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THREE WISE MONKEYS: TEACHING ETHICAL CONTENT
THROUGH CASE STUDIES

presented by
James Valda Mead

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Educational Administration

Gary Sykes

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**THREE WISE MONKEYS: TEACHING ETHICAL CONTENT THROUGH CASE
STUDIES**

VOLUME I

By

James Valda Mead

A DISSERTATION

**Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of**

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Administration

1993

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ABSTRACT

THREE WISE MONKEYS: TEACHING ETHICAL CONTENT THROUGH CASE STUDIES

By

James Valda Mead

In this multisite case study the researcher contrasts teaching ethical content using case studies in three geographical sites and in three professional schools -- medicine, business, and education. The author explored questions about how instructors in the various professional schools, through case studies, structure opportunities for students to learn about ethical issues. These questions included the criteria for a good teaching case and the sources instructors draw their cases from. Other chapters describe the case analysis methods instructors used and instructors' backgrounds that played an important role shaping the maxims or analytic procedures they taught in the case analysis. A major finding from these data was that practical ethics instructors in these professional schools deal with difficult moral cases using maxims that were not straightforward applications of principles drawn exclusively from traditional moral theory and applied to practical problems in the field. The author distinguishes between "following a principle" and "following a maxim" as distinct but related activities in moral problem

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solving. Sometimes instructors used cases to illustrate theories and principles that went beyond those conventionally defined as moral theory. In other instances the instructors used a case study as an opportunity for their students to practice wide reflective equilibrium. Case study details played a different role at either end of the continuum. Instructors using a case to illustrate a theory advocated strategies that identified details that supported the connections they wished to make or they devised strategies that filtered-out "extraneous" details. Instructors teaching wide reflective equilibrium saw case detail as the test for principles suggested by paradigm cases. The case details in reflective equilibrium shaped moral knowledge not illustrated or confirmed that knowledge as it was stated in a Utilitarian principle. These two extremes for case study use represent different instructor models of student learning. Instructors using cases that connected to a body of knowledge illustrate a genetic or behavioral student learning model. Instructors using cases that influenced students' beliefs or emphasized decision-making procedures suggest constructivist learning models. The study's conclusion includes hypotheses for future investigation notably the learning claims made for case study teaching.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my grandparents Hilda and Valda Mead, Myrtle and Frank Bromfield who provide memories for my reflections and in my mind live forever.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to acknowledge the guidance and constructive criticism offered by my committee members -- Robert Floden, Sam Moore, and James Roper and the masterful director of the guidance committee Gary Sykes. Gary and Richard Elmore, acting as my academic advisors, played a major part in shaping this work and supporting my struggle to become a scholar. The National Center for Research on Teacher Education (NCRTE) and its director, Mary Kennedy, supplied financial support for my studies and Mary provided a clear model for academic writing that I greatly admire. I cannot properly acknowledge all who have helped me but have to single out my friend Bill McDiarmid who has read, edited, and discussed my work, provided sage advice, and shared interest in "industrial rock" and other musical genres. A six year journey through masters and doctoral work would not have been possible without the support and encouragement of my wife Joann and daughter Gina.

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INTRODUCTION

Using Cases as a Teaching Tool

This researcher looked at case study teaching as an increasingly popular opportunity to learn ethical content. The questions I pursued described how instructors in various professional schools, through case studies, structure opportunities for students to learn. I wanted to know what criteria instructors used to define a good case study. Using these instructor generated criteria I hoped to describe what those instructors used a case study for when teaching ethical issues. Also, there were questions about the sources that instructors looked at to find teaching case studies. For example, these cases can describe professional situations; however, it is not clear whether or not the best teaching cases come unchanged from the workplace.

Over the four-year pilot study I took every professional ethics course and some moral philosophy classes offered at one university. I learned that case analysis in practical ethics classes was very different from case analysis in philosophy. Each practical ethics class adopted

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analysis procedures that showed influences from the traditions and epistemology favored within that professional school. However, the variation and commonalities in the way case analysis was done between professional schools cried out for detailed description. Only in a cross-school comparison do those variations and commonalities become clearer.

At an early stage in the pilot study I changed my thinking about what constituted professional ethics. Contrary to what I had read in the professional or applied ethics literature I found that moral philosophy was not the exclusive foundation for all practical ethics teaching. Authors in the applied ethics literature wrote about the profession's philosophical foundations, codes of ethics, and spoke in general about professional duties. In sharp contrast I found many theoretical influences shaped the professional schools' approaches to practical ethics. I wanted to understand these theoretical influences that do not come directly from ethical theory. The best place to see those influences in action is to look at case study analysis.

The instructors' background was one obvious place to look as a source of influence. The instructors' institution (type of professional school) was another important source of influence, which shaped ethical case analysis. Finally, the character of the professional work might be an important influence upon the approach to practical ethics within the professional school. These problems and influences form the basis for this dissertation.

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I chose not to investigate the effect or effectiveness of case study teaching. Further, I did not restrict this study to the case teaching method pioneered by the Business and Law Schools at Harvard University. The briefest literature review showed how little literature existed dealing with how instructors used case studies. Therefore, it is premature to test the effectiveness of teaching phenomena when there are different ideas about what a case study is and how to use them. It is premature to condemn or recommend the case study as a teaching tool. There is a need for descriptions of how professional school instructors use that tool. Why do professional school instructors find teaching cases so attractive for teaching ethics? This question is explored throughout this study.

The choice of ethics.

The two threads, in the chosen professional schools, are instructor use of case studies and ethical content. Instructors use a case study to teach many ideas that are unique to that professional school. Choosing to study the ethical subject matter in a case study does allow cross-professional comparison. Those contrasts are meaningless if the subject matter chosen was unique to a specific profession; hence, the truly common thread combined the ethical subject matter contained in a case study.

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My interest in professional ethics.

Particular situations provided professional or practical ethics subject matter and it is those situations that make the problems interesting on intellectual and personal levels. Professional ethics, through my work in British teacher unions, is not a mere intellectual curiosity.

I defended a young teacher about to fail her first year probationary teaching. During the hearing the principal presented a convincing case against the young teacher. In his remarks before the tribunal he mentioned, almost as an aside, that he thought Miss X was "unprofessional" in her conduct. Clutching at any available straw I asked the principal what he meant by unprofessional. The tribunal and I received a twenty-minute lecture on how "unprofessional" colored leg warmers were. One look at the chair's face showed that Miss X would get a second chance.

Moral theorists search for general understanding and they seek the morality's essential qualities. The details play a background role in the theorist's purpose, but it is the details in the practical ethics problems that make life interesting and that are crucial to fully understanding problems in practical ethic. There are no great moral principles at stake regarding multicolor legwarmers. It is where that detail led the tribunal that was crucial in that one instance.

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In addition to my interest in professional ethics I have always been interested in the theory-practice problem that I prefer to see as a theory-practice relationship. My undergraduate background was in education and geography. History and personal circumstance meant that I witnessed first-hand a Kuhnian paradigm shift from a qualitative to a quantitative paradigm in geography. The paradigm shift involved rejecting and accepting the plausibility of qualitative explanations for quantitative ones in geography.

In this geographical revolution both sides felt that victory was theirs if they could show how a paradigm's theories provided a "better application" to practical problems than their opponent. Geography and professional schools are study fields and they are not disciplines. Study fields borrow, synthesize, and combine knowledge from different disciplines. Instructors in a field of study seemed to judge the disciplines by their contribution and support for the professional practices in that particular field.

Practical ethics in professional schools represents another war where different paradigms generate competing explanations instructors hope will drive their opponents from the field. The interest in the theory-practice relationship leads me to an obvious interest in a case study. The case study, which describes a practical problem, represents the individual battlefields where the paradigms wage their war.

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The case study teaching descriptions focus on contrasts between the various types of professional school. Chapter 2 gives the rationales for choosing several professional schools and sites. The comparisons between the schools of one type are made to strengthen the speculations. They also check exaggerated claims made for idiosyncratic features that existed at one school or site.

Three study purposes.

The researcher had three purposes in this cross-comparative descriptive study. One significant purpose was to generate good hypotheses for further testing. Three strong candidates for further cross-professional study are given in the last chapter. The second purpose was detailed description of case study use in many settings. A benefit of good description is that it guards against the creation of illusions and confusion. For example, readers will see clear distinctions made between the label "case study," three different types of case analysis, and various case analysis procedures. Multiple instances are described to provide greater understanding, especially when those instances focus on use. The final function for descriptive studies is to allow the reader through rich description to make associations with instances that are familiar.

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What Forms a Good Teaching Case

I wanted to find out what practical ethics instructors thought a case study was. Judged by the pilot study I suspected a consensus on the case study description was unlikely and so I asked instructors to describe a good teaching case study (Chapter 4). Instructors described some favorite case studies they used rather than listing abstract features. Obviously, some case details were specific to the particular profession whereas others are shared across the different schools. The dual comparison strategies can be read in the study like the "warp and weft" of a weaving loom. Horizontal warps represented the main story of cross-professional comparisons. The vertical weft depicted different schools of the same type. In this study I concentrated mostly on the warp strands but it is impossible to weave cloth without those vertical strands.

In Chapter 5 I considered the sources for teaching case studies. A case's attraction to instructors might lie exclusively in the case detail. If that were the situation then instructors could accept cases from students, textbooks, or any other source. However, in the pilot data I found that instructors were selective in their case study sources. For example, case studies volunteered by students received different treatment in various schools. Cases are collected in many texts and I was interested in how extensively textbook cases are used in ethics teaching. I wanted to know what drove the instructor's choices in case study sources.

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With a better understanding of what a teaching case study looked like and where they are from, the logical step was a description of case analyses. As the name suggests "teaching cases" emphasize a particular purpose. However, to achieve a particular function might involve various analytic procedures. In the pilot data I found many potentially interesting influences on analytic procedures adopted by instructors. Contrary to the intuition that ethics teachers employed analytic procedures directly and exclusively from moral theory instructors allowed other influences to shape ethical case analysis.

If the empirical description had found that moral theory was the exclusive driving force for practical ethics case analysis then this study would describe a very different activity. Practical ethics would be a specialized, applied branch of moral theory: Moral philosophy supplies the most qualified teachers. Separate ethics classes deal with ethical issues whatever the profession. Some case subject matter might vary across schools, but most subject matter in each profession would be a uniform set of ethical issues and principles sometimes written down in a professional code of ethics. There is a small professional ethics literature that corresponds to the subbranch of moral theory. However, authors in the applied ethics literature build moral and codified foundations for the professions and that literature is rarely mentioned in practical ethics classes.

In the pilot data I found that the link between moral theory and what occurred in a practical ethics classroom varied widely on several

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dimensions. Two interesting variations are the ethics instructor's background and the institutional environment where ethics teaching occurred. A practical ethics instructor was not always an expert in moral theory nor did all instructors have a philosophy background. Instructors used other disciplines and theories in the analytic procedures they taught their students. Chapter 7 looks at the varied instructor backgrounds as a way to understand their interest in ethics teaching and their advocacy of certain case analysis procedures.

The Three Schools Depicted as the "Three Wise Monkeys"

This is a story of the horizontal warp and the vertical weft that form the practical ethics cloth. Other studies emphasize ethics teaching within a particular profession but this study emphasized cross-professional comparisons. The wisdom or ethical knowledge different schools taught revealed shared and distinctive elements.

One day, during data analysis, the image of three monkeys came to me and it refused to leave. On the mantelpiece, in my grandparents' house, stood a small wooden ornament. These carved monkeys portray the moral maxim that a person should not hear, see, or speak evil. Three monkeys sit in a line, the first with hands over its ears, the second monkey covers their eyes, and the third monkey sits with hands over its mouth. I studied three types of schools--education, medical, and business--that recalled those three monkeys with an important variation on the original theme.

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The first monkey who hears no evil stood for education schools and the ethics instructors' claims that all teaching had an essential moral purpose. Instructors, identified as dealing with ethical content, claimed educators had a moral purpose or that teachers should pursue a political ideal. There were no specific courses entitled "Teacher Education 123 - Ethics for Teachers" or "Education Administration 456 - Educational Administration Ethics."

The teaching responsibility for ethics, so the three education schools claimed, lay with every instructor. Our education school monkey heard ideas of the "good" promoted everywhere in the education school. However, the monkey's location in the school affected its hearing. This ethical monkey spent most time in the Foundation¹ of Education courses and not the Methods courses where ethical talk is a whisper. In Foundations courses our monkey heard the loudest talk about the "good."

Monkey number two represented the medical schools' worldview. It is a commonplace that medical education aims to make students think like doctors. Like any other course, medical ethics worked single-mindedly to realize that aim. If our first monkey had selective hearing, the

¹A Foundations courses in education schools gives students an introduction to psychological, historical, sociological or philosophical views of education. Typically given to teachers in training individual courses often reflect school or legislatively approved topics and an individual instructor's preferred discipline. Dealing with diversity is a common topic but one instructor may emphasize a historical approach while another in the same school uses a philosophical framework. The Methods courses explore primary and secondary school subject teaching usually organized according to the age group the prospective teacher wishes to teach. Foundations and Methods is not the only way to organize teacher education programs, but it is very common.

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second had tunnel vision. Medical ethics defined its role as helping aspiring doctors resolve the ethical issues medical judgment raised. Only those issues that impact individual decisions were suitable topics for medical ethics courses in the three universities studied.

One potential ethical area never mentioned in medical ethics courses was preventive health care. Under their appointed task medical ethics instructors help doctors make judgments. In preventive health care there is no perceived crisis requiring individual judgment and that means medical ethics instructors can ignore this difficult and often controversial "medical policy" area. Preventive health care overlaps with broader national health policy questions. The whole idea of a national health system does get brief mention in medical ethics classes but only when a proposed national system creates a crisis of individual judgment where a doctor has to "ration health care."

The last monkey with its hands over its mouth originally spoke no evil but the monkey in this retelling decides that it should tell people about evil rather than remain dumb. In the three business schools studied this monkey constantly talked about evil found at all levels in the business environment.

Business ethics instruction spoke about individual evils, organizational evils, and even evils the private enterprise or capitalist system perpetrated. Case studies described individuals compelled in a business environment to act in ways contrary to their private life beliefs and

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dispositions. At the organizational level cases reported corporate action that lead to the creation of human misery in multiple forms. A case study at the systemic level, characterizes spending millions of dollars on differentiating various products as wasteful, manipulative, and possibly dangerous.

The small ornament also depicts a phenomenon found in the data. The three monkeys represented a moral maxim to guard against evil in various forms -- spoken, heard, and visual. A maxim, or rule of conduct, represents a general truth drawn from science or experience. In the postmodern² world the phrase "general truth" has competing interpretations.

"Guarding against evil" could represent a proposition describing a desired state of affairs. Philosophers construct competing propositions about the world that depict general truths. Alternatively, guarding against evil in a maxim represents a procedure to solve or confront ethical problems that professionals face from time-to-time. In practical or professional ethics classes I studied instructors used the maxim to confront ethical problems rather than an instructor attempting to give students a thorough grounding in the competing moral theories. Undeniably, those moral theories with other theories influenced the

²Postmodern refers to an era that lacks certainty that science eventually provides all the answers with complete objectivity. In this postmodern era the state where science provided all answers seems impossible and undesirable. Science no longer holds an unassailable position as the pinnacle of truth.

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practical ethics maxims instructors offered as case analysis tools to their students.

Practical ethics instructors do not teach the "truths" of moral theory. The professional schools studied were not extensions of the philosophy department with practical ethics instructors engaging their students in deep discussions about the relative merits of rule versus traditional utilitarian³ propositions. The practical ethics instructor had a different discussion planned based on the case description. The three wise monkeys promote different strategies but they have the same overall purpose as practical ethics teaching in professional schools. The ornament does not represent a deep and enduring philosophical truth.

A case study often contained a problem that required mental tools to manufacture a plan. These tools also served as justification when the action originator is challenged. A practical ethics maxim, inspired by utilitarian moral theory, suggests the student weigh the consequences of various possible actions. This consequence measuring is a tool to analyze particular case problems. Any action that creates the most benefit for the greatest number is the one to pursue. The practical ethics maxim can then serve as a justification for that action when the student's plan is questioned.

³Utilitarian or Consequentialist moral theories hold that to decide what one should do you consider carefully the consequences or outcomes of any action.

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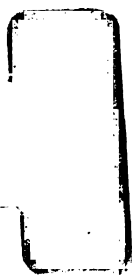
Summary

Each chapter describes different descriptive facets of that opportunity to learn which the case study represented. The first chapter reviews the practical ethics literature. Data collection and the study design are described in chapter two. A third chapter introduces the reader to important phenomena and vocabulary. This introduction describes three fictional ethics instructors teaching with case studies in medical, business, and education schools. Chapter four looks at what instructors claim are their purposes as they described characteristics for a good teaching case. Possible sources for case studies are dealt with in chapter five. Ethics instructors saw the case study as an important tool that serves three functions for teaching. Chapter six contains detailed descriptions of how an instructor created the opportunity to learn ethical content by following an analytic procedure in a case study context. The seventh chapter portrays the people who taught ethical case studies and their place in the professional school.

The case study is a "black box" that professional school instructors apply to various practical problems. It is a black box because it operated as a universal translator or link between the general abstract theory and the situation found in the professional world. Instructors are uncertain about exactly how the black box works and so they utilize varied resources drawing on their background, moral theory, and theories from the professional field to study a case. Professional school ethics instructors have a strong personal commitment to ethics teaching. The

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strong personal interest operates in a variety of institutional environments within the three professional schools.

CHAPTER 1 FRAMING THE QUESTION

Introduction

This literature review follows a pattern adopted throughout the study. Each type of professional school is presented individually followed by some cross-school comments. Material for this review came mostly from the prefaces, introductions, and tables of contents in education, medical, and business ethics textbooks. In those introductory remarks authors presented their views on such issues as defining a case study, methods of analysis they favored, and how they saw the relationship of ethics with other subject-matter.

I chose this review because I found little formal literature on case study teaching. Narrowing the focus to case studies that deal with ethical content and that literature became very small. One alternative was to review the professional ethics literature. However, that professional or applied ethics writing tries to establish the moral underpinnings to professional activity. The applied ethics literature does not deal directly with ethical case studies. A moral philosophy

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review was also tangential. Theories from moral philosophy is only one important influence among several others affecting the conduct of practical ethics teaching within professional schools.

Education Schools

The history of education ethics.

The literature for education ethics represents a paradox. Ethics is either non-existent or it is in every education text. Therefore, it was impossible to provide a distinct history of education ethics as I do with business and medical ethics. Several authors argue that teaching is a moral craft (Tom, 1984; Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990). The idea that everything in education could have moral implications was a view many education instructors endorsed. This "ethics is everywhere" perspective meant there was no tradition presenting a separate education ethics literature.

Defining education case studies with ethical content and locating their sources.

It seemed important before searching for the case study sources that I was confident I could recognize what a case study was. Recognizing case studies is not a trivial task, because what counts as ethical content is open to various interpretations. Grossman (1992) in a chapter titled "Unanswered Questions," concluded a collection of papers about case study teaching in teacher education with what the writer admitted was a

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study teaching in teacher education with what the writer admitted was a vague definition. Grossman defined cases as realistic, contextual accounts that supposedly teach something. Instructors were equally vague about the defining qualities for case studies. These words "teach something" are ambiguous enough that anything could serve as subject-matter in a case study. The "something" sought is ethical content and that in education presented a special challenge.

Everything in education has the potential for ethical consideration. Events that range from the first few routine moments that start a secondary school class (see Hansen, 1989); designing an American national curriculum; or justifying a teacher's professional status claims (Goodlad, 1990; Soder, 1990). Ethics education writers claim is everywhere whether the scale was micro or macro. Ethics was inseparable from education's central activities. However, this is very different from finding ethical content routinely dealt with in all education school classes (Goodlad, Soder & Sirotnik, 1990).

This raises a puzzle explored throughout this investigation. The case study gives the context that conveyed ethical content. But that ethical content is not easily recognized and could appear in any conceivable educational context. Education school instructors depicted the case study as an all-purpose tool that can convey ethical content at the individual, organizational or systemic levels. This suggests a seemingly infinite number of contexts to depict ethical issues in cases where in fact that number was finite. Case study writers in education

preferred descriptions with positive and ideal practices. The infinite possibilities became a very limited set when we exclude cases showing "bad practices." Further, this good practice feature strongly suggests that teacher educators felt they should control and monitor the case study sources. Several authors noted the lack of "good cases" that exist in education.

I am not suggesting an "evil conspiracy" among teacher educators, simply stating that many potential "case studies" are unsuitable to the purposes valued by teacher educators. Bird and Anderson (1992) used cases that showed teaching images the students may not have encountered before. This case use served a commonly found agenda in teacher education. The teacher education folklore, over the past twenty years, described the negative effects their students' school experience had on those students' preparation as teachers (Lortie, 1975; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1986). Teacher education students confronted with methods and beliefs that contradict what they observed in their schools trust personal experience over what the professional school tells them. Therefore, instructors asking students to supply cases would be a great surprise. Those cases probably describe practices teacher educators judged undesirable.

