

An Inquiry Approach to Atomic Structure: A Case Study of a Chemist
Implementation of Computer Visualization Software

Gerald Abegg, Boston University
Karen M. Robblee, Boston University
Peter Garik, Boston University

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Introduction

When deciding how to teach any topic, teachers draw on their knowledge and the learning process, their subject matter knowledge, and beliefs about learning, and teaching. Each teacher has a unique combination of beliefs that influence his or her individual approach to teaching. When teachers have their own plans, they draw on their knowledge and beliefs when making decisions about modifications to their plans.

The National Science Education Standards (NSES) call for teachers to use inquiry-based approaches to learning rather than didactic teaching (National Research Council, 1996). In the past, resources have not been available for teaching abstract concepts or similar inquiry-based approaches. Computer visualization models now allow for students to explore such abstract concepts, particularly those involving particles, through the types of investigations recommended by NSES.

This paper describes how one high school chemistry teacher modified his plans to include interactive computer visualization models for teaching quantum-related concepts. This teacher participated in a four-week summer institute that provided opportunities to expand his knowledge about quantum science, investigate a suite of interactive software programs, and develop instructional materials to improve his students' understanding of atomic and molecular structure from a quantum perspective. The question addressed in this paper is: When a high school teacher has training in and access to interactive computer visualization software to teach molecular structure based on the quantum mechanical model: (1) what factors influence his pedagogical decisions related to the software and (2) how does the instructor's knowledge and instructional tools impact his teaching? The insights gained from the investigation of one teacher's methods provide better understanding about the teacher's beliefs, knowledge, and actions.

QSAD Software Training

Summer institutes for secondary science teachers were held at Boston College in 1997 and 1998. Eight teachers from the greater Boston area attended these institutes. Five attended the first institute, which focused on designing software applications for high school students. A new cadre of five teachers attended the second institute, which focused on the development of curriculum materials to accompany the software. Both institutes included background information about the design, interface, and use of the software. Institute participants received instruction on how to use the software, and several discussions with the programmers and scientists who designed the software. Participants demonstrated deeper understanding of quantum science concepts and their own use of QSAD software as an inquiry medium. We were uncertain how the experience of the summer institutes would affect their existing beliefs and practices.

Review of the Literature

Many educators believe that teachers require a specialized knowledge that allows them to translate subject matter knowledge into appropriate instruction (Dewey, 1902/1990; Fenstermacher, 1986; Grossman, Wilson, & Shulman, 1996; Ball, & Anderson, 1989; Shulman, 1986; Shulman, 1987). Dewey (1902/1990) study of subject thus has two aspects: one for the scientist as a scientist and as a teacher. These two aspects are in no sense opposed or conflicting. "The two are immediately identical" (p. 200). Shulman (1986) identified the teaching pedagogical content knowledge. He explained that pedagogical content knowledge of subject matter per se is the dimension of subject matter knowledge (p. 9).

Shulman (1986; 1987) identified the characteristics of teachers with pedagogical content knowledge. Their teaching includes "the most useful forms of [subject matter] ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, experiments, and demonstrations" (p. 9). He also noted that pedagogical content knowledge determines what aspects of a topic will be more challenging to students and which are likely for students of different ages. Cochran et al. (1993) modified pedagogical content knowledge. In addition to subject-matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, they included "teachers' knowledge of students' abilities and developmental levels, attitudes, motivations, and prior knowledge of the subject taught" (p. 2) as components of pedagogical content knowledge. Cochran et al. proposed that these additional skills distinguish subject-matter teachers from other teachers in the same discipline.

A constructivist environment helps students to confront and modify their own misconceptions. However, students must have alternative conceptions to the current ideas. "It is clearly not enough to confront students with information and theories-in-action. We need to know more about their conceptions, how they change over time" (Herron, p. 44). Through appropriate models, analogies, and representations, teachers can create an environment in which misconceptions and alternative conceptions are available. "By becoming aware of reasoning and how to understand a particular science course, a teacher can both identify the demands of the subject matter and help students develop more advanced reasoning skills extensively" (Karpulus, 1977, p. 172).

The NSES emphasize the need for teachers to have the pedagogical content knowledge that allows them to "tailor learning situations to the needs of individual students" (1996, p. 62). These standards indicate that teachers develop pedagogical content knowledge engaging in their own learning experiences. Through these experiences, teachers develop students with varying instructional strategies that utilize alternative instructional strategies.

