information.

- What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to intellectual quality?
- How prepared do you feel in your ability to teach these skills and to develop them with your future students?

2. Supportive classroom environment

This includes such things as ensuring students are clearly directed in their work; providing social support for all students in the class; ensuring that the students are academically engaged with work that has an explicit quality performance criteria as well as developing students who are self-regulated learners.

- What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to creating and maintaining a supportive learning environment?
- How prepared do you feel in your ability to teach these skills and to develop them with your future students?

3. Recognition of difference

Involves exposing students to a range of cultures, to different groups of people, and to individuals different from themselves.

- What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to developing their skills in terms of recognising difference?

- How prepared do you feel in your ability to teach these skills and to develop them with your future students?

4. Connectedness

The aim is to ensure the engagement and connection of students beyond the classroom walls to the wider school, the community and beyond.

Connectedness incorporates knowledge integration; background knowledge, connectedness to the world and a problem-based curriculum to ensure that connections are made to students' prior knowledge as well as to the 'outside' world.

- What type of things would you want to develop with your future students in relation to connectedness?
- How prepared do you feel in your ability to teach these skills and to develop them with your future students?

5. Values Education

- As a future teacher, what values/attitudes/beliefs do you want to try and instil in your students?
- What will you bring to/do in the classroom which would strengthen your students' values, attitudes and beliefs?
- Can you identify values happening in your classes within your teacher education degree? Give specific examples.
- How will your own values and beliefs about teaching prepare you to be a quality teacher?

Appendix I

Study Two Time 2 Focus Group Questions

- Last time I spoke with you we looked at the Productive Pedagogy model of quality teaching (handout with these on for the students). I'd look to relook at each one of those.
1. Intellectual quality

Focuses on producing deep understanding of important, substantive concepts, skills and ideas. Through the manipulation of information and ideas that occurs in this dimension new meanings and understandings will be discovered and explored and thus students will come to realise that knowledge is not a fixed body of information.

 - How has FE3 helped to prepare you to teach skills relating to intellectual quality and to develop them with your future students?
 2. Supportive classroom environment

This includes such things as ensuring students are clearly directed in their work; providing social support for all students in the class; ensuring that the students are academically engaged with work that has an explicit quality performance criteria as well as developing students who are self-regulated learners.

 - How has FE3 helped to prepare you in creating and maintaining a supportive learning environment?
 3. Recognition of difference

Involves exposing students to a range of cultures, to different groups of people, and to individuals different from themselves.

 - How has FE3 helped to prepare you to teach the skills associated with recognising difference and to develop them with your future students?
 4. Connectedness

The aim is to ensure the engagement and connection of students beyond the classroom walls to the wider school, the community and beyond.

Connectedness incorporates knowledge integration; background knowledge, connectedness to the world and a problem-based curriculum to ensure that connections are made to students' prior knowledge as well as to the 'outside' world.

- How has FE3 helped to prepare you to teach the skills of connectedness and to develop them with your future students?

Evaluation of EDB022

- One of the pedagogies you've been exposed to in FE3 is philosophy in the classroom. Has it been useful in terms of building your skills as a quality teacher? How or how not?
- How has philosophy in the classroom strengthened your own beliefs and values in the journey to becoming a quality teacher?

Appendix J

Study Three Guiding Questions for the Interviews

- Tell me about your prac experience and how it compared with last time?
- Did FE3 have anything to do with that?
- We've talked previously about quality teaching dimensions in relationship to FE3. Did this impact in any way on your prac?
- Tell me about your philosophy lesson/s? What did you learn from this? Has it helped on your journey to becoming a quality teacher? How or how not?
- Values

Appendix K

De Bono's Six Thinking Hats

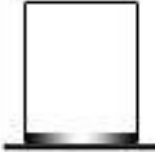
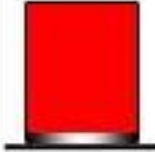




	<u>The White Hat</u> Information available and needed.		<u>The Red Hat</u> Intuition, feelings & hunches.
	<u>The Black Hat</u> Cautions & Difficulties. Where things might go wrong.		<u>The Yellow Hat</u> Values & Benefits Why something might work.
	<u>The Green Hat</u> Alternatives & Creative Ideas		<u>The Blue Hat</u> Managing the thinking process.

Image taken from <http://www.intellegohealth.co.uk/content.php?p=71&c=73>