The negative evaluation of student experience creates a dilemma for education instructors. Education case writers and instructors work around that dilemma through a "recycling strategy." An instructor wants a case that students cannot dismiss as unrealistic. Demands for realism

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suggest that classrooms are a logical place to find cases. However, what students and teachers describe directly from that classroom contains what the education school instructors see as unsatisfactory visions of teaching. This establishes a loop where education school case writers and instructors recycle student and teacher experience rewriting, that classroom experience with the teacher educators' "spin."

Lee⁴ Shulman (1992) inadvertently supplies evidence for recycling in a definitions list for case study terms. Case materials we are told are the raw substance that make up a case whereas a case report is a first-person situational account. This case material is what the case study writer recycles as third-person reports that qualify for the term case study. A teaching case is a case written and edited specifically for teaching from a third-person case study. Judith Shulman's (1992) collection about case studies for teacher education had several instructors who described how they recycle school experience (see Kleinfeld 1992, Wilson 1992, and others).

Recent case study collections in education share this recycled school experience property. Greenwood and Parkay (1989) recycled the experiences via a surveyed teacher sample from six states. The Silverman, Welty & Lyon (1992) textbook acknowledged the effort from

⁴I break here with the usual APA style convention for clarity. Lee and Judith Shulman have written extensively on topics related with cases. Lee Shulman has also written articles in books edited by Judith Shulman. To avoid confusion I broke APA convention to clarify to whom the particular commentary refers.

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four graduate students who recycled experiences from teacher interviews for their case study collection. An instructor's evaluation of what their students bring apparently drives this recycling strategy in education case studies.

Education and business often assume that the cases described undesirable situations. Education case writers depicted and selected the positive features that made the case unfamiliar to the student. But, the business instructors do not worry about their students' distorting experience. Business cases confront students with unethical examples. In further contrast, medical school instructors write teaching cases but they do not assume that those workplace descriptions always depict undesirable visions of practice. Each professional school portrayed the professional in various roles. Case studies in business are full of "bad guys," education cases depict rehabilitated "bad guys," and medical cases show us the "good guys."

Good case characteristics according to the education literature.

A good teaching case in the literature was a multi-purpose tool. Authors did not stipulate that case studies be only this length or take any other specific form. Writers and case teachers argued whether a case study reveals the outcome or if the inclusion of commentaries adds or detracts from student understanding (Shulman, 1992). Unlike business or law there was no Harvard education school case curriculum that exerted its influence and shaped instructors' thinking about good or

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superior forms of cases. This might change as educational case study collections grow in books and on electronic networks (Merseth, 1990).

The literature revealed five broad criteria that apparently mark a good education case. As one might expect when dealing with a multiple purpose tool there is important variation. One very popular criterion was that a case give students opportunities to make decisions or action plans (Greenwood & Parkay, 1989; Merseth, 1992; Silverman, Welty & Lyon, 1992; Sykes & Bird, 1992). This decision making function was an important type of analysis in the whole study. Action-plan case analysis assumes that the case itself represents an important problem or class of problems. Those case problems alone are important enough to need solving.

Beyond the bare statement that a good case study provided practice for decision making authors referred to other related planning skills. Kleinfeld (1992) and Lee Shulman (1992) saw good case studies teaching pattern-recognition skills. Shulman drew parallels with chess expertise where studying several cases makes them coalesce into a recognizable pattern. The student matches these situational patterns to later problems encountered. Kleinfeld referred to this criteria as the recognition of conditions that ease or hinder change. At some point the case function slides from concrete problem solving practice to establishing a mental template for decision making.

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Shulman and Kleinfeld talked about cases stressing links to concrete decisions. The other end of the scale has its advocates establishing a mental template for students through case study. Miller and Fredericks (1990) with Carter (1992) saw cases as opportunities to explore various metaphors. Metaphor language established a way to analyze any case in diverse ways. Calderhead (1991) is one author who looked beyond the time when action-plans are formulated. A good case for Calderhead stimulated reflection on a past decision's effects and led to further redesign.

A second popular criterion for a good case study in education was that it gave vicarious teacher or administrator experience (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990; Bird & Anderson, 1992; Kleinfeld, 1992; Sykes & Bird, 1992; Shulman, 1992). A good case allows the aspiring teacher or administrator access to the education professionals' world without bearing the responsibility for actions. Good cases that offer power without responsibility could serve two analytic functions. The vicarious experience may serve the action-plan decision-making function or it may socialize the students to how professionals feel. Good cases that allow students to feel, at least partially, what it is like to face professional problems seem different in degree from action-plan case analysis.

Kleinfeld wanted good cases to allow students the practice at thinking like professionals. This is a common goal for many in professional schools. However, education was different because the case study

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changed, challenged, or confronted the assumed student beliefs about teaching. Teacher educators distrusted students' teaching visions formed by experience. The good case modeled alternate beliefs and behavior. Modeling suppressed the student's vision and challenged it with new beliefs the instructor valued (Bird & Anderson, 1992). In education good case studies had the therapeutic property that transforms students' beliefs about teaching. In this study action-plan and therapeutic case analysis were important functions served by cases for ethics instructors.

A third criterion, according to many people who write and teach using cases is that the case represented educational craft knowledge. This is a notoriously difficult knowledge form for instructors to tell students about (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990; Kleinfeld, 1992; Shulman, 1986, 1992). Instructors educating students for a craft see cases as representations of knowledge, skills and dispositions that make each profession distinct. Crafts were generally taught by apprenticeship to a master craftsman. It seems that some writers hope that case studies capture professional intuitions and convey that craft information to professional school students. Writers hope that a good case produces a mental change in the students and so the case serves a therapeutic teaching function.

The fourth important criterion was that a case study motivated students by giving them an interesting puzzle. Easy puzzles are not very interesting to study. One usually expects puzzles to withhold the

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Galloway (1976) and Kleinfeld (1992) did not require that cases come with solutions. In Kleinfeld's discussion of one teaching case "Malaise of the Spirit" (Finley, 1988) an apparent strength was that the outcome which is given throws the students into doubt about the teacher's actions. Strike and Soltis (1985) endorsed the puzzle property but they saw a conclusion as important in the resulting discussion. It is not easy to decide whether including the solution ultimately is or is not important. Perhaps it depended on the instructor's purpose. The solution might provide good information in a case where the instructor expected students to evaluate other people's decisions. Whether a case gives the solution was less significant than the general property that good cases engaged students or, as Sykes and Bird (1992) described it, draw them into the problem. The good case has the property that motivates students and that property resolves a difficult teaching problem for some writers.

The fifth criterion for a good case was that the case provided the opportunity for connecting potentially "uninteresting" abstract theories and principles to particular situations (Galloway, 1976; Boehrer & Linsky, 1990; Shulman, 1992; Silverman, Welty, & Lyons, 1992). However, some authors dispute this connection function for cases. Boehrer and Linsky (1990) were skeptical about how effective case studies are for teaching theory. They wonder if the case study depicted the most

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This fifth criterion for a good case provides the third and the final type of analysis identified in this investigation. Authors and instructors use case studies as practical examples or illustrations of abstract theories. In a connection analysis instructors wanted the students to see a link between a theory, principle, or a commonly held understanding and the described case particulars. Action-plan, therapeutic, and connection analysis represented the three possible functions that cases fulfilled for the ethics instructors studied.

Case analysis in the education literature.

The case study can serve as the focus for several activities according to Shulman (1992). For instance, the Harvard Business A-B case model allows students practice at two types of analysis. First, students make decisions -- the action-plan analysis. Second, the students do a connection analysis that justifies those actions by linking them to a particular principle or theory.

It is difficult in the literature to distinguish between the possible case study types, the types of case analysis, and the many analytic procedures advocated. Unfortunately the literature is littered with examples where analysis across authors becomes confusing because each

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use terminology in idiosyncratic ways¹. Shulman referred to both a "Harvard analytic procedure" and a "type of case study" as a case analysis type. The Harvard Business case study is simply a label attached to any case that came from the Harvard Business School. This case study type could teach any or all of the three case analysis types identified under the criteria for a good case -- making decisions (action-plan), changing beliefs (therapeutic), or connecting to a theory (connection).

The Harvard Business School A-B analysis procedure presented the case in two versions. An A-version described cases without the outcome. After the students produce their analysis the instructor tells them what the company did (the B-version). Students can compare the outcome described with their own proposals. This A-B case study allowed students and instructor to evaluate the degree to which students think and act like business people, educators or other professionals. On the negative side this analysis procedure can encourage students to consider conservative solutions only or try to guess the "right" answer as represented by the B-version.

¹In this study I will use the following terms consistently to refer to certain ideas. A case study type is simply a label. To give the label some utility in this study's context I refer to three types of case study that infer the level at which that case is written. Therefore, there are individual, organizational and systemic types of case study. Cases that concentrate on a few individuals are obviously a different type from a case dealing with America's education, medical, or economic system. There are three functions for case study analysis referred to as action-plan, therapeutic and connection analytic types. Finally, there are numerous case analysis procedures described in this study. A single analytic procedure fulfills one or more analysis types.

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Shulman's second "analysis" described the narrative case study. The attractive property for a narrative case study is that it represents a good story which captures the imagination. I prefer to call it an analysis procedure when the narrative is linked to Bruner's learning theory (Bruner, 1960; Bruner, 1986; Connelly & Clandinen, 1990). According to Sykes and Bird (1992) the dramatic account, from either a fiction or a nonfiction source, can be revisited in the spirit of Bruner's spiral curriculum at increasingly higher levels of sophistication. The narrative analysis procedure suggests that students explore the same case study after exposure to new principles or theories.

Shulman's third "analysis" portrayed an analysis procedure that takes a group of case studies organized around a particular topic or theme. This clustering strategy allowed instructors and students to illustrate a particular principle or theory. The clustering analysis procedure could be part of a traditional connection case analysis where several cases instead of one case illustrate or serve as examples of that principle. Alternatively the cluster procedure could generate a principle as Bok (1979, 1983) does when she groups cases to show the morally significant feature on which a moral principle can be built. This is still a connection case analysis but the link between the cases and the principle is significantly different.

The fourth "analysis," according to Shulman, presented students with an incomplete puzzle. Again this is a descriptive label for a case study

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type not an analytic type. It is different from the Harvard Business school A-B case study type because the puzzle case normally excludes the eventual outcome (the B-version). However, as indicated case study teachers disagree on the virtues of revealing case solutions.

The last "analysis," Shulman described, was a hybrid version of the Harvard and the puzzle case study. In this hybrid the case study comes with commentaries which present different interpretations. Maybe those commentaries suggest possible courses of action. Different analytic procedures present the commentaries before, with, or after students complete the case analysis.

One obvious concern with listing "types of analysis" is the high probability that they fail to exhaust all possible types. Beyond the ever present possibility of enlargement through a discovered omission it raised the question of what we learn from a list of analytic types? If I see an instructor using the narrative case study what else do I get beyond the satisfaction of attaching a label? As a first step inventing labels may be necessary but that tells us little about what lies underneath the label. "Doing narrative analysis" does not tell us what to do! It is the functions and the ways people actually do the analysis (the types of analysis and analysis procedures) that give interesting meanings to case studies.

Strike and Soltis (1985) suggested that the instructor introduce relevant theories and principles into a case discussion. These author

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clearly have in mind connection types of analysis where moral theories and principles were appropriately introduced when studying teaching ethics. Feinberg & Soltis (1985) connected the case particulars to three different sociological theories -- Functionalism, Conflict or Critical Theory, and Interpretivism. Fenstermacher and Soltis (1986) suggested various teacher role theories link to the case studies. Instructors and students analyze each case study from the Executive, Therapist, or Liberationist role perspective. In these widely adopted texts the case study description and the resulting discussion illustrated connections to a formal theory that went beyond the particulars in the cases.

The view that a case study serves as an imperfect but a practical example of the purer theory is not the only way to depict the case-to-theory relationship. A casuist analytic procedure takes specific details in each case which shape a principle generated from related cases (Bok, 1978, 1983; Jonsen & Toulmin, 1988). Theory, in casuists' eyes, distills the wisdom of the particular contained in similar case studies. In the education school environment instructors interested in describing the teachers' practice wisdom might use a casuist procedure to analyze cases (Shulman, 1986; Sykes & Bird, 1992). A casuist procedure seems appropriate for instructors wishing to influence students' beliefs and habits or to initiate them into the folkways of teaching (Buchmann, 1987).

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For John Dewey's followers a pragmatic procedure takes different moral principles from various theories as interesting ways to look at cases (Dewey, 1932, 1992). Moral principles for Dewey do not supply specific courses of action in particular case contexts. Competing moral theories supply people with different viewpoints and that variety enhances their moral reflection. It is an active process that solves specific problems in case studies. Moral reflection, for Dewey, did not consist of students comparing case particulars with static rules and principles. Repeated case analysis for pragmatically inspired instructors develops students' professional intuitions that come from experience. The pragmatic analysis procedure attracts instructors wanting students to practice constructing decisions or creating habits of mind.

Structures supporting ethical issues teaching using case studies in education.

Structures that support the practice of ethics teaching using case studies take many forms. In the professional schools "the support structure" can be as concrete as the compulsory course in teacher ethics. There may be such a course somewhere but it was not at the three education schools I studied. The support structure for ethical teaching can also be as ephemeral as the assumptions people make when they categorize professional behavior. Cultures and the intellectual

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environment within professional schools provide the support that allows some ideas to flourish and others to die⁶.

There is little doubt that ethics enjoys a privileged position in the educational literature. It is equally possible that authors say what they feel is socially appropriate or the author offers a genuine foundation on which the "helping or caring" professions are built. Goodlad, Soder, and Sirotnik (1990) cited recent surveys that show that teacher education paid little attention to ethical issues, an impression class observations reinforced. The assumption that the education professions are essentially moral dispersed responsibility for ethics teaching among the faculty. Spreading responsibility may mean that individual instructors assume either that the ethical implications are so obvious they need no explicit teaching, or that if they individually ignore teaching ethics it is no great loss because they assume that colleagues will remedy the deficit. It is also possible that everybody discharged their responsibility through regular discussions about ethical issues in every class.

⁶The American Psychological Association (APA) has a professional certification course in ethics that used a Casebook on Ethical Principles of Psychologists, Washington DC: American Psychological Association. The course is required for all psychology professionals which makes it a concrete structure supporting ethics teaching. The text contains cases and ethical rules that are empirically tested among the APA membership. Here is an example of an ephemeral support structure. When I asked the instructor (pilot study) about this practice he expressed surprise that all ethics codes and example cases were not constructed this way. Psychological science legitimated and in some sense shapes the way that ethical discussion occurs in that professional preparation.

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Shulman (1989) mentioned how teachers have difficulty seeing the result of innovations they adopt in their classroom. Curriculum innovators, teachers, and ethics instructors face similar problems of delayed professional reward and hidden teaching outcomes. Dewey (1932,1992) suggested that the professional does not always seek out the benefit in doing something. As professionals, it is possible to take satisfaction in doing what is expected (p.162). Therefore educators should in Dewey's view be content with their function and less on observed results.

Dewey's views on teacher job satisfaction provides an interesting teaching challenge to education colleges and individual instructors. A curriculum premised on moral worth in a functional sense shows the education system, its institutions, and the teacher's role have ethical implications. Students in education foundations classes traditionally explored school functions and ethical issues at least in the three schools studied. Ethics in education prospered in foundation courses along with descriptions of education's broad functions and roles. At the same time ethical issues were rarely found in the methods or technical courses.

In the literature only certain teacher roles are emphasized.

Fenstermacher and Soltis (1986) described three possible roles for teachers as having moral value (p. 55). In the Executive role the teacher used the best research on teaching and learning to do a good job. In the Therapist role the teacher realizes each student's

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potential. As a Liberationist the teacher has a duty to produce well-rounded, moral and rational human beings. The authors do not claim that this is an exhaustive list that excludes other roles, nor do they proscribe mixing roles. However, there is a reluctance in the education literature to endorse any role that suggests a teacher should be conservative and resist change. An ethical role that advocated teachers be status quo guardians was not flourishing in the education schools I visited.

In Shulman's description (1992) of uses for case studies he noted the potential dangers in using cases as precedents for future action. It sets a dilemma for education faculty concerning teaching ethical issues through precedents in case studies. Cases should present realistic teaching practices to show students how the education system functions and yet simultaneously the cases provide precedents for exemplary practices that may be uncommon in existing practice. The teacher educator faces a real dilemma with what cases should depict and that feeds the "great replication anxiety"⁷ of many educators. Indiscriminate descriptions of present teaching and students' schooling experiences represent real threats to innovation.

⁷The "great replication anxiety" is a shorthand way to describe the unfavorable opinion traditionally held about student experience. Education school texts and instructors spend time worrying that despite their best efforts prospective teachers will copy their fifth grade teacher when they get into the classroom. There is a volume of literature that shows the view is not irrational.

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The literature in education ethics favors the ephemeral type of structural support. There are no stacks of education ethics textbooks. Teachers College Press is the one publisher with a growing series dealing with ethical issues in education. Colleges of education do not insist that students attend stand-alone ethics courses and so there is little demand for an ethics textbook in the medical or business school sense.

Medical Schools

The history of medical ethics.

Education marked no division between the ethical issues and the other professional curriculum areas. In the medical and the business literature there is a recognizable tradition of writing specifically about ethics. Education, with few exceptions, discovered cases and case study teaching in the last few years. Secular medical and business ethics case study texts appear from the early 1970's. The secular medical ethics tradition can trace its roots to earlier Christian and Jewish authors. The Christian casuist analysis procedure has recently been "rediscovered" in the medical ethics literature (Jonsen & Toulmin, 1988). However, there is a continuous history of prominent medical ethics instructors and writers with theological backgrounds.

Case studies were essential to early medical ethics texts. In Europe Protestants and Roman Catholics used casuist case analysis procedures

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but in America most Christian texts are from Catholic sources. Casuistry relies on case analysis. Medical ethics books such as McFadden's Medical Ethics (1961) was in press for sixteen years through five editions from its original publication in 1946. McFadden acknowledged in the preface that he was grateful to the original author, another Catholic priest, who wrote the earlier versions.

McFadden's preface makes a distinction between the "general ethics" with its subspecialty medical ethics and the divine revelations. General ethics was a science with a body of knowledge and procedures for finding answers that relies on natural Reason. God alone supplied Divine Revelation and this knowledge is not derived from the human procedures that apply in matters of Reason.

This distinction is important in a Catholic setting because it explains why medical ethics has a secular interpretation. Medical ethics classes, in church and secular sponsored institutions, use only Reason. Reason used moral theories, procedures, and principles not appeals to revealed knowledge from God. Believers seek Divine Revelation outside the medical ethics class. Catholic and Jewish authors agree that for believers, an ethical question could involve Divine Revelation and the application of Reason. Revelations give the believer a potential advantage unavailable to those who rely on Reason alone (Rosner & Bleich, 1979).

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Early medical ethics books mix Reason and Revelation because the authors intended the book to be read by believers. Reason looks to ethical theory for its justifications just like any secular book. The Catholic Church certified Revelation. Kenny's (1952) book has an official statement that certified its contents as free from doctrinal or moral error. Catholic doctrine, sanctioned by the Pope, is infallible (God's word from the official earthly representative).

There are "casuist echoes" in modern medical ethics. One analytic procedure borrowed from casuistry is to describe constantly shifting details which surround an ethical problem. I selected, at random, the topic of masturbation to illustrate this as it clearly contravenes Catholic and Jewish doctrine. In 1952 masturbation was an issue considered when collecting semen samples for testing. Kenny invoked authorities (a Papal edict issued in 1949) that judged it immoral to collect a sample by masturbation or using a condom. As a practical solution he suggested collecting the sample after regular intercourse or by pumping the testicles.

By 1973 medical technology has advanced and the problem is reconsidered (Haring, 1973). Artificial insemination with the husband's sperm was now an acceptable practice. A key detail was that the masturbating was now for the religiously approved activity of procreation. This distinguished it from the broader hedonistic and still immoral masturbating practice. Jewish ethicists (Rosner & Bleich, 1979) contend that masturbation was still forbidden. Removing sperm after regular

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intercourse was the best collection method for artificial insemination. The authors recognized that some modern Jewish authorities favored allowing coitus interruptus.

Secular medical ethics contains many similar instances. Medical ethics replaced God revealing to religious authorities the prohibition on an activity. Instead, we have a principle generated from moral theories and considered under a specific topic. Case details are morally significant and influence interpretation. As medical technology changes so do the judgments and ethical problems. Religious and secular medical ethics texts emphasize individual decisions.

Catholics and Jews have a doctrinal difference about artificial insemination (Rosner & Bleich, 1979). Catholics condemn artificial insemination (except by the husband) as contravening natural laws concerning marriage. Jewish law forbids the practice invoking a religious rule but the law does so without claiming that masturbating is an unnatural act. The problem resolution looked the same despite any doctrinal differences. There are parallels here with competing moral theories yielding varied principles and yet justifying the same action in a particular case.

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Defining medical case studies with ethical content and locating their sources.

Unlike education the medical ethics literature has little difficulty defining ethical case studies. They described complex medical situations that require moral reflection (Beauchamp & Walters, 1989). Early authors such as Campbell (1975) saw those situations illustrating points of moral theory. Campbell later rejected the illustration or direct connection to moral theory and claimed instead a case study stimulated moral reflection (Campbell & Higgs, 1982).