Ongoing professional growth activities are important opportunities for teachers to improve both their content knowledge and instructional strategies. When teachers engage in development activities for science teachers provide opportunities to inquire about phenomena using methods similar to those of professional scientists, they help to enhance teachers' abstract reasoning skills (Oja, 1991). Pedagogical content knowledge

develops when teachers reflect on their experiences in the classroom and instructional strategies based on their self-assessments (McDiarmid, Ba Shulman, 1986). Parke & Coble (1997) stress that "genuine, deep, and lasting transformation of how teachers think about and teach science" (p. 774). professional growth in science education requires experiences that challenge the nature of scientific knowledge.

Objectives and Methods

This paper is part of a larger study, which explored the factors affecting teachers' use of new, open-ended instructional materials. A subset of the institute participants served as informants in a multiple case study that was contributing to teachers' decisions about implementing QSAD software in their classrooms. Data were collected from a number of sources including classroom observations, informal interviews, a background questionnaire, and the Views on Science (VOSTS) instrument (Aikenhead, Ryan, & Fleming, 1989). At the beginning of the week summer institute, participants created concept maps that represent their understanding of concepts related to quantum science. Interviews based on those concept maps were used as measures of the participants' content knowledge and changes that occurred during their experiences at the summer institute.

Preliminary interviews with teachers included questions related to their perceptions of their teaching styles, methods used to assess student conceptions, and their students. Interviews after use of the software focused on teachers' decisions and the rationale for those decisions. Brief, informal interviews with participants were used to determine issues related to computer instruction and pedagogical decisions. Interviews were also used to determine the rationale or motivation for instructional acts. Interviews were used to determine the correspondence of teachers' stated beliefs and objectives with their classroom practices.

In this paper, we report on a single case study, which investigated the factors affecting Mike's objectives, goals, instructional design, and pedagogical decisions. The Mike (a pseudonym) was one of five participants in the second four-week summer institute. Mike had a bachelor's degree in chemistry, a Master's in chemistry education, and 10 years' teaching experience. He participated regularly in professional development activities and had presented workshops at local and national science teachers' conferences. Before which he participated in this study, Mike received a teaching award from the American Chemical Society. We were particularly interested in the role of Mike's pedagogical decisions on his instructional decisions and how his new content knowledge impacted his classroom practices and content knowledge.

Mike's classes were observed on a daily basis from late September to early November. The observation period included instruction before, during, and after the use of the QSAD software. Semistructured and informal interviews were conducted to determine Mike's goals and strategies as well as his on-going assessment of the efficacy of the instructional materials. Classroom observations documented how Mike's goals translated into classroom practices.

Physical artifacts such as tests, worksheets, and lab instructions provided related to Mike's goals and expectations for students and his emphasis on concepts.

Findings

Mike's knowledge, beliefs, goals, and plans. Mike responded to his use of the QSAD software with guarded interest. He appeared to be intrigued by the potential as an instructional medium, and the underlying science, but he asked how he would use the software with his students. Nevertheless, after attending the 1998 summer institute, Mike emerged as a leader. He acknowledged his content knowledge and endeavored to improve his content knowledge by asking questions of the developers. By the end of the institute, Mike conveyed a confidence in the participants in understanding explanations offered by the scientists or the team and the most confidence about his content knowledge.

Mike produced the most complex concept map of the institute participants. It showed accurate relationships among the greatest number of concepts. The concept maps of other teachers included a range of 32 to 46 of the 64 potential concepts listed by the QSAD development team. Mike's final concept map included many cross-linking relationships between concepts. In an interview based on the concept map, he offered clear and detailed explanations of the relationships among concepts in his map. We were interested in learning how his knowledge growth would influence his classroom practices.

Soon after the beginning of the school year, Mike anticipated that he would modify instruction for the different learning styles and abilities of his students. He mentioned some of the considerations that would determine how he used the QSAD software. "Computers are, have the ability, have the ability to give ownership to students. They can be engaged in a task, while I go around and mentor students. ... My goal for this project is that there's going to be some, like Abby and Ted, who are not sensorially overwhelmed. They're concrete sequential - they're going to be able to step, uh, task-result-task-result."