There is a movement away from drawing direct connections between a case study and a specific moral theory. Perhaps that direct linkage looked too much like a secular analogue of the casuists' appeals to authorities. Moral reflection stresses that case readers do more than passively match one appropriate moral authority (or theory) with case details. Reflection implies that the student actively chooses the principles or theories used for interpretation (Carlton, 1978). Carlton advocated that students invoke their moral system during an ethical discussion. In addition to the acknowledgment that there are competing moral systems, the discussion strategy implies aspiring doctors justify proposed actions among colleagues.

The medical case study source was easy to trace. Business and medical ethics had many case study collections and separate textbooks dating from the early 1960's. Every day hundreds of potential case studies are generated in hospitals. Few authors see it necessary to explicitly

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generated in hospitals. Few authors see it necessary to explicitly recognize this obvious case study source. Campbell (1975) was the only author who specifically cited doctors and nurses as the source. In contrast to education no medical ethics writer expressed misgivings that a case reflect a conservative position in medicine practice. Medical case study writers wrote about good and bad technical practices whereas education case writers prefer to describe good technical practices.

The literature does reflect the problem that there are too many possible cases. One solution is to use case studies written by various ethics centers and medical ethics journals. These case have an added advantage because they come with competing commentaries or the citations for opposing interpretations. For instance, it is rare that a medical ethics text or class does not use case studies originating from the Hastings Center (The Institute of Society, Ethics, and the Life Sciences) in New York. This center exerted an influence on the case study supply and how medical ethics should be taught (Danner Clouser, 1980).

Unlike education, medicine did not recently discover that case studies are good vehicles for transmitting professional knowledge. Cases are the traditional way to transmit knowledge and to depict events in medical practice. Educators have recently validated writing cases to record knowledge. Classroom teachers do not use case write-ups, as doctors do with every patient, for every child in their class. Only Special Education (children with emotional and learning problems)

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teachers and those involved in federal Chapter 1 programs (programs for children from poverty) write cases on their students. Business developed cases as teaching aids with a pedagogical strategy not borrowed from standard business practice. Medical ethics, alone, used a common workplace practice.

Good case characteristics according to the medical literature.

An extensive search revealed little discussion about criteria for a good case study. This lack of discussion made sense when medical ethics instructors admitted that they had not thought about good case criteria when I asked them the same question. Medical case studies started as good illustrations of moral theory (Campbell, 1975). This is widely acknowledged in medical ethics textbook prefaces describing the changing relationship between the moral theories and the ethics cases. This ongoing revision for that relationship changed the criteria for judging good medical ethics cases. Various textbook editions reflected this changing relationship.

Munsen's first edition preface (1979) stressed the importance of ethical theories. One theory, ethical relativism, disappeared in the 1988 third edition. Other moral theories described in that first edition included Utilitarian, Kant¹, Ross, Rawls, and Natural Law with theology combined.

¹Kant or Kantian moral theories stress the importance of formulating duties rather than consequences as Utilitarians prefer. Kant is also famous for the Categorical Imperative which allows only rules that can be made into laws followed by all. Ross, wrote in the 30's and is best remembered for his idea of prima facie duties that have enjoyed a recent

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Although the same five descriptions survived the 1983 second edition and the 1988 edition they now can be read in isolation. A new section detailed "major moral principles" -- nonmaleficence, beneficence, utility, distributive justice and autonomy. These principles, not the theories, were now the "essential background" for considering the cases.

A constant problem for textbook writers, confessed to in later editions, was that people, using the texts, complained that the moral theory was irrelevant. Readers could not see any connection between the moral theory discussion and the rest of the text. There are other responses to this criticism but replacing a philosopher's moral theory summary with principles derived from moral theory was widespread. When confronted with a case study requiring resolution it appears that the philosopher's exhortation to read Kant proved unpersuasive in medical ethics teaching.

Beauchamp and Walters (1978, 1982, 1989) produced three editions of their medical ethics text. The first edition described major moral systems (Utilitarian and Kant) that in the second edition precedes a new discussion about "key medical ethics principles" -- beneficence, justice, and autonomy. In the third edition the moral theory and the key medical ethics principles disappeared. One or more commentaries related to the case description was the new format. Beauchamp and Walters evolving text reflected the profound changes that occurred in

revival in moral theory. John Rawls is famous for his ideas on distributive justice. Natural law and theology take moral good to have a natural or supernatural source.

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medical ethics over a very short time. Case studies went from almost incidental practical examples of some theory, through more specific that illustrate a principle in action, to the central focus for moral analysis.

The changing relationship between a moral theory and a case in part reflected the authors' intellectual interests. Many writers were philosophers excited at applying moral theory in this new practical field (Munsen, 1979). Mappes and Zembaty's first edition (1981) had three essays by scholars who specialized in Utilitarianism, Kant, and Natural Law theory. They followed these descriptions with principles used for medical ethics. Four years later, these two philosophers admitted the earlier edition's mistake and replaced the three scholars with their essay giving important features drawn from moral theory that related to medical ethics (Mappes & Zembaty, 1985). Moral theories by 1985, in other texts get relegated to an appendix. Authors recommend that students can use the moral theory as background they are no longer presented as useful tools for analysis (Graber, Beasley & Eaddy, 1985).

Another partial explanation for this trend lies in a recognition by philosophers working in medical ethics that moral theory was accurately portrayed as a battlefield (Brody & Englehardt, 1987). Brody and Englehardt's solution was to introduce "considerations" which look suspiciously like other authors' principles. Apparently students think about these considerations while they read the case studies that follow. The retreat from broad moral theory descriptions to detailed

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consideration of principles might prove to be a temporary refuge before the complete expulsion of moral theory from medical ethics textbooks.

In the *Journal of Medicine and Philosophy* issue devoted to topics in medical ethics Kopelman (1990) rejected the idea that applied ethics was a subspecialty of ethics. He makes the comparison with the relationship between pure and applied mathematics. Applied mathematicians have always argued (perhaps wrongly) that pure math represented a stable knowledge field available as reference to the applied field. There are few moral philosophers or medical ethics textbook writers that expressed the same confidence in moral theory's stability.

This journal issue contained attacks on "principalism" in medical ethics teaching. Danner Clouser & Girt (1990) defined principalism as the practice of using principles to replace moral theories. Principalism reduced complex thoughts of authors like Rawls to a snappy phrase or two sentences. Utilitarian theory is "utility" where students consider solutions to cases that consider "the greatest good for the greatest number."

In the textbooks there were many examples of principalism. In the tables of contents authors organized sections and described individual topics or cases using principalist principles! The principalism phenomenon resembles the instructor's use of maxims or analytic procedures described in this study. However, I do not draw the same

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completely negative evaluation for the teaching procedure. Maxims when taught badly may invoke a charge of principalism.

A good case study reflected medical ethics' development. In the early years religious or secular texts had good cases illustrating a theological position, moral theory, or principle. Case studies were afterthoughts or reinforced truth represented by scholarly discussion. Mappes and Zembaty's second edition preface (1985) announced that forty case studies found in the appendix were for "further analysis and discussion." Case study content took second place to the theoretical concerns described. With the movement away from seeing the case as an illustration the medical ethics literature will probably spend time debating more definite criteria for good cases. There is little evidence in the practical ethics texts or teaching I observed that such a debate has begun.

Case analysis in the medical literature.

In the medical ethics case literature the overwhelming case type described problems which confront individual doctors. This case study type suggests that most case analyses were the decision or action-plan type. In medical ethics, as in medicine, cases described the circumstances surrounding a single patient. Students practiced making decisions using a case study. After students produce decisions they justify the proposed actions by making connections to a specific

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Authors depicted many analysis procedures for making decisions. Brody (1976) suggested a five-step analysis that resembled the "scientific method." First, students identified important ethical questions (framing the research question). This is an activity many people favor in case teaching which they describe as framing or applying perspectives. Brody recognized each case contained several questions not one question. Those advocates of perspectives add the extra insight that various frameworks generate different questions. The second step, according to Brody, formulated "what could be done" statements (in research jargon writing the hypotheses to be tested). Third, the student reflected on the short and long term consequences of those possible actions. Fourth, true to the scientific spirit the student assigned probabilities to the possible actions' consequences. The final step compared the consequence with the best probability against the student's personal values and objective criteria derived from medical ethics.

This scheme illustrates similar analytic procedures found in the literature and in ethics classes observed. Procedural details, task order, and the number of steps may vary. However, the point is that instructors and authors have a "habit of mind," or an analytic routine they want students to practice. Borrowing a method from science is consistent with the image medicine projects of scientific rigor.

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However, Brody's scheme no longer represents the author's current view on analysis procedures. Medicine is not just a science it is an art so an alternate source for inspiration in analytic procedures is the arts. Brody (1987) argued that case analysis should adopt procedures the philosopher John Rawls (1971) advocated. Cases should be considered under the conditions of wide reflective equilibrium. Wide ranging reflection resulted in growing confidence in proposed actions suggested within the cases. Their justifications hold with mutually supporting and illuminating theories and judgments. Brody changed the 1976 emphasis on getting isolated decisions right to the 1987 view that those isolated decisions are connected. The "bigger picture" is still an individual decision maker but a doctor with important moral commitments and a duty to produce morally coherent patterns in their life.

The declining faith in discovering a foundational moral theory required this response. Early texts, such as Munsen (1979), worried about their inability to recommend a single superior moral theory or set of principles. In the preface Munsen suggested individuals choose from any moral theory that justifies their decisions. The author then denied that individual choice is arbitrary and suggested a decision strategy he claimed tested if the student's decisions were objective. By 1988 Munsen abandoned the personal choice of moral theory strategy and substituted the popular selected principles to justify decisions. Wider coherence and consistency mark the new flexible standards for students to evaluate decisions. Under a principle's umbrella similar cases cluster with consistency and coherence as the evaluative standards.

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Using Rawls or moral principles are not the only inspiration for analytic procedures advocated. Beauchamp and Walters (1989) adopted a different approach Richard Rorty inspired. Beauchamp and Walters used commentaries and a case study that model how different moral thinking styles work. Readers use the commentaries to explore each position's weaknesses and strengths.

Coherence and consistency are the new goals for many analytic procedures. Of course, authors also recognize the significance of particular issues contained in each case. But, the prefaces reveal the authors see the importance in giving students a template for systematic decision making and justification. The ethics literature supports medical education's general objective that medics can look at cases, produce a decision, and justify that proposal to colleagues, patients and their relatives.

Structures supporting ethical issues teaching using case studies in medicine.

In contrast to education, medical schools assigned ethical issues to separate classes or courses. The way education viewed moral subject matter results in dispersed responsibility for ethics throughout the school. An ethical grand round⁹ is the closest that medical schools get

⁹Grand round is a mass lecture that allows senior medical staff and guests to discuss a particular issue. Individual cases are the usual content for the presentation. Grand rounds can discuss medical or ethical issues. The frank discussion includes admissions of errors and gives junior staff a rare opportunity to critique a senior colleague's work.

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to an open forum recognizing any instructor raising moral questions. Generally, the medical institutions structured arrangements that deal with ethical issues separate from other curriculum and using non-medical staff.

The literature reflected the alliance between philosophers and medical practitioners. Frequently, the prefaces recognized the cooperative effort between a philosopher and a health professional (see Campbell & Higgs, 1982; Graber, Beasley & Eaddy, 1985; Benjamin & Curtis, 1986). A reasonable question is why medical schools support non-medical authors and instructors as much as they do?

Danner Clouser (1980) suggested that instructors give moral theory last in medical ethics. The author argued students struggling and possibly overwhelmed with issues like paternalism and abortion gratefully embrace moral theory as a firm foundation! As a curricular suggestion the idea enjoyed little popularity but it suggests an answer to medical education's alliance with philosophy. Ethical case studies posed very difficult problems often influenced by technological innovation.

Guenzil (1951) was an early critic of the medical profession's embrace of technological advance. This German immigrant wrote letters to various organizations over a thirty-year period expressing fears that medical technology created ethical problems. Augenstein (1969) dramatically titled his work "Come, Let Us Play God. A science

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coordinator at the Seattle World's Fair Augenstein speculated on medical science's impact on society. An anthropologist Carlton (1979) wrote an observational study criticizing doctors for favoring clinical (read as technical) over moral judgment.

Criticism and doubt from outside the medical profession corresponds with dilemmas faced in a doctor's daily work. Post Second World War legal and social attitudes forced physicians to recognize various patient rights and to defend their actions outside the shield of paternalism. Physicians cannot justify actions based solely on being an expert professional and on knowing what is best for patients. Technical innovations increased the possibilities of maintaining or creating life, particularly at birth and death. Medical ethics texts likewise devote their time to cases about patient-doctor relationships and ethical issues that beset doctors at the onset or imminent end of life¹⁰.

There was no sudden explosion of unethical practices or immoral doctors. Medical ethics did not grow from any perceived sense of crisis or general immorality. In contrast interest in business ethics is often attributed to a moral crisis and a perceived increase in individual misdeeds. Instead, medicine was a victim of its technical success. Philosophers brought ethics to provide relief from problems created by that success.

¹⁰The whole medical industry devotes vast time and resources to the last months of life. According to several sources the average American incurs 80% of their health costs in the last six months of life.

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The medical ethics literature in which philosophers play a major part actively serves regular medical practice. That literature responds to problems that working professionals have. Because the literature and its teachers have a role that extends beyond the ethics classroom medical ethics programs can expect support from the profession.

A medical ethics faculty takes on roles that enhance and serve everyday medical practice. Medical ethics philosophers sit on hospital ethics committees. They provide individual ethical consultations, expert testimony or contributions in different forums. Medical ethics committees are part of the literature. Often ethical consultations give raw material for constructing teaching case studies. Whenever a person commits a physician-assisted suicide we expect a medical ethicist to react on TV news. There are no education ethicists advising in schools, no business ethics instructors who sit on IBM's ethics committee or managing board. Medical ethicist -- even those with no medical qualifications -- support the health care structure.

Business Schools

The history of business ethics.

"The thousand wheels of commerce with all their swift and complicated revolutions, I regard it as an immense moral machinery. Meanness and cunning may lurk amidst it, but it was not designed for that denigration (p.52)." This quotation from V. Dewey (1838) portrayed perfectly Adam

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Business Eth

Smith's vision of the business world. Dewey, the nineteenth century preacher, published pulpit sermons arguing that religion directed the outward (business life) and the inner (spiritual) well-being. Early business ethics writers assumed God's invisible hand directed commercial life. Therefore, business activity was essentially moral. Those early business ethics writers and recent education writers apparently shared the view that their respective activities had moral purpose. It affects how education dispersed teaching responsibility for ethics and may affect the business ethics curriculum. Some people advocate ethics discussions should take place in every business class.

Hunt (1856), a *Merchants Magazine* editor, collected and published over three hundred case studies and anecdotes which mostly dealt with ethical issues. The book provided, according to Hunt, a useful activity for a business person's leisure time that "might stamp itself upon the memory." This secular ethical source like its religious counterpart tried to strengthen business peoples' purposes and plans. The author noted in the preface how people in commerce do not like to simply sit idly and this book could fill their time profitably!

Writing after the First World War Heermance (1926) noted business people's rights and duties should have an experiential foundation not have rights and duties based on tradition and theology. Heermance meant the experience written and formalized in the new business standards that different industries produced. Not until Johnston's 1958 book called *Business Ethics* is there the suggestion that ethical issues should be

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taught in business colleges either as a separate course or as at least a distinct part of courses. Like earlier writers, Johnston wanted ethics to produce "habits of thought" but he also suggested moral theory and principles provided solutions to ethical problems.

The business school taught a business and trades school curriculum in the late fifties and early sixties. Management was a small part of that curriculum mostly devoted to teaching shorthand, typing and accounting skills. Except Johnston, no early literature on business ethics was designed for a business instructor or student audience. If the view of Dewey in 1838 had prevailed there is no reason to teach ethics.

Immorality was an aberration in that commercial engine working for the greater good. That view of commerce had dramatically changed. So, Benson (1982) wrote a book based on the premise that the level of ethical conduct in American business "was lower than in any other modern democracy." This negative evaluation of American business practice justifies business ethics for many authors.

Defining business case studies with ethical content and locating their sources.

Case studies play an important part in medical practice and in medical school education. Case study writing for teaching purposes in education, with a couple of exceptions in the 1970's, was new. Case study teaching in business has a tradition dating from 1908 and the Harvard Business School (Beauchamp, 1989). Business used case studies

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Johnston (1958) represented an early case study collection specifically written for business ethics teaching. These cases came from published sources or were written by the author. Published case study sources and legal reports are common in business ethics texts. Certain topics such as employer-employee relations and pollution, at least in American texts, cite more legal case law and commentaries.

Benson (1982) declared that cases philosophers wrote are superior to any other source. Philosophers produced balanced cases especially in comparison with sensationalist exposes by freelance journalists. Benson worried about the case writer's occupation. He recommended Ralph Nader and his consumer advocacy associates to instructors as a useful source. However, Benson felt the case writing quality varies, requiring that the instructor be selective.

Beauchamp and Bowie (1979, 1983, 1988) produced the most popular business ethics text in America (Mahoney, 1990). This text, written by specialists in the field, used case studies and commentaries. Beauchamp is not only a co-writer of the most popular business ethics text but also he is a prolific writer in medical ethics (see reference list). It was the same Beauchamp who collaborated with Walters in a three-edition medical ethics text.

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Beauchamp (1989) defined business case studies as accounts that dramatize the problems of the business world. According to him a dilemma found in a case study is not an insoluble problem. Dilemmas represent hard choices between at least two reasonable alternatives. He and Benson agreed a case's source represented an instructional problem. Beauchamp observed that few business ethics instructors make it clear to students that the case study could be biased.

Good case characteristics according to the business literature.

According to Beauchamp (1989) there were five criteria for a good case study. First, a good case tests generalizations and sharpens theoretical claims and weaknesses. Beauchamp is a philosopher. It is no surprise that this writer who comes to applied ethics from a philosophical background defined cases as servants of theory. Neither is it a shock that he singled out ethical theory's importance. Nevertheless, the criterion corresponds with the general function applied ethics writers require that the cases connect with general understandings. Those theories do not have to be ethical for other authors.

Second, good cases illustrate clearly an aspect of moral thinking. Modeling the strategy is especially helpful in action-plan analysis. It showed how to approach the problem. The third criterion was that the case supplied incomplete information simulating reality for the actors described. Incomplete information has direct links with teaching

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decision making. However, instructors illustrating a connection analysis to what they perceive as pure theories also accept incomplete descriptions of reality.

Fourth, good business case studies are problem solving exercises rather than the basis for authority as with legal cases. Beauchamp prefers that case analysis formulate actions rather than emphasize connections with legal or other principles. However, not all business ethics writers endorsed the problem solving over the legal precedent case analysis style. Donaldson and Werhane (1988) saw good cases preceding theory. This implies that good cases generate principles the same way that legal cases preceded the establishment of a legal principle.

Lastly, according to Beauchamp, a good case shocks intuitions and beliefs. A link between therapeutic purposes and using cases to confront or change students' beliefs is obvious. Donaldson and Werhane (1988) endorsed a business case's ability to shock students. They feel good cases show a situation that has a dramatic impact on society. Beauchamp wanted a good case to test theory, Donaldson and Werhane saw cases coming before the theory and presumably building good theory.

Carroll (1989) felt a good case study illustrated the stakeholder's demands on business managers. This author favored a business not ethical theory to make connections with when choosing teaching cases. Cases served as concrete instances for stakeholder business theory. Carroll showed the last of three possible relationships the business

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literature describes between a case study and a theory. Good cases according to that literature test, build, or illustrate theory.

Case analysis in the business literature.

Mahoney's business ethics teaching survey (1990) in America, Europe, and the United Kingdom showed that ethics instructors used all possible types of case study. Cases describe business situations at the individual, organizational, or systemic levels. Like education, business ethics writers accept a fictional business system that has its distinct features, processes, and understandings. The marketplace power is a frequent subject for business ethics cases. Even critics assume the system exists and name it "the capitalist paradigm" (Wolfe, 1991). Etzioni (1988) defended a moral dimension to business and attacks the standard "neoclassical" economic view of the system.

Business schools discussed ethical issues in two different classes that spawned two separate textbook types. One textbook was written for the separate business ethics class. This literature looked very similar to the medical ethics texts. The business strategy literature and classes emphasized formulating action plans, with a secondary and sometimes pragmatic justification of those plans (Beauchamp, 1989). Business strategy texts did not automatically associate justifying actions with moral principles and theories.

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Authors like Hosmer (1991) recommended a broad interpretation for what counts as ethical content. Chapter two linked micro-economic theory to ethical behavior by managers. This analytic move is unusual. However, recently business ethics authors argue for ethical content in morally "neutral" theory. A constantly recurring discussion involves different formulations for the relationship between the moral minimum we call law and broader moral considerations (Beauchamp & Bowie, 1988; Hosmer, 1991).

The business ethics literature describes various possible relationships between moral theory and practice. Johnston (1956) saw a huge credibility gap between a moral theory and a case study's circumstances or solutions. This author was pessimistic that careful case analysis resulted in strong linkage to a moral principle or theory. The gap was so large we can apparently "drive a tank through it."