Mike identified differences in how students learn when they have prior knowledge with a concept as opposed to when the concept is unfamiliar to them. He emphasized the need to provide a firmer foundation for new or more abstract concepts. He was aware of students' alternative conceptions, and referred to "classic misconception structures." He then explained his strategy of setting a "misconception trap" to address common misconceptions and to provide experiences that challenge students' alternative conceptions to be valuable because they provided perspectives which new perspectives could be developed. He also mentioned the need to provide experiences with concepts to ensure that students had not reverted to their prior conceptions.

He articulated a belief that "students learn best when they are engaged, intrigued and interested and enthusiastic." To keep students interested in the instructional style was important "so that their interest level changes and they're in a pattern or a routine." Mike noted many of his students were motivated by an important form of motivation. He endeavored to provide intrinsic motivation to create an enthusiasm for my subject and getting them to share in the

to their innate curiosity about things around them and try to make those deeper concepts that I'm trying to deliver in the course." He also mentioned that one of the main sources of motivation for students was trying to find questions that he could answer.

Although Mike believed that students defined success in terms of getting the right answers, his conception of student success was based on depth of understanding. He offered the following definition of success:

When students ask the right questions, are able to synthesize answers from the information they get from the book and go into extensions, when students engage in conversations with each other showing a mastery of the material that indicates a deep understanding.

Mike described himself as a mentor and cheerleader for his students. One of the main reasons [for his teaching] is where they are presented with concepts, they work on the concepts and I also support them, giving them the emotional and academic support they need. His goal of helping students to make connections among chemistry topics was to show how those concepts pertain to their everyday lives. He described how he planned his lessons. "I start out with certain goals - what facts or information the students need to decide what activities will lead to those goals." He explained that lab activities were a "reinforcement of content or 'ah-ha' experiences," adding, "I like them to be curious."

Mike's classroom practices. Mike typically used a variety of instructional methods including lecture/discussion, lab activities, demonstrations, computer simulations, problem solving, projects, and student presentations. Most classes started with a review of the previous class, either initiated by student questions or by a brief comment from Mike. He would give an overview of the goals for the day's class. For example, at the start of a class in which students were doing a lab exercise, Mike's introductory comment was, "We were talking about something pretty profound, and some of you were going into this concept of a the Bohr atom. We have a lab to do that relates to that. Let's kind of revisit that."

Class discussions moved at a brisk pace, with students sometimes interrupting Mike's comments. One of Mike's most common methods of engaging students in discussion was to leave his sentences unfinished. His unspoken expectation was that students would provide the final words or phrases to his statements. Students called out these "answers" in a dialogue with Mike. When they responded with an acceptable answer, he would acknowledge their phrase, and then continued with his presentation. At other times, he would ask for more answers to be more accurate or precise. The following discussion is typical of Mike's teacher-student interaction:

Mike: Diodes are very interesting because they have a phenomenon very similar to the photoelectric effect, which is?

Student: Light falls on surface.

Mike: Light falls on a metal and...

Student: releases an electron

Mike: releases electrons, but does it happen for every...

Student: certain wavelengths...

Mike: certain wavelengths of light...That's a threshold energy that is...

When there were disagreements among students or if the responses showed misconceptions, Mike explained the topic in greater detail. At other times he called on specific students for answers or ideas. As a rule, every student participated at least once, although the more vocal students received more attention.

After attending the Quantum Science Across Disciplines (QSAD) summer institute, Mike revised his existing instructional unit for teaching atomic structure. He incorporated many of the learning experiences he had used in previous years as well as new activities and modifying the sequence of instruction. These changes were based on his content knowledge and his experiences with QSAD software. Some of the changes made served to set the stage for using the software, while other changes were made to the software.

Mike began the atomic structure unit as he had in previous years. He used such activities as: observing a conversion from mechanical to light energy using pieces of wintergreen candy, viewing overhead lights through diffraction gratings, and using their own spectrometers. Classroom activities generated enthusiasm and interest, as evidenced by student comments such as, "That's so cool," "Wow, look at this," and "That really works." Students also asked numerous questions about how concepts are applied in real-world contexts. When Mike was unable to answer their questions, he admitted his lack of knowledge and encouraged students to investigate those questions on their own.

Mike also designated an important scientist for each of the student presentations. Students prepared a presentation for the rest of the class. Student presentations included the historical background for current theories on atomic structure. During the presentations, students sometimes referred to themselves as Becquerel, Millikan, etc. or interjected "My guy did that." when someone referred to a particular discovery. Mike supported the presentations with demonstrations and class discussions. For example, during a presentation on Thomson, Mike used an exposed television tube to demonstrate the operation of a cathode ray tube. Following the presentation on Einstein, Mike demonstrated the photoelectric effect and its use in a spectrophotometer.