Beauchamp and Bowie (1983, 1988) through different editions show an evolving relationship between the ethical theory and the cases. In the second 1983 edition "ethical theory for all its imperfections provides an indispensable means to produce critical and constructive reflection on problems (p. 48)." Business is about making decisions and those decisions required using an "imperfect [ethical theory] tool." By the third edition in 1988 ethical theory gave one reasoned approach to moral problems and not a "mechanical solution." Moral theory and other reasoning, from law, economics, and behavioral science influenced thought when solving the case study problem. Moral ways of thinking

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The Beauchamp and Bowie opinion about moral theory's role resembles the commonly expressed view in the education schools. They too saw moral theory contributing one interesting way to think about practical problems. The recognition of multiple ways to look at problems made ethical considerations in all aspects of the education school easier to justify.

In practical terms, there is a great difference in an accounting instructor teaching the simple Utilitarian calculation of consequences and asking that instructor to thoroughly teach various subtle Consequentialist theory differences. When moral theory supplies "one interesting way to look at problems," not a body of knowledge, deep expertise in that knowledge becomes less of a requirement. Recent literature in business ethics supported the business school movement to teaching ethics throughout the curriculum.

The changing view about a moral theory's contribution solves one problem but it creates another. No longer does business ethics have to worry whether Kantian, Utilitarian or Virtue-Centered¹¹ theories provided the

¹¹Virtue centered theory is a difficult label to define briefly in moral philosophy. The ancient Greek virtues and vices obviously come under this title. Modern followers inspired originally by Aristotle propose various rational community ethics. This covers a broad political spectrum from conservative neo-Aristoteleans like Alasdair MacIntyre to critical theorists like Jurgen Habermas.

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Mahoney's international review (1990) noted the popularity of "bridging." Bridging looked like principlism in medical ethics except Mahoney implies there is two-way traffic on the bridging principle. Moral theory lies on one river bank, with the case study representing the other side, and spanning the river is a moral principle. The moral principle allows the case analyst easy access to both sides of the river. The claim was that bridging influenced theory and practice.

Just as in the medical ethics discussion concerns about "principlism" exist (Danner Clouser & Gert, 1990; Green, 1990). Holmes (1990) noted that moral theory creates the principles, however, moral theory and meta-ethics do not recognize that practical dilemmas exist (see also Gowans, 1987). If theory is right about dilemmas not existing why build a bridge to a riverbank many of your colleagues cannot see? Why subject yourself to the danger over a dangerous river and likely to sweep the bridge builder away?

Carroll (1989) advocated an approach with truth and justice as the key principles. Armed with these principles the analysis technique compared the behavior described with the prevailing norms of acceptability. Analyzing the behavior in the case first, we identify central facts and assumptions. Second, we decide the main issue and also spend time

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considering other issues that might need further discussion. Third, we identify the stakeholders and we evaluate the companies' responsibilities to these interest groups. Although Carroll was not explicit we could consider those interests under our two principles, truth and justice. Fourth, we formulate our plan of action and we explain why we reject the alternatives. Truth and justice again might be used to justify our plan and to evaluate any alternatives.

If we do not like Carroll's use of stakeholder theory or his two principle choice there is Reidenbach and Robin's (1989) analysis technique. These authors set up two balance sheets for planning. One balance sheet used principles from economic theory and accounting. The other used principles from moral theory weighted in importance for this case. This procedure gives a company two balance sheets although they reject the idea that on the moral balance sheet you can attach monetary value to the weighting. Beauchamp and Bowie (1988), on the other hand, contained authors who advocate the view that all moral problems and values can reduce to a dollar figure.

There are those that reject this drift toward blending the languages and procedures in business with principles derived from moral theory. Barry (1983) suggested, after a brief description of Utilitarian and Kantian theory, that we follow a two-step analysis technique. First, we identify the important obligations, principles, and effects in the case study. Second, we follow a decision rule that states a) when two or more principles conflict or conflicts with obligations choose the action

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that honors the higher principle. Under condition b) where two obligations conflict choose the most important one. Under condition c) when the effects are mixed (good and bad), choose the action that produces the greater good and the lesser harm.

With three possible types of moral theory Barry draws only from two. We could ask why a third virtue moral theory was omitted? Business ethics authors offer different permutations of principles from various moral theories. Guy's analytic technique (1990) listed ten guiding values that could be interpreted as either a principle to apply or a virtue to follow. The author suggests people maximize the value any planned action yielded. Guy tempered the possibility of complete value maximization with an essay on bounded rationality.

The literature showed no consensus existed on a particular analytic procedure. Authors used a dizzy blend of their favorite rational thinking processes. In one area alone was there overwhelming agreement. Detailed moral theory teaching has no place in the business school. Sroeyenbos, Almeder and Humber (1983) in their preface bluntly put into words what others silently endorsed. Only "essential" elements of ethical theory need to be considered in the problems today's business person faces. "Lengthy discourses on distributive justice, Kant's categorical imperative, meta-ethics and similar topics would bore students, it would leave students with the impression that moral philosophy is unintelligible to all but a few eggheads and totally

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irrelevant to real life (p.11)." These opinions gloss over what they feel is "essential."

Structures supporting ethical issues teaching using case studies in business.

According to Goldman (1980) business people faced one key issue: Whether the business role allowed people to abandon or suppress a moral system that operates in their private life. Goldman's book tries to establish a foundation for business ethics that might accept various professionals occasionally acting in ways contrary to commonly held values. This could be extended to the organizational level where the question asks about the aims of business activity. Can corporations pursue profit and exclude any or some social responsibility considerations? Do corporations fulfill their role in society by pursuing profit alone, thereby exempting themselves from other social responsibilities? Business schools and their instructors show great variation in the way that they respond to questions about the propriety and manner of teaching business ethics.

Friedman and his followers deny ethics teaching a place in the business school. According to their critics like Etzioni (1988), Friedman and other neoclassical economists cheerfully admitted their "theory" was unrealistic but they defend it because it generated valid predictions. Business school instructors in sympathy with Friedman's views represent real opposition to colleagues' suggestions that ethical issues are considered in the curriculum. The simple teaching models economics

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considered in the curriculum. The simple teaching models economics inspired stand in clear contrast with fuzzy ethical ideas. This contrast provides business school instructors with a teaching problem. The situation resembles geography teaching in the Seventies when instructors still taught the Davisian Cycle of Erosion. Every geography school teacher knew the theory was wrong but it was an easy and simple way to teach about erosion. The alternative, the aptly named Chaotic Theory, generated a teaching mode that obscured and confused ideas for instructor and student alike.

As an alternative, schools can adopt a separatist stance to the rejectionist position on ethics teaching. Business ethics for a variety of reasons becomes a separate part of the business school curriculum. At the institutional level it avoids factional infighting and allows instructors wishing to pursue the moral aspects of business to do so with little departmental discussion. A separatist view fosters cooperative arrangements with the philosophy faculty. Separate business ethics courses give visible evidence to external critics that these issues are adequately dealt with in the business school. Business ethics courses adopt the case teaching method that many business school colleagues embraced as their own since 1908 (Beauchamp, 1989). Separate ethics courses follow the successful medical school model. However cases are teaching vehicles in the business school, not a practice accepted in daily conduct throughout business.

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The final view a business school could take is the inclusionist stance. From this viewpoint any business activity has ethical implications. Wolfe (1991) argued it was a serious conceptual error to believe that ethics is not taught implicitly in every business class. However, like their counterparts in education, saying ethics was implicit in every class is not teaching ethics in every class. In education schools ethical considerations were prevalent in foundations classes. Inclusionist business schools favor business strategy classes, which formulate actions and justify those plans in terms, that do not reject alternatives to moral theory as fertile ground for some ethical consideration. For example, Etzioni (1988) argues that strategies and decisions formulated with consideration of emotions and value are stronger than purely objective ones. People collectively committed to a plan increase the likelihood of its eventual success.

Cross-Professional Comparisons Across the Types of School

The History of Ethics in the Three Professions' Literatures

All three literatures that deal with ethical issues represent in one sense a long history. Even education can claim that tradition if we accept the writers' assumption (Tom, 1984; Goodlad, 1990) that any topic in education has the potential for moral deliberation. On the other hand, education, if strictly defined as using cases with ethical content, has a short history. Initially, education and business shared a common assumption that the professional activity had moral

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significance. The business ethics literature shows signs of returning to that shared assumption when authors argue that moral theory is just one "perspective" that competes with others. This style of argument sounds very like what we encounter in the education literature. Widening what counts as an ethical foundation in business makes "business ethics" look more like "education ethics" and less like "medical ethics."

Business and medicine used cases to consider ethical issues directly from the start. Business and medicine share an early link between religion and ethics cases and both rejected religion as a foundation for professional ethics. The rejection of religious influence in business was gradual possibly because early "business ethics" books were written for the business professional not as teaching materials. Business ethics became prominent in business school textbooks only when the writers responded to what they saw as an "ethical crisis" in the profession. When people no longer believed that what was good for General Motors was good for the country (the 1950's) it seems to mark a watershed when teaching business ethics became important. The case teaching method developed separately from business ethics and only combined in ethics texts at the same time as secular medical ethics books appeared with case studies. Medical ethics appeared suddenly not from a socially inspired crisis but more gradually as a response to technical complexity.

The transformation in medicine and business although on varied paths is similar. Moral theory and Reason replaced God and Divine Revelation as the foundation for medical and business ethics. Case detail was important in religious and secular case study analysis. Different religious doctrines and moral theories can apply in a specific case and the action sanctioned can be the same. This appears to hold across different religions and in cases analyzed by different moral theories. In the practical ethics literature fundamental theoretical disagreements do not play a large part.

Defining Case Studies with Ethical Content and Locating Their Sources

Where a case comes from greatly interests education case writers and seemed a non-issue for business and medicine writers. Recent education cases must carry two stamps one of authenticity and a second for legitimacy. Case materials may come originally from teachers to give them authenticity. However, case writers monitor and alter that material before it legitimately becomes a teaching case study. In stark contrast one medical case writer cared to acknowledge where the cases came from. Cases are part of medical practice and medical ethics writers do not have to go to great lengths to find suitable ones. Case materials were altered to protect the participants not because they showed illegitimate professional practices. All three literatures are concerned that their cases are authentic. The short time between the editions suggests a value is placed on presenting current case studies for authenticity.

Characteristics of a Good Case According to the Literature

A Supreme Court Justice observed he could not define pornography but he knew it when he saw it! Writers in all three literatures may not be able to define a case study but they know a good one when they see it. Not only do they know a good one but also they share many criteria regardless of the profession.

Writers in all three professions thought that good cases should present problems as incomplete descriptions. Case studies were useful puzzles for different professionals-to-be to practice solving problems. Writers advocated cases that had incomplete information to replicate "working conditions." It was the presentation that varied and disputed within the different literatures. The consensus collapsed concerning issues such as when or if students should be given the outcome.

All three professional literatures see a good case as a vehicle to model analytic strategies. Historically ethics writers did not automatically include case studies. There were early professional ethics writers that described the philosophical and ethical problems without cases. All recent practical ethics writers use case studies that demonstrate how ethical analysis should be carried out. Beyond modelling a strategy for immediate application all three literatures thought good cases provided safe vicarious professional experience. The analytic strategies introduced through case studies had potential utility.

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Only business ethics writers suggested that good cases sharpened theory explicitly. However, education writers do see case studies as a way to teach their "craft knowledge." When we agree what that craft knowledge is perhaps it is justified to claim that cases sharpen theory in education. Medical ethics writers have devoted time redefining the relationship between theory and practice. Although recent texts appear to relegate the traditional moral theories to a minor role it is not outrageous to suggest that a "new theory" is being sharpened by case analysis.

Education case writers made explicit claims for the motivational properties in case studies. Business and medical writers may not discuss this issue but they have strong traditions of case study use. No business or medical writer contradicted the motivational claims and it is hard to imagine an author suggesting good business or medical cases do not motivate students. As Sykes and Bird (1992) noted cases draw learners into situations, problems and roles represented in those case studies. This property implies that the details fascinate us and draw the learner toward the analysis. Details in cases can excite emotions that attract us to study the case while ethically that case description might disgust us. Cases can also act as models of people's responses in different circumstances (Schon, 1983; Kleinfeld, 1992). Cases could teach people how to think like doctors, teachers, or chief executive officers if that is the instructors' goal.

Motivation was not the only psychological criteria a good case possessed. There was one criterion for a good case that medicine did not share with the other two schools. Business and education liked cases that shocked intuitions and stirred emotions. Medical ethics writers certainly chose dramatic ethics cases with important decisions but they did not intend the cases shock the students.

Case Analysis in the Literature

The different professions shared some analytic procedures. The Harvard A-B analysis procedure appeared in each literature as a way to explore cases. The Harvard A-B procedure could serve any of the functions represented by the three types of analysis. The Harvard procedure can allow students to practice decision making to formulate an action-plan analysis. Decisions made can be justified by a connection type of analysis. When the procedure is concluded and the outcome given students can compare their reactions and justifications with the professionals in the case. This final procedure suggests psychological objectives, such as socialization, setting dispositions, and matching novice with experienced professionals beliefs. These aims are favored in a therapeutic type of analysis.

Most ethics textbook writers organize the case studies in clusters around topics or themes. Moral theory and principles derived from those theories is still a popular way to cluster the cases in business and medical ethics texts. Textbook topic clustering is an organizing

procedure that assists the instructor to make the links or connection types of analysis. Even when moral theory is not the organizer for the topical clusters it still allows systematic treatment of particular cases under some other organizing theme or theories.

Each literature has writers who advocate using analytic procedures that solve the problem depicted in the case. These procedures solve the problem at hand (action-plan analysis) and establish dispositions for future problem solving in other circumstances (therapeutic types of analysis).

Business and education writers advocate pragmatic procedures. Education never endorsed the view that philosophical moral theory provided a single foundation for educational ethics. Business ethics writers want to include more theories that have traditionally been seen as amoral. The traditional moral theories and principles no longer hold an unchallenged claim to be the single body of knowledge that business ethics writers automatically looked toward. This does not mean that philosophy and newer moral writers do not play an important role in case analysis.

Structures Supporting Ethical Issues Teaching Using Case Studies

The professional schools have very different support structures that support ethics teaching. Business and medical schools organized ethics around a separate curriculum. Medical ethics texts reveal a utility by

offering solutions to problems technical innovation created. The medical ethics literature reviews current cases and topics that make it inclusive and therefore useful to medical practice in general and the schools' ethics programs in particular. Even using the case study format makes unfamiliar philosophical ideas less strange to medical people. The medical ethics literature shows the strong collaboration between the medical professionals and philosophers.

In the business schools the business ethics program at least historically followed a path of exclusion. Business ethics texts offer solutions to problems generally created by the amoral or unenlightened actions by business. Placing itself in the role of critic and scold is not likely to endear business ethics as a subject. Business ethics texts adopt the case study format which is popular in the business school but has no place in the business world. It might in fact be a disadvantage because business case analysis and simulations are used by the school to foster competitive and gaming attitudes. A "business ethics case study" might provoke inappropriate and hostile reactions from students. The business ethics literature, like its medical counterpart, shows strong collaboration between the philosophers and business teachers. However, there are recent textbooks that show some breakdown in that relationship. There are business school authors who explore the "moral implications" in stakeholder and other business or economic theories.

The literature in "educational ethics" reflects the ephemeral support found in the education schools. There are books that discuss ethical issues but they do so in the inclusive "ethics is everywhere" way that education schools claim they subscribe to. The few early case study collections that appeared in the 1970's had little "ethical content." Those textbooks, psychologists wrote, supported a technical mastery view of teaching. Recent texts do blend technical and ethical content around "edited but authentic" instances of practice. It seems premature to speculate the support and popularity these new texts will enjoy in education schools. These new texts do include a few collaborative attempts with philosophers. One surprising influence absent from these new case collections is the moral development theories of Kohlberg and others. I wonder why a strong "internal source of support" fostered in the education schools is not featured more prominently in ethics texts.

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CHAPTER 2 STUDY DESIGN AND METHODS

Aim

This project describes how instructors used the case study to deal with ethical issues in different professional settings. Those settings represent three types of professional school--medical, education, and business--located in three different geographical sites.

The Pilot Study

The pilot study consisted of attending ethics courses offered in several professional schools. I was a participant observer in the classes where I noted student reactions and instructional strategies. Those pilot study experiences influenced the professional schools chosen and the questions studied.

The case study teaching strategy raised the issues for a cross-professional school study. The pilot showed that there were important similarities and differences across schools. Instructors teaching ethics in professional schools did not always review a common body of

ethical theory and then get the students to apply that theory to problems. Specific professional practices and perspectives affected the ethical problems and resolutions in each school.

The courses were in my Masters and Doctoral program. This meant that like any other student in the class I wanted a good grade. That pressure made me adopt an intensive library review strategy especially in courses outside my field that went beyond the course requirements. I obviously lacked the background knowledge compared to the aspiring professionals in the class. However, sometimes the knowledge deficit worked to my advantage giving insights hidden to those embedded in the profession's norms.

During the pilot study I participated in: Premedical Medical Ethics (sponsored by Dept. of Philosophy and Medical Humanities), Business Ethics primarily for MBA's (Philosophy and the Business School), Media Ethics specifically in television news (Communications School), Education Law (mostly for education administration students), Ethics for School Psychologists and Counselors (sponsored by the Counseling and Educational Psychology Dept.), Critical Issues in Education for teachers and administrators (the last three sponsored in the Education School).

Two potential ethics programs had restricted access. The Military Ethics program was for students registered in the ROTC program.

Professional Responsibility (legal ethics) classes were open to registered law school students only¹².

The Choice of Question Areas for the Study

There were two, separate but related, literature reviews. The first review was for the dissertation proposal writing. This review looked at moral philosophy and the general professional ethics literature. It provided important background information and familiarized me with issues raised by the pilot study. The review also helped in interviews and observing discussions of ethical issues.

One theme, suggested by the first review, was the varied ways authors portrayed the relationship between theory and practice. There were many conflicting possibilities among authors of what counted as the appropriate theory. Various moral theories irreconcilable from the theorists' perspective were not problematic from the professional ethics writers' viewpoint. Practical ethics writers and instructors freely mixed elements from different moral theories. Writers introduced other theoretical perspectives besides moral theory. These theories came from law, current doctrines and principles within that profession, economic theory, and others.

¹² Some months later a letter from one law school offered me access to the course but at a prohibitive cost. Finding two other possible law school sites proved very difficult. I opted to review the professional responsibility course materials from law student friends and purchased the texts used in the course.

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The first review oriented the researcher to the general questions to ask about teaching professional ethics. A second review--sharpened by experience in the field--looked at how ethical cases and case analysis proceed in each of the three professional disciplines (Glaser, 1978 cited in Merriam, 1988).

Conceptual and Methodological Framework

The subject matter for professional ethics and the case study's effectiveness for teaching ethics are disputed. People advocated carefully considered opinions with little empirical evidence to back their claims. The intuitively attractive candidate, ethical theory, was a battleground for contending perspectives. Some ethicists rejected the idea that ethical theory offered any relief in resolving problems in practical ethics.

Investigating student learning from ethics courses was difficult. It is either premature or futile to argue that an ideal case analysis teaching method exists. It is premature because no agreement exists on what or how ethics should be taught. It is futile because without some consensus it is impossible to design instruments to measure what exactly students learn in practical ethics classes as opposed to bring with them into the class. Therefore, this study describes the relationships between practice and theory and the complexity that this represented. I focused on describing how instructors arranged their students' opportunities to learn using case studies. The study describes what

Geertz (1983) called the general reorientation of social thought from a 'theory into practice' to a recent emphasis on practice.

Berlak and Berlak's (1981) dilemma language served as an early organizer for my thinking. Subsequently, I retained the model's influence but departed from it where--in the light of data collection and analysis--it seemed inappropriate. Their central idea was that a dilemma is a state of affairs to which there is no correct resolution. Furthermore, the dilemma is a situation that we either react to or seize as a moment to create a state of affairs. The data analysis showed a mixture of reaction and proactive behavior by instructors.

Generally, the practical ethics dilemma has reshaped the relationship between theory and practice. The links between moral theory and practical ethics as philosophers understand them are less self-evident to professional school ethics instructors. The fuzzy linkage comes from two separate purposes that guide the professional school ethics instructor and the moral philosopher. The practical ethics instructor using cases provides a situation specific solutions with procedures that transfer beyond that case. The moral philosopher wants to generalize the solution and the procedure beyond the constraining case details. This is an important distinction as the ethics instructor and moral philosopher may be the same person operating in different settings.

Professional ethics in many schools took on a life of its own.

Professional schools had not abandoned theory entirely and concentrated

on solving short term pragmatic problems. Instead the different schools selected from many commonly held understandings, or theories, to explore problems of practice. Moral theory represented one source for those commonly held understandings. Case analysis took what moral philosophers conceived as theoretical generalizations and transformed them into useful ways to look at practical problems.

It was impossible to study all aspects of professional ethics teaching. Therefore, the study was restricted to the familiar feature of case studies with ethical content. The case study or instance represented a definable moment in the class. That moment was potentially where the instructor focused on the relationship of interest namely theory and practice. In case analysis instructors dealt directly with relationships between the context particulars and knowledge with a utility beyond that context.

Framing the problem this way avoids one dangerous assumption that all instructors explicitly taught ethical theory in the sense a moral philosopher understood it. This assumption did not hold in the pilot study and so probably would not in the main enquiry either. People could claim they dealt with ethical issues and yet deny teaching moral theory. But I met only two instructors out of nearly fifty who denied they used case studies in their teaching. The reality of practical ethics was that nearly all instructors--who felt they deal with ethical issues--used case study analysis in some form.

The Choice of Schools

Medical school.

Medicine represented one prominent contributor to the professional ethics literature. The researcher rejected law, the other obvious candidate, because legal ethics was in the curriculum through legislative mandates. Legal ethicists frequently speculate on how, if at all, law schools would deal with ethics if not compelled to do so. Medical schools are not legally compelled to provide ethics courses for professional certification.

Medical ethics, since the late 1960's, figures somehow in doctors and nurses' training programs. This established field gives an interesting dimension for cross-professional comparisons with schools without the curricular history. Medical ethics had a recurring theme that technological advance contributed substantially to creating ethical problems. Case analysis is approached at an individual or small group basis. Case analysis, according to the literature and my preliminary observations, had a method (epistemology) that looked unique.

The medical ethics epistemology dictated a sharp distinction between policy and ethical content in cases. Physician ethics concentrated on analysis of ethical problems that faced the individual doctor. In two sites (Our Lady and Western) case analysis replicated regular clinical analysis. In the third site (Eastern) case analysis took a lecture

format by the "in-house" philosopher and modelled philosophical thinking. Prior to data collection there was a hope that the religious school (Our Lady), might provide interesting epistemological contrasts. Indeed, Our Lady's instructors did practice casuist case analysis but the expected contrast with secular settings was not found. Instructors in secular settings also practiced casuist case analysis.

Business school.

Formal business and medical ethics teaching have existed for about the same time. However, the ways that ethical issues appear in the curriculum seemed different. Besides a separate compulsory business ethics course, like medicine, there were elective business ethics courses and discussion of ethical issues in other business classes. Even business ethics course titles were a matter for variation and dispute. Some instructors insisted they taught business ethics, others denied this and called their courses values or social responsibility in business. This dispute about a name reflected the instability concerning where and what was an appropriate structure for ethical experiences and ethics' status within the business school.

Business schools provided examples of integrated ethics teaching throughout the curriculum and separate courses devoted to ethics only. This contrasted with education and medical schools where the issue is resolved in opposite ways. Medical schools favored the separate course while education integrated ethics throughout their programs. In

business schools there is a long standing tradition of dissent from some faculty members about the appropriateness or the necessity of ethics teaching. Ethics, critics argued, should be dealt with by economic theory, family training, and legal rules.

Education school.

Initially I expected education to provide the null case in the sense that ethics was not taught explicitly. Except the specialized course based on the American Psychological Associations Code of Ethics I found no named course (in the literature or program descriptions) dealing with ethical issues explicitly. The reality was that the two departments I studied argue, like some business faculty, that they deal with ethical issues in all of their classes.

Frequently business and medical instructors saw ethics as an isolated area to study. The education faculty--with support from their literature (Tom, 1984; Hansen, 1989; Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990)--see ethics as an indivisible part of the teaching profession. Education schools provided sites where an integrated view of ethics might affect case analysis with significant ethical content.

The pilot study findings suggested I restrict myself to the two departments of teacher education and educational administration. While the departmental arrangements varied between sites each education school

prepared people for those two roles. Other interesting departments in education schools did not exist in all the sites chosen.

The Choice of Sites

Site choice mixed my pragmatic and intellectual concerns. All sites had to be within driving distance. I drove several thousand miles over a five-month data collection period. The study's site choices I found were like planning a fishing expedition. You plan to catch a particular fish or data. It is only when the fish comes up by the bank that you are sure you have got what you planned to catch. The same feeling occurred when I interviewed or observed people. Confidence in the site choice and instruments came after gathering the data. You hope the question yields interesting data but hope is not a solid guarantee. Sometimes I left data collection feeling the same as I did after some fishing trips. I fished hard but failed to get much cooperation from the fish -- my respondents.

The sites and the types of school chosen represented purposive sampling. There are no claims that this school sample represents some probability or optimal sample. No proposition in this study is backed by the authority of statistical representativeness nor were the sites chosen for their exemplary ethics programs. However, the results based on these data may transfer to other settings. That transfer depends upon three elements. First, the researcher communicates an authenticity that makes the data sound as though it refers to real ethics teaching.

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Second, that the researcher's presentation provides a compelling case for speculations. Third, the data evokes memories for the reader that link the findings presented with contexts known to that reader.

The university and the professional school descriptions present both pre and post study hopes for interesting features leading to that choice. They are not accurate reconstructions of *a priori* planning. These descriptions are brief by design. I undertook that my informants and their institution remain anonymous. This proved a difficult promise to keep because during the writing I often faced a trade-off between adding details that simultaneously made the case presentation more compelling and yet threatened the confidentiality I promised to keep.

There is a paragraph or two sketching out ethical experiences in undergraduate and graduate programs after the institutional description. The program description highlights several consistently interesting features for example, practical ethic's location in the curriculum and relevant institutional features important for cross-case comparisons.

The literature review showed the significant contribution by theological writers to the professional ethics field. Catholic priests made theoretical contributions and wrote textbooks on practical ethics. Taken with the doubts many ethicists express about a possible philosophical foundation it made sense to investigate a possible religious foundation to practice. This motivated the Catholic sponsored institution choice that had the required three professional schools.

Our Lady of the Midwest.

Our Lady of the Midwest (Our Lady) had 14,000 students. The university attracted many students from within 50 miles of its large Midwestern city location. Various Catholic religious orders make up a significant minority in the faculty.

The undergraduate program had a core curriculum for the Humanities that included history, literature, philosophy and theology. A new university-wide center was responsible for ethics across the curriculum. The center's existence suggested an institutional commitment to studying ethical issues. There were many internationally known scholars, even among the university's administration, who specialized in the ethics field. The philosophy department as I was frequently told was possibly the largest in the country.

The undergraduate core curriculum included nine hours each of philosophy and theology. However, it is wrong to assume too much from this compulsory element. First, Our Lady admitted many non-Catholics. All students take the theology courses but the university offered courses catering beyond Catholic theology, for example, Eastern Religions, Women in Religion, and African-American Religion in the Americas. These broad offerings fulfilled the compulsory theological requirement. A similar wide range of choices existed in philosophy. Therefore, it is wrong to assume all undergraduates get a solid foundation in ethical philosophy. Instead the students' experience is best described as making them

familiar with the vocabulary of theology and philosophy according to professional school instructors.

A second moderating factor in any assumptions about students' prowess in ethical theory was Our Lady's urban location. Many professional school graduate programs attracted students who were not undergraduates at Our Lady. It is therefore dangerous to assume that students in the Medical or Business School MBA Program had this unique grounding either in philosophy or shared a single theological perspective.

The school of medicine granted its first degrees at the turn of the century and the new medical center and a teaching hospital was opened in the late 60's. Medical ethics played a significant role in medical student preparation. The Medical Humanities program director was an acknowledged pioneer in the ethics field. A medical ethics course, lectures, and an independent study project of an ethical issue formed a variety of ethical experiences Our Lady offers their students.

Our Lady School of Business Administration opened in the 1920's. The undergraduates are mostly commuter students. Graduate MBA programs served many part-time students. Undergraduate and graduate business students supposedly dealt with ethical issues in many business courses but especially in what were called the business strategy classes. The names vary but this "capstone experience" was common to all sites. However, only at Our Lady and Western were ethical issues a part of strategy courses. Eastern did not study ethics in the business strategy

class despite one strategy professor actually being responsible for business ethics. Our Lady MBA students took either a public policy or social responsibility course and other ethics seminars occasionally offered.

The school of education at Our Lady recently underwent a major structural change. A recent local college closure resulted in an influx of students and faculty. Teacher education candidates and education administration students had field experiences in Catholic inner city and suburban schools in addition to the public school systems. Our Lady claimed ethical issues were dealt with in a variety of courses like the other education schools. Those courses are held in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies department and the department of Curriculum and Human Resource Development.

Western Midwest University.

Western Midwest University was a 40,000 student university with state sponsorship. The university lay in a cluster of communities that range from a student dormitory city to locales relying on large manufacturing enterprises and state government offices. Both Western and Eastern attract students from all over the country. Different professional schools-in each university-attract students from a national or local pool.

Western, after the study, changed from the quarter to semester system. Part of this site's appeal was the anticipated effect of possible curriculum changes and course evaluation hastened by the university wide transition. Unfortunately this contrast failed to be realized for three reasons. First, all sites claimed they were renewing or revising programs. The normal state in tertiary education, by informants' definition, was the shifting flux of change. Stability in the curriculum translated to a cause for concern.

Second, an unanticipated factor in this failed contrast was a researcher mistake. I committed to collect data before the changes went into effect. However, with hindsight's perfect vision I still could not identify the correct point for data collection. Third, the degree of control by instructors over such a major change varied widely. Some instructors reported little input into either the new courses offered or those new courses' content. One full professor told me the chair had mentioned the semester courses they would teach in the elevator one day. Other instructors reported high input levels within the new curriculum. These widely fluctuating situations suggested a range of responses to massive change based on idiosyncratic and departmental cultural differences.

Western established a medical school in the early 1970's. The school's purpose differed significantly from Our Lady and Eastern concentrating on primary care (family practice). This school had no teaching hospital on site. The Medical Humanities department reported to the Provost.

This administrative arrangement results in a series of ongoing negotiations with the colleges of Human Medicine, Nursing, Osteopathic Medicine, and Veterinary Medicine. Those negotiations result in very different relationships with the separate colleges.

I concentrated my data collection on the colleges of Human Medicine and one observation and interview in the College of Nursing. Osteopathic medicine and the veterinary schools had a series of guest lectures on an as needed basis. Eastern Medical School provided my case of the guest lecture teaching style in medical ethics.

Unlike Our Lady, Western had restricted opportunities to deal with ethical issues. No teaching hospital meant students scattered around thirty intern and residency sites across the state. The major ethical experiences offered in the College of Human Medicine were the second year students' Focal Problems course and a third year individual essay about an ethical issue. In the College of Nursing the ethics course is in an undergraduate program. All premedical students could take an undergraduate introduction to medical ethics before they declared their specialty.

Western School of Business was expanding both its curriculum and physical assets. Many students came from within the state but there was a noticeable increase in out of state and foreign graduates as the program expanded. Instructors exposed students in the undergraduate business programs to some ethical issues integrated throughout all

programs. In addition, undergraduates and their MBA counterparts also had a compulsory "capstone" strategic management course that discussed some ethical issues. MBA and Doctoral students could take a Business Ethics course team taught by a philosopher and business school instructors. The school was making major changes to their curriculum. The Dean reported that international business and ethics formed a major part in that new curriculum.

Western Education School produced large numbers of teachers for the surrounding states. This major research university was consistently rated in the top ten of education schools in the country. The college offered various programs to their students. The school attracted students from all over the United States and beyond especially at the post baccalaureate level. Both Teacher Education and the Education Administration departments claimed ethical issues were an integral part of all courses.

Teacher education ran five separate training programs for prospective teachers. One program was the standard training replicated throughout the country. The remaining four programs were small scale and demanded high admission standards. Each program used a different lens to look at teachers and teaching. Those different lenses produced the varied programs. An educational administration department prepared large numbers of school administrators statewide.

Eastern Midwest University.

Eastern Midwest University was about the same size as Western with 36,000 students. The university lay in a small town which has grown since the early 1800's with the university. Like Western it attracted students from all over the country but normally to different professional schools than Western.

Eastern medical school was a nationally recognized research and training institution. It had a teaching hospital attached to it which takes patients from all over the world. The school was constantly rebuilding and expanding with new teaching and research buildings. Among the remodeling efforts was a small suite of offices constructed for the Director of Human Values in Medicine. Under the Medical School Dean's authority this was a new department. At the time the department consisted of one person responsible for all the ethical content in the curriculum.

The main student experience in medical ethics was the Director's occasional appearance in a grand rounds lecture series. Here various ethical topics get discussed with up to 200 students. Medical students could also attend a series of public lectures on ethical issues. This site relied exclusively on lectures to discuss medical ethics.

The business school had a solid but more limited national reputation. Eastern was experimenting with a course entitled "The Ethics of

Corporate Management." The instructor for this pilot program anticipated that one third of all MBA students would take this pilot program in its first year. Until the experiment, students in undergraduate and graduate programs were exposed to ethics through guest lectures and invited presentations in other courses. The instructor for the experimental course had a history of involvement in business ethics. Another course (Law and Ethics), which may be temporary, dealt with ethical issues from a legal perspective designed by a visiting instructor. I discovered this course through chance notice board reading and included it in the case report.

The education school at Eastern had undergone a modest expansion. Eastern trained their teachers mostly for the state. It was building its graduate program with an emphasis on full time students entering the academic job market. As the Educational Studies Director reported the school did not attract large numbers of educational personnel taking courses toward state certification and job related study. The fees were prohibitive and other institutions offered programs attractive for part-time students. Again, Eastern claimed that ethical issues are dealt with in a variety of courses. There were no independent courses called educational ethics or some similar title.

Instruments: Evolution and Limitations

The major data collection tools were the instructor interviews and teaching observations. A written response instrument called a vignette

supplemented observations. Artifacts that consisted mainly of syllabi and classroom materials proved valuable in the data analysis. In addition, I collected books, articles, or cases that instructors had written to broaden my knowledge about informants. For other background material there were short interviews with school and departmental administrators and promotional literature provided by the individual schools or the university¹³.

The need for multiple sources of verification is reinforced by an incident that occurred during data collection -- the university ethics teaching survey "that never existed." At one site an informant mentioned over the phone they had thought about me when they received a survey report detailing ethics teaching across the university. They gave the report's source which had then issued a memorandum asking staff to disregard it because the report was under further revision for errors. My informant suggested I contact the author and ask for an amended copy. By chance my next field visit included an interview with the report's author.

In the interview I mentioned the report detailing ethics teaching across the whole university. The interviewee agreed such a report would be of great interest to both themselves and to me. I was told such a report did not exist. Later that day while interviewing another instructor they volunteered there was a report about ethics teaching. I asked how they knew about this report and they produced a copy from the filing

¹³The Appendix includes copies of the instruments used.

cabinet. Entitled "Survey of Values and Ethics" it reported the results of a survey sent to all departments and schools in the university. Separate departments listed courses with ethical content. There was also a brief sentence or so describing the ethical content. When I asked for a copy I was directed back to the interviewee who had denied the reports' existence.

I cannot provide a full explanation why this report disappeared. One can speculate about why I was told the report did not exist when it clearly did. The author only had to say it was being revised and so was not available. What this incident teaches was never to rely on one data source or informant too heavily. In interviews some people appeared under pressure and uncomfortable. Therefore, it should be no surprise that in the heat of the moment informants say things that range from outright deception, through exaggeration or minimizing, to simple mistakes.

Visible pressure in a one-on-one interview was not as noticeable in the observations. Always I interviewed people before I observed them. I did check the informants speaking tone in interview and observation. This comparison revealed that when I was not the single focus for their attention instructors appeared more relaxed. Students in classes, after a standard introduction paid little visible attention to me although some would occasionally glance at me. On a few occasions students tried to engage me in conversation normally after class. On those occasions I offered general remarks and ignored invitations to evaluate the class I

had just seen. I took no active part in the classes to minimize the inevitable effect the presence of any stranger had on the classroom dynamics.

Chair interview.

This brief interview took approximately thirty minutes. No informant claimed the questions threatened them. The chair briefly sketched out the professional training programs offered in their school or department. There were probes about recent changes to the curriculum. Chairs characterized the part played by ethical issues in various courses.

Surprisingly to me business and education school administrators easily launched into the ethics description. Medical ethics directors might field those sorts of questions frequently in their role but hardly a business school dean. This suggests they may field questions regularly about ethics from outsiders. It reinforces the impression frequently reported by surveys that everybody in professional schools personally felt ethical issues were important in professional training. This is very different from saying ethical issues figured prominently in the school's programs. What this contradiction meant was that ethics was not explicitly represented in the program offered to students despite an apparent interest in ethics among individual education school instructors.

Business and education school administrators relied on staff interest as an explanation for an ethical component in programs. Administrators might easily answer how ethics got taught. They became less confident and provided little explanation when describing systematic development of professional ethics in business and education schools. Even where the curriculum was about to change the chairs did not stress developments in ethics. Medical ethics directors, in contrast, gave a detailed history of how the ethics program started.

The last question on some current issue in the professional field allowed the chair to show their personal interest in ethical issues. Coming as it did after the question about how ethics was structured into their programs that most administrators stumbled with I got some insights into how the chair saw ethics in their particular profession.

The chairs easily gave long lists of people in their department to contact because they taught ethical issues. Chair recommendations often included people who were not teaching or simply headed up a program in the department. Experience showed chairperson's lists contained people surprised and puzzled to be contacted. I asked all contacts to refer me to others involved in teaching ethical issues. Where potential informant numbers were a problem I contacted only informants recommended at least twice by their peers. Sometimes, a potential informant was traced through attention to bulletin board advertising, course schedule books, and other informal means. Table 2-1 shows the numbers of interviews and other data collected at each site.

Insert Table 2-1 about here

The medical schools included several different colleges and many departments. This structure and size argued against interviewing deans or department chairs. In the three study sites the medical schools had some departmental arrangement responsible for ethical issues. I spoke to all three directors of those departments responsible for teaching ethics in medical schools.

In the business schools I spoke to the Dean at Western. The Dean at Eastern passed my request for an interview to the instructor responsible for ethics teaching. At Our Lady, like Eastern, the Dean declined to be interviewed and I replaced that interview with the administrator for a business ethics center.

I limited the study in the education schools to departments that trained teachers and administrators. One departmental chair supervised programs that prepared both administrators and teachers. In the other two sites I talked to two chairs of what were equivalent to teacher education and administration departments. In Western I experienced an unfortunate tape failure and lost the immediate write-up reconstruction due to a computer hard disk crash. Some information was available from other sources and so the loss was minimized. The only other tape recorder failure occurred in an instructor interview. Fortunately that particular informant yielded little valuable information.

Table 2-1

A Summary of the Data from Sites

University	School	Names	Chair Int.	Inst. Int.	Obs. Vig.	Syll.
Eastern	Medical	Martin	1	1	1+V	N\A
Western		Lewis Lucien Lorne Lorraine	1	4	4+V	3
Our Lady		Cliff Carl Claire Curt Connie	1	4	6	1
Eastern	Business	Maurice Millie		2	2+V	2
Western		Lloyd Lake Louis Lance	1	2	3	2
Our Lady		Colin Carol Christine	2	3	1	3
Eastern	Education	Mark Morris Monk Mathew Marie Morton	1	5	1	6
Western		Lisa Louise Lee Linda Luke Leah Larry Lyle Lincoln Lucy Lucas	2	8	3+V	6
Our Lady		Clara Clark Charles Cathy Chris Cleo Constance	2	5	1	2
TOTAL			11	34	24	25

Note.

Chair Int. = Chair interview
 Inst. Int. = Instructor interview
 Obs. = Observation
 Vig. = Vignette
 Syll. = Syllabus

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Instructor interview.

This protocol underwent some revision during the pilot and initial interview sessions. On average the interview ran about one hour -- about all that a graduate student could expect of instructors' time. One language difficulty came simply setting up the interview and explaining what I did not mean by case studies! Case study teaching often got interpreted as synonymous with the Harvard case method. If that were my interest then this study would involve three informants. Instead I represented case analysis as a broad enquiry using instances either drawn from the instructor or students. "Oh yes! We look at examples and work through practice problems, I just don't teach cases," was a frequent response.

In the instructor biography section I asked seven questions. The section put most informants at ease and gave them a chance to talk about their enthusiasm for ethical issues. Informants often had surprising reactions to certain labels and phrases. For example, in question I-1 I referred to "ethical issues." Any other phrase such as professional ethics, practical ethics, applied ethics, or ethics produced negative reactions. Many informants interpreted these other phrases as restricted to teaching a formal ethical code which few ethics instructors did.

Another threatening phrase I avoided or used with care were references to moral theory. I substituted phrases like moral perspectives or moral

outlooks. Some instructors became visibly anxious with specific ethical theories mentioned in a question. A good practice I developed allowed the instructor to mention the relevant theories so they did not feel this interview was a knowledge test.

In I-3 I asked about their experience in the particular professional fields. Sometimes the question made instructors anxious when they had little or no experience. On the other hand I-5 asking about their present connections with the field produced a less reticent admission of little contact. I-6 asked for a history concerning the approach to ethics throughout the school. Instructors often covered this information in earlier replies.

Questions I-8 through I-14 explored how instructors chose cases and how they drew links from a case analysis to various theories. Most worked at various times although I-14 sometimes struck informants as curious. Many instructors were visibly ill-at-ease when I mentioned the word "theology" and occasionally could be hostile. Some instructors admitted spending some time thinking about this issue and failed to come up with a satisfactory answer. At Our Lady many instructors gave what sounded like a standardized answer that because all students were not Catholic they did not advocate Catholic theology in class.