After learning about the history of atomic theory, students investigated the models proposed by these theories. They used spectrometers to examine spectra of excited electrons of different elements and to analyze the "yellow" light from a diffraction apparatus, learning that a given color can be perceived in the absence of a specific wavelength of light. They subsequently built their own spectrometers and used them to investigate the bright line spectra produced by sources at home or in the classroom. They also determined Planck's constant experimentally using a laboratory experiment. This was a Quantum Mechanics (Escalada, Rebello, & Zollman, 1999). These experiences led to questions about the relationship between atomic structure and spectral lines. For example, more than one spectral line even though it has only one electron, whether a neon tube would "get used up" over a period of time, and why light from a neon tube is red when seen through a window.

The sequencing of lessons included experiences that were linked to the students' prior knowledge of light and the Bohr model of the atom. Through experimental investigations, they discovered aspects of the planetary model that were not supported by evidence.

predicted the wavelengths of the emission spectra of hydrogen and helium calculations and discovered that their predictions were accurate for hydrogen.

Instead of continuing with the instructional sequence from prior years, he moved QCAD software into the next stage of the atomic structure unit. He explained he would have resorted to the textbook to provide information about the model of the atoms. Mike offered his opinion of students' learning from computers would just be a paper and pencil exercise, with these orbitals, and it was not a game." Quantum mechanics was "putting numbers with letters and talking about abstraction called orbitals."

To develop the necessary conceptual foundation, he collaborated with other teachers who had taught physics to create demonstrations that gave students a better understanding of quantum mechanics. Mike then began the computer investigations with a different approach than the one that had been emphasized in the summer institute. During the summer, the focus was primarily on the Diatomic Explorer, which produces graphical representations of atomic and molecular orbitals of designated elements and binary molecules. Mike used a different approach with his students, instructing them to investigate electronic structure using the Bond Explorer. In this application, the user selects the energy and subshell, and the program generates representations of electron orbitals for that energy level. Mike explained that he wanted students to understand the general properties of orbitals independent of the identity of the atom. The students asked many questions, but there was little evidence that they were confused or frustrated by the computer work with the abstract concepts of quantum science.

Mike had prepared a handout to guide students in their computer investigations. The handout included directions for creating visual images of the software using the Bond Explorer experiment with software parameters to find images that would give the students a better understanding of electron structure and behavior. The instructions provided students with a step-by-step guide as they became familiar with the user interface. The activities were all designed to allow students to control variables and proceed through the investigation at their own pace.

In describing the procedure that students should follow, Mike gave an analogy of looking at an elephant. He explained that if they were too close, they could not see the whole elephant and might draw erroneous conclusions about its overall shape. On the other hand, if they were too far away, they would not be able to detect the elephant's appearance. This analogy provided a rationale for students to adjust the distance, screen and intensity of the graphical image so that the atomic model could be viewed at an amount of information.

In subsequent computer investigations, Mike's students developed a better understanding of Hund's Rule and the Aufbau principle. After using the software, class members shared their students' observations of orbital energies and the patterns of electron filling. Based on their observations, Mike initiated class discussions about the rules defined by their observations. In addition, students made observations that allowed them to identify periodic trends such as ionization energy, and electronegativity. Mike guided that discovery by asking questions that led to the discovery of these trends.

exercises that illustrated relationships between atomic number and electron configuration. Mike described what the students learned from the software.

In periodic trends...especially ionization energy, QSAD was great at showing orbital shapes, and I was able to see how students responded to the software tool. It was a new base that they didn't have before. They had individual control of the software. They didn't know the goal of using the software, but they were all working towards the goal all the same. They found errors in the software, and that was the kids this is a model, and like all models, it has limitations.

Three months after using QSAD software to teach atomic structure and periodic properties, Mike used the software again to teach covalent bonding and molecular geometry. Mike had planned to use the QSAD software in this unit, but decided against it due to year time constraints. As an introduction to bonding, Mike gave the analogy of waves being diffracted by openings in a sea wall and began developing the concept of constructive and destructive interference. He then made the conceptual link between the behavior of water waves and the behavior of electrons in bonding and antibonding orbitals. He commented, "Oh, that's like what we did in the computer lab and it shows how things go."