The I-15 to I-19 questions looked explicitly at possible links from the case details and moral theory. Question I-15 asked if instructors allow various moral perspectives. This question provoked the social response

that instructors were tolerant and did not dictate to students. It came as no surprise, given the instructor's embrace of pluralism, that the answer was often a simple yes. Question I-16 asked if students favored a particular moral perspective. This provoked an interesting but unexpected reactions. Instructors listed theories and judgments they believed about the students they taught. I-17 which asked instructors if students ever asked to know more about moral theories revealed two people's views. This question gave important clues to reported student disinterest in moral theory a belief also held by some ethics instructors.

The questions on interest levels possibly represented in a case provoked positive comments. They did need some explanation to get a response. Conflict between personal and professional interest was a common theme in case analysis. The one asking about actors in the case serving as models, sometimes provoked the "I hadn't thought of it like that" response.

The first two questions on case functions worked. However the last question, I-26, was redundant. Informants took it as self-evident there was a link between cases and what students encountered in the workplace. I tried several different ways of phrasing this and never really got a good response. Final questions about different ways to teach ethics offered instructors the opportunity to sum up their views. I used a simple question reversal strategy. For example, if the instructor

taught a separate course I asked them about the strengths and weaknesses in a proposal to integrate ethics across the curriculum.

Observations.

I found the observations fascinating and frustrating simultaneously. In an interview you can keep an informant focused or at least lead them back to the topic of interest when they wandered. In an observation you exert no control and so the field notes produced a wealth of data and a dearth of information. During the pilot stages I tape recorded and took notes. This strategy was a disaster producing information overload. The observations improved when limited to my ability to make notes and then expand them later. Taking limited notes focused me on what was useful to the study as opposed to maintaining a verbatim record.

For several reasons I conducted fewer observations than interviews. First, travel time and the winter weather were factors. For interviews I could block whole days at remote sites. I could only observe when the lessons were scheduled. A single fifty minute lesson at 8:15 a.m. and five hundred miles of travel in the Midwestern winter, was a challenge on either my stamina or my credit card. Sometimes it was impossible to arrange a mutually convenient time for an observation.

A second factor was the time allotted to data collection. The possible observation times at each site varied. Some faculty did not teach during the five-month data collection period. To overcome this

restriction I collected data from the end of November through early April. This allowed me to collect data from three quarters at Western, one semester at Eastern and either two quarters (in graduate programs) or one semester (in undergraduate) at Our Lady.

Third, some instructors either refused to be observed or expressed great reluctance. Some expressed personal discomfort, others felt their students needed protection, or would be inhibited by an observer. In two cases the instructor's refusal was because another researcher was observing the class. A final reason for not observing was based on how the class was conducted. Eastern education school had several instructors who used a remote computer simulation which meant there was little to observe.

The observation format consisted of a timed field note record. I hoped for substantial pre and post observation interviews. Sometimes I got some information but often the instructor was either preparing for class or dealing with after class activities.

Vignettes.

My initial high hopes were not realized. The instrument went to every interviewee stressing the expectation of one or two pages at a maximum. The response rate was very poor. Instructors would talk for sixty minutes but typically were reluctant to complete a fifteen minute written response. I tried stamped self-addressed envelopes, suggestions

for using electronic mail, and various reminders on thank-you cards. Those I did get back hinted at some interesting data but that was all.

Artifact collection.

The plan for textbook collection was limited. Some texts were purchased and others read in the library. The second literature review looked at the preface or introduction to establish what the authors or editors of ethics textbooks wrote regarding case selection, topics, and analysis. From the tables of contents I recorded the general topics and number of cases used under each topic. One extra item collected were various books or journal articles written by people interviewed. Although some writing dealt specifically with ethical issues other texts simply gave a fuller picture of the person interviewed.

The collection of syllabi went well. Many gave me their syllabi during the interview or sent it after the interview. I did encounter a puzzling reluctance by a few instructors. Their refusal was; "I haven't got any copies here but I will send it to you." This apparently meant either they did not have the syllabus or they were not prepared to give one to people not enrolled in the class.

Data Storage and Analysis

I consistently use various terms that are often confused or used synonymously. Case Analysis refers to what I saw in the classrooms and

what the instructors described in an interview or the vignettes. Various *case study* types were analyzed by distinct types of *case analysis* using assorted *analysis procedures*. Case Records designate all the data collected and written up for a site. There are nine case records. A single, multiple site Case Study refers to the eventual written text of which this chapter is a part. That case study takes from the case record to describe the themes of each chapter. I used an IBM computer and adapted personal information manager (PIM) software, IZE, to organize the data. These data formed the nine case records.

Interview questions were separate texts identified by pseudonym, school type, site, instrument type, and question number. Observations became field summaries split into coded texts with identifying information. Case analysis examples that stood out clearly from the whole observation formed separate texts. The whole observation write-up was retained separately because the complete record showed the time devoted to case analysis in the complete class period. I retained the few vignettes as single texts with the usual identification and coding. Summaries of either textbooks used or syllabi were part of the case record.

Personal information management (PIM) software allows searching and coding of case records in many ways. PIM software gives virtually instantaneous data retrieval referring to either one professional school, instructor, or another parameter. This is not a trivial consideration because like Miles and Huberman (1984) I felt that poorly managed data produces poor analysis. PIM software allows the researcher

to move smoothly to the Unordered Meta-Matrix displays electronically. These unwieldy handmade charts that Miles and Huberman described can be produced electronically as IZE outlines. Further code refinement and manipulating the data sets produced more ordered data matrices.

Validity and Transferability of Case Studies

One reason for choosing the computer as an analysis tool is to guard against synthesis leading to simplification and inference beyond the available data (Merriam, 1988). There are for example eight instructors in the three business schools. Space and case writing style limits a full case record presentation. The best examples were carefully selected to show trends and patterns. The computer makes this easier because organizing paper records and retrieving this amount of information would represent a difficult task for a single researcher.

I was concerned about the validity of the remarks various individual instructors made. In one instance there was outright deception about the existence of a report on ethics. In other instances the informant may give honest but flawed appraisals of situations.

In our first interview one business school instructor had just taught for several hours and looked visibly tired and preoccupied. This instructor claimed to be the single self-appointed teacher of ethics in the business school. He paid for the brass name plate on the door and

made up the title. The Dean I was told would not object being unaware of what this instructor did and never passing the office door.

This instructor failed to recall any other faculty in the business school who taught ethics even when asked the question directly. For example, there was no mention of a visiting instructor I interviewed who consulted with this individual about designing a separate business ethics course.

The ethics course this "isolated and unknown" instructor described was a business school experiment that one assumes got approval before it appeared in the course book. The Business Dean forwarded my letter to the instructor identifying them as the person interested in business ethics. This hardly supports the idea of one anonymous individual toiling in a department disconnected from administrators and colleagues.

Furthermore, the instructor allowed me to observe a class in which he was a guest lecturer. So one colleague recognized the instructor's ethical expertise. I am convinced that the instructor did not intentionally misrepresent himself. What the story shows is how some unguarded remarks could set a chain of inference that promoted a distorted picture for ethics teaching in that school.

The incident showed multiple lines of confirmation are required for any assertion that claims validity. This instructor had an established record and reputation among colleagues for promoting and teaching

business ethics. There was a lack of financial support from the business school. However, several plausible reasons could explain that lack of support not the instructor's isolation. Colleagues in the business school, contrary to the instructor's verbal description, hold him in high esteem as an expert in business ethics. A recommended reading list in another business ethics text recommended this instructor's recent textbook as "one of the premier books on the subject" that hardly supports some "lone ranger" thesis.

Multiple data sources for an individual and across individuals lessen the effects of mistakes, exaggeration, minimizing, and deception. I tend through training and inclination to regard what anyone tells me as a hypothesis on which many possibilities might hang.

A case study is particularistic but allows "generalizability based on a deep understanding of the phenomena, which increases our ability to recognize similarity and analogy (Stake & Day, 1978 p. C:26)."

Hopefully, readers draw comparisons between descriptions in this study with situations they are familiar with. To Stake and Day's statement I add that sometimes "deep understanding" is shown by idiosyncratic instances and noting the absence of evidence. The study generates hypotheses for future testing an objective that, if the questions are good, the questions transfer beyond the details described within this case study.

The descriptive multiple site case study portrays complexity and dispute. This case study compares and contrasts various bounded systems. That bounded system, which is an opportunity to learn created by instructors, is the use of case studies to explore ethical issues in different professional schools. That opportunity to learn was repeated providing a replication strategy of multiple instances. In practice this means I formulate a proposition based on one case and then compare other case record evidence to that proposition. By this process of comparison I show complete agreement, alternate developments, or idiosyncratic responses across multiple instances.

There are no acknowledged rules governing the analysis and writing of multiple case studies (Yin, 1989). Two strategies advocated (Stake & Day, 1978; Miles & Huberman, 1984; Yin, 1989) are the computerized coding scheme and the close ended questionnaire. Both are good strategies. In this study I could have applied a questionnaire to the case records at each site. I did use questions to guide data retrieval from the case record. Pragmatically, the choice comes down to available software and familiarity between a computerized coding scheme and a close ended questionnaire and I chose the computer coding strategy.

Arrangements for Site Access

I phoned and visited the different schools to get publicity materials, instructor lists, and program publications. These materials identified

individuals who might be helpful. The initial interview with administrators in the different schools was obtained by letter.

In business schools the Dean or Director responsible for ethical issues was the first contact. At the three sites, one Dean, a Director in a second site agreed to an interview, and in the third the Dean passed the request directly to the ethics instructor. In the medical schools I interviewed all three administrators responsible for medical ethics teaching. For education schools I spoke to two chairs at different sites and one administrator at the third site. Two sites had separated teacher and administrator preparation programs while the third site had a single organization.

On the chair's recommendation I contacted other informants. Administrator recommendations were not the only source of informants. Their information frequently identified people who did not deal with ethical issues, did not teach at all, or did not use case studies. All informants interviewed were asked to recommend colleagues who should be contacted. The letter strategy elicited a poor response rate. Telephoning or personal contact was a more successful strategy. The instructor when finally contacted generally consented to interviews.

I studied course listing books, looked at notice boards announcing courses, or talked to secretaries to produce some informants. A master chart linked together recommendations and kept a visual progress record in each site. For two education schools the recommendations from

administrators and colleagues formed daunting lists. When faced with large instructor lists teaching standard educational foundation courses I adopted the "two recommendation" rule to cut numbers. Often the problem solved itself by the instructors declining to be interviewed. Sometimes potential interviewees claimed they did not use case studies or in a few instances claimed they never dealt with ethical issues. After the interview I gave them the vignette and arranged where possible and practical to observe them.

Safeguards for Anonymity and Confidentiality

The consent form (Appendix) from each informant promised anonymity and confidentiality. I chose three names for the universities designed to convey little information. In one case the religious affiliation is real and in the other sites their geographical orientation to a fixed point is significant only to me. Names for informants were randomly assigned. A different alphabet letter for each site gives the reader a visual cue to where people come from: Our Lady has informants with the letter C, Eastern Midwest with an M, and Western Midwest an L.

Within the text I use the gender neutral instructor title and therefore avoid "he" or "she" unless necessary to the point. On titles and ethnicity no information identifies individuals. As one black female informant remarked, just mentioning the department and the fact she was African-American limited the possibilities to two individuals. Mention the course she taught and she would be easily identified. I chose to

keep a promise hiding some evidence and not giving the fullest detailed description possible.

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CHAPTER 3 THREE FABLES OF CASE STUDY TEACHING

The following three descriptions are fictional and represent a mixture of different things I was told, imagined, or saw in ethics teaching. None of the scenes described actually happened although the case studies described were real. These fables prepare the reader for key terms and processes described in greater detail throughout this study.

The major advantage of story-telling for an empirical study is that I can freely express the characters' thoughts and feelings with absolute certainty. Several postmodern philosophers and writers in literary criticism have pointed out that in a novel the author tells the reader what their characters are thinking. Readers of fictional work accept this device without any comment and yet it presents some interesting analytic possibilities only recently explored by philosophers. The same confidence about what people think cannot be expressed over any inferred thinking described in other chapters that present data.

In the Business School

On the way to this evening's business ethics class John is struggling with a growing sense of anger and despondency. The afternoon meeting with Dean Williams turned from an eagerly anticipated opportunity to the bitter defence of twenty-five years teaching ethics in his elective course. John could not believe the turn of events.

The Dean's secretary, Ms. Chalmers, had told John the Dean wished to discuss the ethics program in the business school. John had thought hard that week about needed course improvements if he received the administrative blessing. He was anxious to tell the Dean about the new computer case study he had seen at a recent business ethics conference. A modest budget increase with some cooperation from accounting and he could have enough computers for this new software. More money might pay the subscription to the Wall Street Journal and some of the other business publications that now drained his finances. He took great pride that he kept current with the latest developments in any case he presented in class.

The wonderful opportunity to show his continued enthusiasm for ethics teaching disintegrated as he sat in stunned silence. He could hardly suppress his surging anger as Dean Williams described a vision where the business school integrated ethical issues in every class. John could not believe it when Williams suggested that he organize a colloquium on "interesting ethical elements" for the "capstone" business strategy

class. According to the Dean the compulsory final course that synthesized all the elements from different programs was a "more appropriate place to show how ethics connected to everything in the new business climate." After all the Dean joked, we are beyond that "Yuppie grab it all at any cost" mentality that justified John's separate ethics course approach.

Entering the class did not give John the usual lift of anticipation for the battle he was about to engage in. Tonight's case study was a personal favorite -- "truth in advertising." John usually took great satisfaction watching advertising and marketing majors trip over themselves justifying the redeeming social value of spending millions advertising different types of aspirin. The article they had read from the Atlantic journal was getting a bit old, which reminded John he should find a newer case for next year. Unfortunately this also reminded him there might not be a next year! He felt a serious need for some medication for his growing headache.

The aspirin case provides a good example of a key issue in advertising. The advertising and marketing students always rushed to defend their chosen occupation. They wanted to argue that advertising performed an informative role for the consumer. Commercials gave potential buyers information that allowed them to choose and therefore be better consumers. Other students in the class were not so easily convinced, a couple of quick examples from John, and they would agree that advertising manipulated the consumer to buy. John was going to ask

whether beer and high speed car racing were realistic and compatible images? Does it prove as Mr. Agassi tells us in the Nikon commercial that "image is everything" and everything in this case is about illusion and deceit?

After several years teaching the aspirin case study John knew how well the case analysis showed a connection type of analysis to Kant's moral theory. The specific principle was that it is not permissible to treat people as means (to raise company profits by manipulating them) and that instead they should be treated as ends in and of themselves. Tonight in his dark mood he just saw the sting in a colleague's recent pun that he taught Kant (cant) in every sense of the word.

He looked around the room full of students as he opened the briefcase. He felt isolated from colleagues and students. I need some allies if the course is to survive he told himself. Did Jane really mean anything by that joke or was she unconsciously expressing how others in the department felt about what he taught? He toyed with the idea of slipping in some ethical discussion in the entrepreneurship course. At least I understand the moral theory involved not like those guys in the Accounting department. The idea of accountants displaying the calculation of consequences in Utilitarian theory using a spreadsheet brought a brief smile to John's lips.

In fact on second thoughts the whole idea of ethics in every course was laughable. I might get some support from those less enthusiastic than

the Dean after all. There were several people he could approach who admitted freely they knew little and cared less to teach the complicated and confusing world of ethical theory. Other potential allies came to mind. Judging by the free market zealots whom he occasionally got in class, some faculty saw ethics as irrelevant. They might not support John's course but they would oppose any move by the Dean to force them to teach something that the unseen hand of marketplace forces dealt with. According to the "Freidman crowd" unsafe products don't sell when word gets out. Manufacturers get sued out of business so you don't need to drag ethical principles into business. Ethics and ethical behavior had a dollar value.

Maybe things aren't as bad as I think John reasons. After all I am a full tenure professor and the new textbook I am writing should cause a stir. This is the second year John has used a draft manuscript as one of the class texts. This exposure really refined the language so that the essential parts of the different moral theories are clear to the students. John asks the students to have their copies of Kant's "Grounding for the Metaphysics of Morals" on the desk so they can refer to it during the discussion. "Hand in your weekly study question that reacted to what you read and we will get started," John announces. "The video on Dow Chemical and Agent Orange will follow our discussion."

In the Medical School

The classroom desks are arranged in a 'U' shape for discussion.

Students drift into the class early; some check for a final time through the 400 page course packet. This week it is Group A that is responsible for the case analysis on truth telling. Members of Group B arrange themselves on the opposite side of the 'U' ready to critique the performance of their colleagues in Group A. Some members of Group B met briefly in the lunchroom yesterday. They were anxious to find a hole in Group A's possible action-plan analysis. The students have many classes together in the last two years. An atmosphere of friendly rivalry has developed over the past few weeks in this medical ethics class.

Instructors come into the class and sit in the vacant part of the desk arrangement between the two groups. Derek, the philosopher from medical humanities, asks who is the presenting group this week. Most students have drifted in by about five minutes into the class. Derek hands out graded photocopies of the last assignment on "withdrawing food and fluids." Maureen, the pediatric surgeon, asked if anybody went to the Grand Rounds about assisted suicide on Wednesday afternoon. She adds that things have been hectic this week and she will get her copy of the essays that Derek has just handed out back by their next meeting.

One student asks about the reading for next week. Midterms are scheduled and he worries whether he can read what often amounts to over ninety pages and do his exams. He is not alone in this concern judging

by the looks on other students' faces. Derek reassures the students that next week with the video on the Karen Quinlan case the readings on "active and passive euthanasia" are very short.

Derek asks if there are any other concerns or questions -- nobody comes forward. He then asks Group A to present their 6-step analysis for the truth-telling case study. One student from Group A clears her throat and starts to read from a prepared sheet. She first points out the case facts. This case concerned a doctor working in the emergency room. He had been on duty for eighteen hours straight. The seventy year-old patient had come in suffering from what looked like a cardiac infarction (heart attack). The nurse on duty was finishing with a patient they had just stitched so the doctor administered what he thought was the right dose of medication and injected the patient to stabilize their condition.

Maureen stops the student and asks the class if the medication mentioned was correct for the patient's condition. One student confirms that it was. As if to reinforce the point the student recollects that when he worked as an ambulance EMT (emergency medical technician) they were told to give that drug by doctors over the radio all the time.

Another member of group A takes up the story. The doctor is surprised that rather than stabilizing the patient goes into cardiac arrest. Despite thirty minutes of great effort by the doctor and nurse the patient dies. As the nurse clears up, she shows the doctor the

medication bottle. Although the doctor gave the right drug the dose was one thousand times stronger than recommended. Apparently in the heat of the moment the doctor had picked up a bottle that required dilution before use. The doctor now has to tell the waiting son and daughter-in-law what has happened.

The next student gives the list of values that various people described in this case might hold. The doctor probably should admit his mistake according to the truth-telling principle but this could cause real problems. Another member of the group points out that the man was old and possibly death was caused by the original reason he had been admitted to the emergency room. Maureen asks that student if this makes it better could the doctor say their father died to the relatives. Unless the doctor was asked directly could he justifiably not volunteer that possibly the mistake killed their relative and not his heart problem.

Derek asks the remaining members from group A for their recommendations and the justifications for those actions. Students freely admit they found this a really difficult case. The man was old and little good resulted from admitting the mistake. Group A's general opinion was that a law suit was highly likely. The whole group wavers between saying nothing, saying nothing unless asked, or telling the relatives and then hiring a lawyer.

Maureen asks the whole class how often they think mistakes like the one described happen. The class offers no figure; one student volunteers that they thought it was probably rare. Maureen looks around the classroom. She reminds them they are all students with no experience and asks if it is possible that during their residency they could make a mistake. A couple of students, while admitting the possibility of a mistake, offer that they hope they will avoid them. "Well I hope so to but I know I made two mistakes in my years of practice that killed patients." All eyes focus on Maureen and you can hear a pin drop in the silence.

Maureen explains that in both cases she gathered everybody concerned in the room and admitted the error. The students are eager to know what happened, whether the matter went to court. In both cases Maureen tells them it did not. Medical students and some doctors do not understand how relatives feel. Most are grieving for their loved one and the relatives realize that the doctor did everything she could. Maureen offers the following advice, "you are allowed several mistakes in a career but you must take steps not to make the same mistake twice." That is the way to avoid finding yourself in court.

Some students are deeply troubled by this admission and say so. Derek reinforces Maureen's admission with the story about a former Dean of the medical school who caused great controversy. The Dean told a graduating class and their assembled guests the medical school expected a small

number of deaths due to student mistakes. Apparently he added the medical school establishment prefer the topic was not mentioned.

Derek tries out some different conditions where concealing the truth might be appropriate. Most students refuse to accept that the patient's age was a relevant criterion for concealing the truth. Several agree with Derek that there is no obligation to tell relatives the full details. One student who counseled relatives of patients who had died said most relatives assumed the death was painless. He saw little purpose in contradicting them and telling them the patient died in agony. Maureen added that a child's parents had thanked her because of the "happy" way their son had died. Maureen told the students the smile resulted from a massive morphine injection which sometimes produces that reaction. She saw no compelling reason to tell the parents what had caused the smile. One student from Group B asserts that relatives are not patients and this restricts their privileges to information. Most classmates agree that this seems a proper distinction.

A couple of the students from the two groups engage in a spirited argument about doubtful cases where the wrong dosage or medication might not be the cause of death. Maureen adds that there are several documented cases where patients survived massive overdoses and mistakes. Derek asks if any of the students in Group B have any further comments. As the class breaks several of the students continue the discussion with the medical practitioner while others eat snacks or leave the room.

In the Education School

Mary-Ellen is feeling the after-glow of a stimulating education foundations class. She recalls the pleasure of watching those "light bulbs" go on above the heads of some students. She had forgotten what a thrill that was when one of her second graders suddenly understood that 2×3 and 3×2 really meant two lots of three or three lots of two. The light in the child's eyes as they shifted those counters to show their discovery! Only a teacher could appreciate this fleeting moment of triumph in a profession where so often you wondered whether you, a second grade teacher, would really impact the lives of the students you taught.

She dutifully records the experience in her journal.

Mary Ellen's Journal Monday, October 27, 1991

The case today really addressed the issue surrounding the purposes of education. It raised questions for the students about a curriculum area they might think was non-controversial. The twenty pages of printed material were a lot for these student teachers to read but most said they found it easy to understand. A couple did question all the additional background at the end of the case study which they saw as not necessary. The small discussion groups worked well but the real lively

conversation occurred when we all came together to make sense of what each group had decided.

I always want to make the familiar strange. This case really does that as few students dream that a math innovator could be accused by an angry parent of being a racist. The students were visibly shocked and hurt just like the math teacher in the case. This black parent charged the teacher with being another "well meaning but misguided liberal white woman" experimenting with the lives and career prospects of minority children. Education students are so often reinforced in their belief that innovation and change are good this case really makes them reflect about that idea. Some students had a really hard time understanding that the innovative teacher could ever be wrong. They cited the evidence detailed in one of the appendices that clearly showed the teacher took every course she could to improve her teaching. This teacher really does look like a model for the concerned and caring professional most of them (the students) think they will be.

Several students wondered about the fairness of the racist charge. They wondered whether if the parent had simply said these hurtful things without thinking or because she was upset about something else. Why do students invent all this extra stuff to explain the actions of others? It never ceases to amaze me when I teach cases that you can never win about how much detail is presented. Students either complain there is missing information or protest the case has too much irrelevant

information. You even get the same complaint about the same case study! Just shows how there is no such thing as a perfect case.

In our whole-class discussion the students were evenly divided about the parent's views about successful math learning. Some obviously agreed, silently if not out loud, that constant worksheet practice and memorization did help students with standardized tests. The innovative teacher is difficult to sympathize with because she refuses to teach kids (show and tell) and is so non-directive getting the kids to discuss a single problem for a whole lesson. I have to keep remembering that a major function for case analysis is therapeutic. You have to show students that just because they remember how wonderful their third grade teacher was that simply copying what she did does not automatically make them good teachers. I suspect that much of what we say washes over teacher education students like the sea over the rocks. The wave action smoothed the jagged edges but the rock remains basically unchanged.

On the other side there were those committed to curricular reform. It is in quiet moments like this that I worry about their wholehearted embrace of constructivist learning theory and other "fashionable discourse." This afternoon I had to stop the students getting sidetracked in the learning theory discussion. It was like being at a religious revival meeting where each contributor attributed some benefit to the constructivist model. The unconverted students refused to accept that the students, not the teachers, bear the major responsibility for their own learning. The discussion got really heated. In the end I had

to point out that constructivist learning framework is just one of several learning models; there is no clinching argument for any of them.

I worry whether our discussion really highlighted the ethical issues involved? Did we really explore whether a curriculum experiment on any children, let alone a minority, is wrong? Did the students realize that this was a classic confrontation between ends and means? The parent represented an ends argument, where social mobility and academic success on the test counted, and the teacher stressed the significance of the means. Did the diversity factor confuse rather than help the students focus on the purposes of education that I intended us to look at in this session? Diversity is an important issue one we often study in this educational foundations course but perhaps not for this case. Perhaps at the beginning of the next class I should review the ethical dilemmas raised. I have a few minutes before the video "The Prime of Miss Jean Brodie" and our debate on the national curriculum.

Mary Ellen saves her journal, switches off the computer, and turns to the 35 student journals she has to grade before next week's class.

CHAPTER 4 THE FEATURES OF A GOOD CASE

In this chapter the researcher examines the instructors' criteria for a "good case study." However, the case study remained a "black box" that instructors invested with properties that suited their purposes for case analysis. Ethics instructors frequently mentioned three criteria as significant features in good case studies. First, instructors saw importance in a case study being real. Second, they thought that the good case illustrated a dilemma. Third, instructors offered different views about how much detail a case study should present.

In an interview question, ethics instructors from the three types of professional school described their ideas for good teaching case studies. The probes asked, among other things, whether the instructor favored a particular format. When an instructor just stated there were not many good case studies I asked them to tell me about a bad case's features. I asked others, who thought that there were thousands of suitable cases and then they stopped talking, how they selected among all these cases.

Real Case Studies

One significant criterion instructors discussed was a case study's "realness." Real in this context meant various things. Based on this criterion the instructors distinguished between three functional case analysis types for a good case. There were good cases where making a decision (action-plan analysis type) was the function. The action-plan analysis presents students with a puzzle representing problems thought important by the instructor. Here the problem described by the case had to correspond with reality.

The action-plan function contrasted with the connection analysis function that linked the situation described in the case to some theoretical understanding or evaluative purpose (the connection analysis type). For connection analysis the reality could be contrived as the emphasis was on illustrating how abstract generalizations applied to case particulars. Ironically a "real" case illustrating a connection to a moral principle often showed how ambiguous those particular situations were.

A third therapeutic analysis function made the "reality" in a good case change or challenge students' beliefs and dispositions. "Real" in therapeutic analysis meant the case evoked psychological responses from students.

Real Versus Hypothetical Material for Good Cases

Many instructors insisted that "a real issue" is an important criterion for a good case study. Few instructors insisted on the reverse position that a good case study could be fictional. Chapter 5 discusses the instructor's use of fictional sources for case studies. The preference for "real" becomes interesting when I laid out what instructors said in detail.

Insert Table 4-1 about here

Column one in Table 4-1 shows the time (past, present, or future) referred to by instructors describing their version of "real" cases. The two middle columns give the informant, their school and a precis of what they meant by "real." Column four shows an inference about what informants think was the function for a good case.

The Past Focus

These data show that a range of considerations are important to an instructor's judgment about a good "real" case. Many instructors look for reality as the match between the case study description and what they suppose "really" happened. The instructor takes the case to refer to or resonate with events that feasibly could occur in the past. Their criteria vary on how that match is achieved.

Table 4-1

What Is "Real" in a Good Case Study

	Name Type of school		Criterion for a good case	Possible function of criterion
Past Focus	Cathy	E	Resonates with students' experience	Match between student experience and case description
	Lucien	M		
	Lyle	E	Comprehensive description that brings the student close to a real situation that occurred	Match between case description and "real situation"
	Lisa	E		
Morton	E			
Curt	M			
Lorne	M			
	Christine	B	The person describing the situation is not a philosopher or an academic (authenticity?)	
Present Focus	Connie	M	Resonates with students' recent experience as a trainee	Case description provoking a psychological reaction in the student
	Lincoln	E		
	Martin	M	Resonates with students' present intuitions of what it is like to be a professional	
	Lorraine	M		
	Lorne	M		
	Maurice	B	A case is real if it evokes <u>affective</u> and intellectual reaction now in the students	
Carol	B			
Lois	B			
Morris	E			
Marie	E			
Future Focus	Millie	B	Based on an experience the students can imagine encountering	Case description invokes plausibility to future working situation
	Lucas	E		
	Larry	E	Based on an experience the students can adopt as their own	Case description directly simulates future decisions
	Claire	M	Contains partial information to simulate the way decisions are made	

Note. M = Medical school, E = Education school, B = Business school

Case description matched with a student's experience.

Lucien (Western, medical), and Cathy (Our Lady, education) looked for a straightforward match between the students' experience and the situation the case described. These instructors taught students with work experience. Cathy taught experienced educators. Lucien taught a nursing ethics course that included students already working as nurses. Both instructors see a good case study as built from their students' workplace experience combined with the instructor's sense of the required case analysis skills.

Case description matched with a real situation.

Lyle, Lisa, Morton, Lorne, and Curt form the largest subgroup. They felt good cases portrayed reality through a comprehensive description. Lyle explicitly talked about a superior case study being one that provided a "goodness of fit" between its description and the events which had occurred. Comprehensive description was not simply a reference to the case containing detail but also resembled the Realist's philosophical position. These instructors imply that there is a reality out there, and that a good case study corresponded closely with that reality.

Christine (Our Lady, business ethics) and Lorne (Western, medical ethics) raised the idea of authorship. The biased or the removed perspective, they thought, made the description poorer in some way.

Despite both being philosophers they criticized using philosophical case studies for teaching practical ethics. They believed philosophers "condensed the details and distorted the chronology to suit their purpose." The distortion produced something that is less real in a case study. These business ethics instructors felt philosophers are suspect as good case study writers in the business field. This suspicion parallels education instructors' dislike for research case study authors who produced slanted accounts that are not good teaching cases.

Christine said:

First, the best cases are the ones that are real life cases. Case studies not written, with all due deference, by educators, or philosophy faculty. Practitioners or professional school faculties write good cases. Those are the best cases. The worst cases are the ones that I have seen written by people who trying to write a case study. They usually don't work out very well, occasionally they do, but it takes a very good case writer to make up a case.

Christine directs a center responsible for promoting ethics teaching throughout the university. Her belief that good case writing resides in many places is consistent with her endorsement of professional school case writers. In the business environment, where Christine worked, her opinion reflected the business faculty's view of what was a good case study for instruction.

In Chapter 5 I describe how business instructors maintained case materials files gathered from news sources. The business ethics and business strategy text authors drew material from current news articles, weekly magazines, and opinion columns. "Real" in the business school environment mixed journalistic immediacy and objectivity. The desire

for objectivity also found expression with extensive legal documentation appearing in business ethics texts and courses.

The Present Focus

Case studies provoking psychological reaction.

Among informants that focused on the present the most obvious feature is how reality linked to a psychological reaction from students.

Instructors judged a good case study by that case's ability to produce the desired effect in its audience. Cases that are "real" convey immediacy and they convey that effect to the student. An instructor like Connie felt she should deal with the anxieties and problems faced by medical students on the wards.

Connie (Our Lady, medical ethics) is interesting because she was the only medical instructor to explicitly mention matching case study content to medical student experience. Connie wanted a good case study to produce a feeling of identification besides giving students action plans for present problems. She also was an instructor in the first year medical ethics program but for that class taught the curriculum decided by the instructional group. That group chose content for the case study that put the students in the trained professional role.

Most medical and business instructors ignored the special problems associated with students in training. Connie's special ethics course

was a short discussion group for final year medical students in her specialty area. A real case they discussed dealt with how medical students suffer greater exposure to HIV than experienced staff. The group talked about ways that medical students could lower their exposure to danger without jeopardizing their careers. There were also questions about senior staffs' ethical responsibility to protect students who through their inexperience were more likely to suffer a needlestick or cut.

Connie's unusual case content choice was reinforced by an education class observation. Lincoln wanted to turn the student teachers' anxieties about practice teaching into a discussion of general teaching principles. Connie had the express therapeutic purpose but Lincoln wanted to use student teaching experiences to explore connections with theories and principles.

Lincoln (Western, education) taught students in the middle of their final student practice before qualifying. After the class finished, he apologized because the students spent so much class time relating incidents in their schools during the past week. Several times during the lesson Lincoln tried in vain to get the students to talk about how an incident related to wider professional problems or theories. He wanted to link the incidents to some broad issue that carried forward into their future careers as teachers. Despite the prompts the students continued to describe the next incident in what looked like a group therapy session. Connie by design and Lincoln by accident had cases

serving a therapeutic purpose coping with the special pressures created by workplace training.

I imagine that Connie would have a different reaction to the flood of cases the students gave Lincoln. Those cases meshed with her purpose to discuss the special features and the challenges a medical student faced. In Lincoln's education class a student teacher described how her authority in the class was publicly undermined by a teacher and how that incident affected her relationship with the children. The student complained about how helpless she felt to mention this incident to the teacher. This case did not fit the objectives which Lincoln had set for the class. He made efforts to change the subject when other students started to discuss this incident. In Connie's medical student audience the student-in-training and authority problem, as it related to AIDS exposure, was a welcomed topic.

What Connie saw as a good case to Lincoln represented a bad case. The judgment about similar cases depended on the instructors' purpose. This comparison provides no compelling evidence on either side to suggest the two instructors were right or wrong. It reinforces the importance of instructor purposes for considering case studies.

Developmental ideas about reality.

Martin, Lorraine, and Lorne see a good case as one that confirms the student's present understanding of what it means to encounter the

problem described. This suggests the case study that counts as "real" in this sense changes over time with the students' developing ideas. Western and Our Lady medical ethics programs responded to those changing student ideas. Both departments offered various experiences with ethical case studies at different points in the medical training.

Western and Our Lady's programs started with an introductory ethics course. Timing varied but a good case in these courses presented either a timeless classic case study or a case study that embodied general principles of medicine and ethics. Lorne and Lewis described these as "paradigm" cases "classics essential to any medical ethics course." Besides some case analysis methods this introductory course confirmed the new students' picture of medicine. Issues are large, representing difficult problems, but generally showed students that applying rational thinking could solve the puzzle. Time was spent considering duty and role responsibilities and the students discussed these cases with what to the outside observer seemed unwavering idealism.

In the second year at Western and during the second and third years at Our Lady what counted as a good case study changed. For the introductory course a single paradigm case illustrated a particular principle. In the Western premedical ethics course the instructor showed the Dax¹⁴ burn victim video and the classes considered the

¹⁴Dax really is a classic video in medical ethics. The case itself has been written about so extensively that among medical ethicists "you know Dax" serves as shorthand for a whole discussion. The video shows an interview with a severely burned man who expresses the wish to die. Blinded and faced with more painful surgical procedures he cannot see

principles concerned with the quality of life. By the later courses the emphasis shifted to considering related case studies. These related cases showed students that small circumstantial changes portrayed in an individual case have potential moral significance. A good case portrays the messiness of practice and the uncertainty of outcomes.

At Western in the second-year medical student course a unit on AIDS considered two cases. In the first case a family physician has two patients who plan to marry. David was an active homosexual treated in the past for sexually transmitted diseases; you wrote a letter to the military draft board excluding him from service. You have not seen David for two years. Joan, another long-term patient, requests the legally required AIDS counseling for herself and her fiancé. As the physician you have to explain what you do about the screening tests and what information you reveal to Joan about David. In the second case a suspected HIV positive male refuses confirming screening tests. The patient has conditions that suggest he may be in the initial stages of AIDS. The doctor faces performing secret tests on a patient and whether they inform the patient's live-in male companion. Lewis used these cases to discuss several issues, among them the principle of informing other people. The two cases no longer provide the certainty to students that an introductory course case did.

any point to life. One important question is whether doctors continue treatment in the hope the patient may later be thankful or at least more accepting of his condition. The case tests a student's arguments concerning quality of life, paternalism, patient autonomy and a host of other issues.

A final ethical learning experience allowed the students to write a personal case analysis. Western offered this final ethics exercise in the third year. Our Lady's ethics program required a final year medical student to produce an ethics case write-up to graduate. After some practical experience the good case study is now an individual student's problem. For this last case study they offer a justification of their action. This final task simulated a procedure students face with increasing frequency as their training finishes and beyond. A good case that stimulated student reflection probably was one that proved troubling and maybe insoluble to the student.

Therefore what counted as a good case study in the final student experience was very different from good cases in those introductory courses. As experience in the training program transformed the student's perception of medicine their role in case analysis changed. This led to a corresponding modification in the case study considered.

The ethics program directors at Western and Our Lady confirmed that programs progressively narrow the focus for case analysis. The introductory case studies came from the instructor and they considered the broad issues facing the profession. In later experiences the cases dealt with subtle variation in one issue chosen by either the instructor or the student. In the last experience students chose a single case encountered directly on the wards. This mirrors the medical school curriculum structure. Cliff cited the teaching attractions in making the medical ethics program look like any part of medical training.

Students obviously accepted what was done more readily and those instructors familiar with case teaching in medical education liked the familiarity of the teaching style. This was important in programs like Our Lady and Western that used medical faculty in their ethics programs.

There were no corresponding changing conceptions of case studies in business or education schools. In education the closest thing to the introductory medical ethics view about good cases that illustrated broad principles came at the end of the training program. In what was usually their final course instructors gave students a case illustrating broad principles. An appreciation for the broad principles in education apparently came with work experience.

Engaging student emotions with good case content.

Business and education instructors when they demanded reality in a good case study offered student reaction as the criterion. Business and education instructors often wanted a good case to produce an emotional response from the students. This is in contrast to medical ethics classes where instructors built an atmosphere that moderated their students' emotional responses to a case. I observed two classes where medical students who did respond emotionally did not receive positive feedback from the instructors.

In an advertising ethics discussion Louis (Western) invited an emotional response to an overhead showing that "ridiculous sums of money" are

spent persuading us to drink one kind of soda not another. Louis used an aspirin case study to explore truth in advertising. He questioned the propriety of advertising when aspirin's chemical content is no different in any pill. The advertiser was really saying buy this name not that name. He asked what justified the huge costs and to what extent was society being robbed of funds for serious social problems. Louis told me before the class that one reason he had used the aspirin case study for several years was because of the students' emotional response. The case unfailingly provoked advertising majors in the class to explain a social benefit theory of advertising. The new financial material on advertising expenditure by the top one hundred spenders was designed to be provocative.

Maurice (Eastern) described as good cases graphic footage of Third World babies dying through indiscriminate sales of baby formula and oil soaked seabirds. He admitted he purposely chose the videos to provoke a strong emotional response from the students. Morris (Eastern, education) did not just discuss discrimination with a classic case or two to illustrate the point. When I observed his class he supplied a vivid account of his life (in written and oral forms) in a small white community when people of color tried to stay at the town hotel. Two students interested in female discrimination issues described how Morris's portrait provoked similar feelings of anger and frustration at injustice.

A common theme mentioned by many business and education instructors that I talked to and that my description hopefully conveys is the

instructor's deep commitment to certain ethical principles. Maurice, Louis and Morris represent a significant group of instructors who expressed a commitment to values they held and the way they saw the world. The three instructors named exemplified visibly certain values and commitments. Morris openly endorsed the view that prejudice was wrong. Maurice stressed the importance that business students be made aware that decisions over a "glass of wine in New York penthouse" effected others in remote locations. Louis and Lance expressed a similar idea by suggesting that managers from pollution prone industry be required to live close to their own plants.

Many instructors chose cases and conducted themselves in the classroom in a way that engaged students both intellectually and emotionally. A good case for them is one that provoked an emotional response not only in their students but also in the instructor themselves. In many classes and conversations I observed that exercising moral imagination in practical matters required student commitment that went beyond a dispassionate appraisal. Sometimes, as Maurice said there was a place for a case study that "got students mad" not just stimulated their intellectual curiosity.

The Future FocusCase studies provoking future dispositions and setting beliefs.

In the final part of Table 4-1 the focus for a good case study was the part it played affecting future dispositions and skills. A realness quality Millie, Lucas, and Larry wanted in a good case differed importantly from the quality Martin, Lorraine, and Lorne wanted. The latter encouraged a disposition among their students in the present. The former saw that disposition provoked by the case study lying latent until the student encountered a similar situation in the future. Millie (Eastern, business ethics) described the need for these skills lays in the future and those are skills generally neglected by business training.

In the business school we give our students many numerical ways to evaluate problems in business. We ignore the fact that over half the evaluation that I am going to do in business is related to people, values, and responsibility. We don't give them any training and they don't get enough opportunity to think about these issues.

All the instructors who focus on the future see a good case study as setting a disposition and skill for later action. They see it as recognizing the similarity between situations the students might encounter in the future and those situations in the case study description. Instructors chose cases because they depicted the future workplace the instructor imagined the students occupying. They made no claim that the case had immediate utility for the student.

Final thoughts about reality in cases

Generally, the reality criterion expressed as the match between the case description and events is puzzling. In the workplace many situations the students might encounter involve partial and biased descriptions. This suggests students should deal with biased and imperfect case studies for a better preparation. There could be a true irony for case analysis in professional school classes that demanding reality in this form may make the case less "real" in its match to the workplace situation. Only Claire from Our Lady's medical ethics program suggested a good case study should replicate that state of incomplete information.

All three analysis types need the reality quality in a good case. However, each analytic type suggested various interpretations of reality. Real case studies in action-plan analysis pictured as faithfully as possible workplace situations. Therapeutic analysis demands the reality depicted in the case stir emotions in the student. In connection analysis it is possible that imperfect reality in the case illustrates the purity and elegance of a theory.

Good Cases Illustrate Dilemmas

Dilemmas in the education school.

Instructors used the word dilemma and this meant the case had many solutions dependent on how we looked at a case despite what any

dictionary definition said. Like onion layers the dilemma depicted in a case was surrounded by another teaching dilemma. The teaching dilemma (in the dictionary sense of an insoluble problem) was which analytic procedure or framework instructors counted as valid. Marie and Matthew (Eastern, education) recognized that different solutions resulted from using different analytic frameworks.