Mike described the differences he perceived in student learning or understanding of the software:

Oh, I had kids even months after using the software use it as a, an example or as an example for a new concept. The imagery was so strong in some of the visualization, that they felt comfortable about saying, "Isn't it like when..." And whenever I hear that I know that has made a major impact on them. A number of times, Mike alluded to the fact that he expected to be using the QSAD software with his students. He anticipated improvements in software design based on students' experiences and his observations of those experiences. Here are his reasons for using the QSAD software with his students, describing his pedagogical beliefs:

To give them an opportunity to manipulate the concepts individually so they can address their own issues with quantum science. Because it has become apparent that if you let's say twenty kids, as you're working with one particular concept, they go in four very different directions with it. And if you, in a classic lecture style, you might end up only dealing with one of those issues that that satisfies only a small fraction of the kids. Whereas the other, and they're all scratching their heads, saying, "What are they talking about? I'm not getting it differently." And there's never enough time to really deal with all that. If you have the software, the kids now are working, they're manipulating it, you can go around as a teacher and mentor them and give them some sense of where they're headed and deal with their individual issues with the concepts. As complex as quantum science, it requires that you have all your ducks in a row before you can make it to that next, before you can understand that next concept. If people have their issues that goes, the reason that they can't make that next step is these ducks isn't in order, but you don't know which one it is until you get to that kid. It might be they don't even have a clue what orbitals are, and you're not in that line, but they don't understand the idea of, you know, electron configuration. The bottom line is you can go around and troubleshoot each person's issues while everybody else is working.

Summary. Mike's comments about how students learn, the nature of his role as a teacher imply a consistent belief system. Data from classroom observations

instructional materials Mike developed indicate that his practices are beliefs. The data also illustrate that Mike employs his pedagogical contexts, including varying instructional methods and adapting his plans to spontaneous opportunities to illustrate a concept.

Mike's beliefs about the tentative nature of science were reflected in the quantum mechanical model being the current explanation for atomic structure that, like all models, it was only a representation that provided useful evidence. He also had the attitude that software bugs were beneficial to students to experience flaws in a model and to critique their experiences are consistent with prior understanding. He encouraged students to think of multiple sources of information.

His stated beliefs about students' motivation and abilities were a part of his instructional strategies. Mike viewed students as having individual styles and rates of learning. He indicated that collaboration among students helps to leverage diverse learning styles and abilities. Mike's comments and instructional practices recognized difference in learners rather than valuing one style over another. His belief that students benefit from inquiry learning but at a minimum, they need opportunities to "manipulate" concepts.

Classroom observations provided evidence that Mike's teaching practices aligned with his metaphor of himself as mentor or cheerleader. However, in his classroom organization, Mike played another role, that of architect. He designed lessons that would make predictable discoveries leading to predictable questions. But he did not then give answers or provide hints or possible resources so that students could answer their own questions. Mike encouraged students to investigate phenomena, generate explanations for their observations, and discuss their ideas with other students.

Rather than explaining or describing properties of atoms and molecules, he gave students the opportunity for students to discover those properties. Although this was the first time he had to teach about atomic structure, Mike organized his lessons as guided discovery. In the spectroscopy lab, students discovered that calculations of helium spectral lines using the Bohr equations did not agree with their observations of spectral lines. This created sufficient cognitive conflict for students to be willing to entertain a new model of atomic structure. Mike then used the QMAD software as a means of investigating the quantum mechanical model. This new model was compatible with their observed results in the spectroscopy lab and could be used to predict and explain behaviors of spectral lines. In their computer investigations, students then used the quantum mechanical model for anticipating periodic properties.

Mike exhibited his pedagogical content knowledge in his interview and classroom performance. When asked about identifying students' alternative conceptions, he stated both general and specific strategies for eliciting, recognizing, and correcting them. His statement, "Different concepts require different initial strategies," indicates that student learning is context-specific. He noted that students do not have the same difficulties with some topics. In such cases, his strategy would be to provide "a much more focused approach in which certain key concepts have to be identified, extracted out, presented,

straightforward and simple fashion." Mike's pedagogical content knowledge in his awareness of specific issues that were likely to be barriers to quantum science.

Although Mike stated that he did not fully understand the concepts his concept map and interview comments indicated a detailed knowledge of relationships among sub-concepts. His responses to interview comments indicated he considered several approaches to teaching quantum science, and these experiences we judged to be thoughtful, appropriate references to the content.

Mike's classroom practices contained an abundance of "the most powerful representation," which Shulman (1986) identifies as indicators of pedagogical content knowledge. Mike planned instructional units so that students would form a knowledge base on the basis of their prior experiences. He then provided students with experiences that allowed them to develop their own understanding of the abstract concepts related to quantum science. He anticipated many of the alternative conceptions that students revealed in their interview comments, and he addressed their misconceptions by introducing disequilibrium through providing concrete analogies for abstract phenomena. The examples, demonstrations, and analogies that Mike used contained links to students' personal experiences.

Mike's teaching reflected pedagogical content knowledge in tailoring explanations to students' comments and identifying students' misconceptions. His responses reflected an awareness of potential difficulties that students were likely to encounter due to variations in students' learning styles and abilities. Prior to teaching quantum science, Mike readily identified analogies, models, and instructional sequences that would help students' understanding of quantum science. In class, he used some of these and others in response to students' specific questions and comments. For example, he used an analogy of a staircase when explaining quanta of energy, saying that a particle could move down in increments of stair steps but could not move up in fractions of a step. A student's response indicated that he mistakenly thought that the energy difference between two principal energy levels was the same, Mike explained that while analogies are useful in explaining ideas, they can never give a completely accurate representation of the concept. A student's comments suggested that she was confused by the two-dimensional representation of the bread by the software. Mike gave the analogy of a loaf of marbled bread and a slice of the bread to the entire loaf. He then asked students to visualize slices of bread such as an orange or a pair of balloons.

When reflecting on students' comprehension, Mike identified clues that indicated that students understood the material. However, he noted that students' comments and actions might be misleading. He advised that comments should be interpreted as vigilance in continuing to probe for signs of student understanding.

Mike explained how he would motivate another teacher to participate in using the QSAD materials:

It's a question of time if I could get them to sit down and play with the software about it and then use some of the, um, some of the exercises that I've developed to use it I think it becomes self-evident that it's useful. The biggest trouble I see is the barrier for the use of this software is getting people to just get a sense of comfort with it because so many teachers are uncomfortable with it.

limb and sometimes and it might be the very nature of the subject matter very classically math people. They'd like to have an ordered and structured that, and the comfort comes from knowing it's ordered and structured that it's going and what's happening. And you take some software like this, whole new world. It's very unsettling, they don't have all the answers necessarily what's happening next and they lose that comfort level. So not the average, but for a lot of science teachers I think who fit that not going to happen until they've had a chance to sit down and achieve it.

In his use of QSAD software, Mike created an instructional plan that scaffolding for students' construction of knowledge. Mike designed a tool in which QSAD software played an important role. He created a context for inquiry skills in conjunction with learning the chemistry concepts in the activities that preceded software investigations set the stage for student atomic structure. As students used the software, Mike noted their difficulties and suggestions. He also encouraged students to collaborate with each other as students were generating their own theories about periodicity, which was one of their investigations. He then adjusted his instructional plans by eliciting to start a dialogue about periodic properties of elements.

During the units on atomic structure and periodic properties, Mike gave examples of real-world applications of the quantum science concepts, but the ones used in class were different from the ones he had mentioned during early planning. He planned to mention why gemstones have specific colors, the quantum effects behind the chemistry behind the colors of pH indicators, but his in-classroom demonstrations included the design of ray tubes and the emission spectra of different types of light bulbs.

After using QSAD software, Mike reflected on his students' engagement with the programs and evaluated the methods he used to guide their learning. He identified those methods that met his goals and identified which aspects of the instructional plan needed modification. Through this process of reflection and revision, Mike built his pedagogical knowledge.

Conclusions

Using computer visualization models, high school teachers can create learning environments in which students successfully construct and employ the quantum mechanical atom. Factors that appear to have contributed to the success of this project include the teacher's willingness to learn along with students, the learning environment and his strong pedagogical content knowledge with the necessary insight to plan, monitor, and assess student understanding. Students engaged in parallel learning experiences.

Generalizations cannot be made on the basis of a single case study. The teachers' use of new instructional tools for teaching atomic structure from a different perspective provides a compelling picture of the evolutionary process in content knowledge growth. This study suggests that when incorporating new materials, teachers' decisions about how, when, and in what form to use

function of their pedagogical content knowledge. In turn, through reflection and implementation of new materials, teachers learn how to improve their practice, thereby improving on their existing pedagogical content knowledge.

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