For example, Marie¹⁵ in her syllabus advocated cases that can be analyzed through four sociological frameworks, three roles for teaching, and two learning theories. Besides these nine frameworks Marie suggested a political perspective that focused on the curriculum and a philosophical framework that specifically looked at ethics. Marie could apply eleven perspectives to the dilemma described by the case study. Good cases I assume allow the students to use many perspectives and it is the dilemma in the case that drives the need for multiple perspectives.

The dilemma within a dilemma occurred frequently in education case studies. Marie represents one example of a "blitzkrieg" teaching strategy to work around it. The strategy is that when faced with a problem to which there is no solution as we are in a good case then we attack the problem from many perspectives. It avoids the instructor

¹⁵These perspectives will look familiar to those who read chapter one closely. They will recognize many of these framework come from the Teacher's College texts (edited by Jonas Soltis) that are cited in that literature review.

being forced to give grounds to reject or adopt one framework in preference to another.

Larry (Western, philosophy of education) chose a case dealing with a multicultural education dilemma that cried out for a relativist response. During the discussion Larry frequently mentioned "relativism" when he responded to the small group's suggestions. Students insisted on tolerant stances to all cultures and to every viewpoint. He referred students to a philosophical position paper he wrote and distributed in an earlier class defining relativism. Larry and some students mentioned groups, the Klu Klux Klan and others, that the class felt should be denied a place on a multicultural curriculum.

The very quality about the case that Larry claimed made it good also created a pedagogical dilemma. One horn of the dilemma is that Larry's relativism definition excluded any discussion of the desirability of different points of view. Larry argued that taking a relativist position represented poor philosophical analysis where you could deny no view however obnoxious or outrageous. The other horn of that dilemma is by allowing multiple solutions (or interpretations) we undermine the basis on which to evaluate proposed solutions.

Faced with a good case that posed the relativist dilemma Larry excluded any relativist position for teaching reasons. The previously issued philosophy paper that condemned relativism and his behavior in the class prevented students taking the "easy path" and saying any view had equal

worth. This instructor could cite good teaching that engaged students in serious philosophical reflection. Larry wanted students to create an evaluative standard this was his stated objective. This is a reasonable objective in what was a philosophy of education class.

Offering multiple frameworks with no judgment about which is better, like Marie, or trying to resolve the dilemma with some evaluative standard, like Larry, confused or unsettled classes I observed. It is strange that a supposed good case feature for instructors produced such problems for the learners. Perhaps we need to rethink the idea that a good teaching case presents a dilemma open to multiple interpretations and solutions. It could be argued that Larry coped with dilemmas the way he did because he required students produce an action-plan. Larry's philosophy class is perhaps the first hint that the theoretical activities and rules, which govern philosophers, do not apply directly to practical ethics and case study analysis.

Dilemmas do not exist for most moral philosophers so they deny a dilemma was a valid case criterion. In practical ethics the dilemmas are real and they do exist. They are real in the sense that no answer exists for some practical problems. We could decide that one side is wrong. This would be logical if practical ethics really was a direct descendant of moral philosophy. If a moral philosopher was right and dilemmas were not logically possible then the instructor in practical ethics that claimed dilemmas do exist is simply wrong. Not all moral philosophers defend the claim that dilemmas cannot exist. However, if moral

philosophy and practical ethics are not directly linked it is logically possible that dilemmas exist in practical ethics.

An alternate use for these good dilemma cases was to illustrate their connections with theory. For case teaching in education with ethical content instructors favored connection type analysis. The emphasis on this analysis type may explain why so many people in education schools told me ethical training took place in foundations courses. In a foundation class the students explored various discipline's theories and the theories' relevance to educational practices. A case gave a dilemma the instructor held no hopes of solving.

When Lucy (Western, education foundations) developed the case study about Kansas City she connected it to the principle of financial equality. She showed how the equality principle can be found in many practical forms. The students' case analysis did not produce a specific solution for Kansas City's financial problems. Lincoln (Western) tried, as already described, to get the student teachers to make connections between the specific incidents they experienced and that match those incidents with some ethical principle like cooperative learning or gender equity. Constance (Our Lady) used a classroom observation story about a student's creative writing lesson in her class and she connected that student's lesson to Bloom's Taxonomy. The Taxonomy may not seem to be an ethical principle. However, she stressed the importance of the principle that teachers allowed students to make the choices that

produced what she defined as "critical thinking." For Constance not allowing student choice was an ethical issue in teaching.

Dilemmas in the medical school.

Good case studies with ethical content in medicine favored action-plan analysis coupled with a connection analysis to justify those case specific decisions. The major problem lies in choosing the appropriate actions. Cliff described the general purpose of the medical ethics program at Our Lady as concerned with making "fundamental ethical judgments." The program did not intend to produce "little humanists." Cliff wanted the students to see the similarity between the judgments they made in the ethical case analyses and any other clinical judgment a doctor made. When Lewis and Lucien describe a good case study in their medical students' courses it was one that "acts as a vehicle" to transmit ideas, skills, and principles for making ethical decisions. Medical ethics instructors recognize the dilemma quality inherent in a good case but also propose an active response from a doctor. Good cases do not illustrate moral principles for passive students the good cases provide opportunities for practicing decision-making.

Lewis (Western) carefully distinguished between the purpose of Medical Humanities sponsored ethics courses for aspiring doctors and the purposes for courses in medical ethics open to philosophers, policy analysts, and others. A medical policy course was the appropriate place to connect medical practice cases to philosophical and economic

theories. Lewis clearly distinguished between the broad medical policy questions and the daily ethical decisions health care providers make. A broad policy question, for example, in his view was a discussion about possible national health systems. That discussion clearly linked a health system with the ethical principle of financial equity. However, the appropriate place to discuss this issue was not the practical ethics program for prospective doctors in the College of Human Medicine.

The division of activities into ethics and policy issues in medical schools stands in sharp contrast with someone like Lucy in education. In her class aspiring teachers did discuss policy issues like Kansas City's difficulty with financial equity. One important consideration for whether a case is good depends on whether we include or exclude cases that describe certain dilemmas. The exclusion rules obviously differed in medicine and education schools.

Dilemmas in the business school.

Colin (Our Lady, business ethics) distinguished between two types of case study. He preferred the action-plan analysis. He called this the "Role Play" case study where you get the details of a situation and then, the student, made the decision. A "Role Play" model looked like Cliff's "fundamental ethical judgments." Each dilemma presented was looked at from the view of the person faced with the decision in the case.

Colin did not like Harvard Business School case studies and he described them as good for "Monday Morning Quarterbacks." According to Colin quarterback cases laid out everything including an outcome. This meant students evaluate the outcome given and they may possibly formulate alternate strategies. For Colin quarterback cases allow the students to outguess the case participants with the benefit of hindsight. Harvard Business cases robbed the student of the benefits he saw in making independent decisions without knowing the case outcome.

Lake (Western, business strategy), Millie (Eastern, business ethics and law) and Carol (Our Lady, business strategy) all used the role play case analysis as Colin called it. Case analysis put the student in the position of a decision maker or an advisor to the decision maker. Lake's MBA class that I saw took playing those roles very seriously where the presenters all dressed in business suits. In one presentation the students were outside consultants advising the senior management of Kentucky Fried Chicken about their international operations. In the other presentation a work group within the Allied Chemical company presented their recommendations for increased vigilance following a major ecological disaster.

The other two courses, both titled business ethics, took the connection case analysis approach. These were the classes taught by Maurice (Eastern) and the course team taught by Louis and Lance at Western University. These instructors saw the ideal case as where at least three viewpoints could be defended. Maurice favored a case that

encouraged the students to apply many perspectives and that suggested multiple solutions. A good case study avoided polarized conflict in his classes along racial or gender lines for example. He described a case he used about preferential hiring. Maurice liked the fact that several defensible viewpoints could be advanced in that particular case study.

Louis and Lance used a debate format that with its procedural structure that deflated any potential for a "screaming match" by two opposing views. Maurice and Louis were the only ones to explicitly mention avoidance of heated two sided conflict. I wonder how many others advocated the multiple solutions or analysis frameworks for the same reason? As it is difficult in practical ethics to give overwhelming evidence that justifies one viewpoint or course of action modeling tolerance seems a logical strategy.

The Amount of Detail in a Good Case

Instructors from all three schools struggled with the appropriate amount of detail in a good case. All instructors seemed aware of the tension between providing enough detail and yet not so much detail that the students become overwhelmed or confused. There were some important differences in the three types of professional school. I will discuss those differences first.

Detail in good education cases.

Most education school instructors claimed a good case needed to be contextually rich and simultaneously they recognized that too much detail confused students. Detailed and contextually rich description in a good case served several purposes. A popular reason for detail, cited by instructors, was that details give students access to the case actors' minds.

Marie (Eastern, Elementary Teacher Preparation) explicitly stated her reasons for substantial detail. Those details gave students a clearer picture of possible choices, and those choices allowed students to frame the problem described in many ways. Marie and others who wanted access to the actor's thinking see detail helping the case analysis.

I: What would you say makes a good case study for you?

R: That it's a dilemma number one. And I don't think there is a consensus in the field that it should be a dilemma. I think in even a multilemma that there is a variety of ways of looking at the same situation. The different perspectives you choose decide how you frame that situation. Are you going to suggest particular solutions that a different frame may show? I think it needs to get enough substance and detail so that the person reading it can feel what is going on in the protagonists' mind. The issues that they're struggling with and some background people bring to the particular situation. Students need through the description to put themselves in the shoes of those described. They see the complexity, or at least begin to sense that this is a really complex issue.

It may seem puzzling why instructors want contextual richness to gauge what the persons in the cases are thinking besides their actions. What extra advantage lies in this information? Louise (Western, Teacher

Education English Methods) was an example of those that want the case detail as comprehensive as was practical. She then suggested an interesting reason for having considerable detail.

The detail should include lots about all the elements; the teacher, the students, the subject-matter, also how the teachers and students are thinking. Those can't always be present, because that is quite a comprehensive description to provide. But, I think without trying somehow to get both the student and the teacher perspective, then, the case is not as rich. [If it is not rich] then it is hard and the students infer instead of really knowing what they are thinking.

Louise wanted detail to prevent the students from making inferences.

The way to stop people from making unsubstantiated conclusions is give enough detail to make inferring beyond the case details redundant.

Louise confirmed what others believe about detail in a case study.

Detail is vital to case study analysis. Students need to share the same details so they can argue about the same points. Instructors felt that leaving each student free to infer beyond the case compromises the prospect of a consensus in analysis. Lack of inference beyond the case presumably sharpened any case analysis type.

In several case analysis observations the students or instructors complained the case study lacked some particular detail. In group discussions this complaint prompted participants to offer the missing details. Instead of helping the discussion it was more likely to divert the conversation away from the case study to other issues. In one small group discussion I watched one student pointed out the case lacked details from the school board defining multicultural education. Several

students then invented cultures that became progressively absurd such as recognizing "owners of various dog breed" subcultures. Lack of an "essential detail" devalued the case study for the students and those missing details hampered the case analysis.

Contextual richness in a case for Cathy (Our Lady, Educational Administration Finance) served a positive purpose. Her students wrote a case analysis based on their own experience and situation. A good case for Cathy detailed three aspects of a situation essential for student understanding. A good case described the situation's history, culture, and politics. The student, armed with the appropriate details, can then do the required action analysis consistent with that particular culture. Cathy also used cases from her experience. She applied the three-element standard in those personal cases. This extended quotation conveys ideas of detail beyond a random list of facts. Detailed cultural analysis in a good case study provided access to their reader.

I guess because of the issues that I go after. [A good case study is] It's a very rich story about individuals engaged in some situation. . . . where individuals face making decisions. There are lots of ethical issues that come up. I really take a cultural perspective when I look at a case study. What motivated these individuals? What goes on in the environment in which these individuals act, that sets the stage for their actions? Given another environment their actions might be quite different. The environment has a great deal to do with what is acceptable or unacceptable behavior, particularly in an administrative perspective. There are standards of normative behavior in that community's culture. What expectations does that community have for education? What is the historical precedent of people who in this position have led the community to hold certain kinds of beliefs? We need to identify the set of beliefs that drive how this person sees the situation now. The types of alternatives they think will be acceptable. A history of the beliefs that shape the community's decisions

ones that they believe are viable. You really have to look at what is going on in a larger environment. There is a political component to that as well, with the people that I look at. I am generally looking at decisions made by the central office. Many issues they get involved with have to do with what might be called situations beyond their personal control, issues like -- legislative action, tax payer groups, special interests and others. These situations put pressure on the school environment to do certain things or act in certain ways. Central office people have their decision trees changed. Instead of basing the plan on what I like to do I am forced to recognize that given the situation here is what I can do. So to me the case has to look at all that. The impact of various groups and how it structures decisions. The ways those groups identify the problem. Different groups will approach the problem in various ways. Whom the school officials involve in a decision making process. How the district makes the choices, who are the players that have the power and who doesn't. The way the administration structures their alternatives and strategies.

Morton (Eastern, Education Administration Finance) like Cathy, wanted enough detail for students to sense the history and environment described in the case study. However his purpose for considering detail is to allow students to evaluate decisions. He used case detail to connect with broader theories and understanding of organizational and administrative action. Cathy and Morton offer contrasting examples of action-plan and connection type analysis and yet both demand the same criterion. The details give the student an understanding without forcing them to infer beyond those particulars.

We're looking at many issues based around this efficiency choice framework, and we're looking at those issues in a general almost generic sense. The mechanisms for decision-making that individual states use in their school districts. Then I use [specific Midwestern state] at the tail end with the computer simulation where the students sit and use the data as specific case study. Here is one state that has decided. What those decisions look like in practice. What the effects of these decisions are in distributing resources. The students use lots of data.

So far I have described the conditions under which detail played a positive role. Although many demand as much detail as practically possible Lyle and Morris worried that too much confused students. The limit on the appropriate amount of detail lay on the perceived capacity students had to absorb that detail in the short time available in a course. Morris (Eastern, Education Foundations) suggested a length limit for the case study he said:

I think it has to be accessible to the experience of the people who are looking at it. Number one. I think for short term use, which is largely the way I do it, in the classroom. A good case should be amenable to brisk presentation. A good case is not one where people get lost in the details. Much is lost in details that would be included in a research case study. I'm using a textbook now dealing with issues of diversity in education. The text has wonderful cases of secondary students. It's in a book by Sonia Nieto called, "Affirming Diversity," that is the title. And she has about a dozen case studies with three or four pages of small print. This is dense material.

I use many aborted [no outcome given?] case studies for, by their nature are very brief [one page judged by those collected from the class]. I used some lengthy ones [two or three pages]. The problem with a lengthy case is that you need time for people to really dig into the detailed database. Often, with our quarter system, there is not sufficient time do to that. (Lyle, Western Education Administration)

Detail in good medical cases.

Detail in good medical ethics cases served a different purpose. There are no demands for contextually rich description; instead the call is for "enough detail." Cliff (Our Lady, Director Medical Humanities) spelt out the enough-detail criterion. Different audiences required sufficient but different details so that they considered a variety of

issues or principles. What those different audiences see in the details also varied according to the case reader's work experience. More experienced audiences dealt with several issues simultaneously.

A good case allows different things to be raised by different groups. In the good cases I could put at the bottom, several lists of different issues and things to look at. In the 4th year we take sets of cases and I decide for example that this term we will deal with or focus on Living Wills. You just have to draw the focus to Aristotle's prime virtue or another principle that you want to zero in on. There is a difference between 1st and 4th year medical students. In that first year you focus on one issue. In the 4th year we look at a series of issues in a set of related or similar cases. What is the idea of a person, you can get into the psychology. The great teachers see the connections in a good case study and help the students to see those connections.

Lorne (Western, Medical Humanities) wanted enough-detail so the students saw that when some detail changed the whole ethical problem alters. Both Cliff and Lorne see the experience of the audience playing a part in what they implied from the detail in a case. Lorne also made a pedagogical point. Enough-detail provided motivation especially to the nursing students to look seriously at the case. Those case details allowed nurses to match and compare those details against their own experience.

A good case study will first be realistic. It will not be the kind of what I would call purely hypothetical, the sort of cases that philosophers sometimes use to make analytic points. A case will be sufficiently complex that it will force people to think about several different moral issues that have to be addressed. The study should elicit students' experiences because many students you teach have significant experience in health care. This would especially be true among the students we teach who are RN's [registered nurses] working toward baccalaureate degrees. They've then been working as nurses for some number of years. And so a good case is one that can elicit their personal experiences.

I mean as a teaching tool that it just works a lot better. They know this is real. They can say "Yes, I've had to deal with a case just like that." Or here is a variation of that. That leads to another feature of a good case. It should lend itself to subtle variation that allows one to see how a moral problem changes. Those changes caused by small changes in the description of the case.

Lucien (Western, Medical Humanities) invoked the enough-detail criterion as a standard that challenged the students' analytic skills. Claire (Our Lady, Medical Humanities) stressed the same standard for an analytic challenge to students with one novel difference. She wanted a good case study with a vital detail missing preventing the solution from being obvious. The missing detail simulated the partial information doctors might find in the workplace.

Most medical ethics instructors saw detail playing an important role in action-plan analysis. When medical instructors use the term "enough detail" it means less than a full description. This is consistent with medical education's general aim, which ethics classes uphold, of improving the aspiring doctor's judgment. Clinical decisions rely on selecting the "right" detail not paying attention to all the details.

A case that involved making a mistake and the doctor giving a patient a huge overdose did not detail possible effects. The case did not give the details concerning the exact cause of death. It was in the post-discussion summary that the instructor pointed out the overdose may not have killed the patient. The instructor gently warned students about the dangers of jumping to conclusions that attributed definite causation with insufficient proof. "Enough detail" allowed medical ethics

instructors to test students or sharpen the discriminating powers of seasoned professionals.

Detail in good business cases.

Business instructors adopted the medical instructors' enough-detail standard. Business instructors invoked different reasons for that criterion. Christine's good case had enough detail to give the chronology that showed the student a sequence of events in which the present situation rested.

Second, I like a case where there is a dilemma that is not solved in the case. Even if it's a public case with a known outcome, a good case allows you to imagine other steps for the person making the decisions. In the Union Carbide case (Bhopal, India) there was a series of steps along the way where Union Carbide could have made other decisions and not gotten themselves in that bind.

Carol's idea (Our Lady, business strategy) is that the detail showed how basic company values developed. Both Christine and Carol see detail providing coherence to a good case study narrative. They see a history of decisions as essential to any analysis of the present situation described in the case study. There is a similarity between these business instructors and education's Cathy and Morton. Enough background detail is thought by these instructors to prevent students making inferences that allow any possibility to spring out isolated from the case.

I'm particularly interested to be sure that there is information included in the case, which will allow students to understand the distinctive if any, value positions that are upheld by a particular company. Those values guide the

decision-making process. So if there is no data about the management philosophy at the firm. Or the continuing influences of a founding personality who had strong views on value laden topics or something like that. Bad cases describe a generic firm. I mean the case has definitely got to have some sort of history. History in the sense of economic characteristics granted but if there is nothing in there about its character, then I'm not as interested in it.

Like Louise in education Lake, (Western, Business Strategic Planning), wanted enough detail to stop students from making inferences that he described as fanciful. Lake was flexible in his judgment of the amount of detail in a good case study. He applied the enough-detail criterion to the motivating of students that got them involved in the analysis. This instructor considered three to four pages was an ideal for a case. The textbook cases he used in the MBA Business Strategy course conformed to this length limit.

Lake also illustrated an area of disagreement that surfaced among business school instructors about the type of detail. He made a strong tie between financial details in a case and ethics. In an observation I made, Lake summarized his analysis of a pollution case, which the students analyzed, presented, and discussed¹⁶. Because the product was dangerous the community's interests were paramount over the consumers' interests. The instructor argued that here it might be best to have government regulation. Despite the business community's rhetoric not all government regulation is bad. However, the government that has the

¹⁶ In Bower, J.L., Bartlett, C.A., Christiansen, C.R., Pearson, A.E., Andrews, K.R. Business Policy: Text and Cases. This Allied chemical company case is in the Ethical Responsibility section but originally was a 1979 Harvard Business School case.

authority might not have the technical knowledge to set appropriate standards in some industrial fields. Companies guard the technical knowledge closely in the chemical industry for commercial advantage. This was a dilemma the student presenters failed to mention in their case analysis.

Lake told the group the case was very realistic because it dealt with tradeoffs. He told me afterwards this was one of his favorite cases. It illustrated the rift between healthy business competition (read -- maximizing profit) and social responsibility that he felt lay at the heart of many business ethics cases. He characterized that rift as representing an urgent need for business to reconsider the currently popular theory of Social Darwinism in Business. "Failure to evolve" he observed to the class increased the possibility that communities passed more stringent restrictions on business behavior. He produced a chuckle from those students who understood the intended pun.

Lake dismissed the idea of separating ethics from economics, but his colleague Maurice at Eastern (Business Ethics) held a different opinion. When he described the amount of detail in a good case he specifically rejected the inclusion of financial details. Maurice wanted enough detail to give a clear picture of the ethical problem. Maurice believed the financial information many cases give was useful to experienced company financial analysts and scholars not average business students. Financial detail for students was extraneous to the ethical judgment.

Both Lake and Maurice taught the business strategy courses. One significant difference is that Maurice also taught a separate business ethics course. A possible reason for the contrasting views between the two instructors to financial details may lie in a distinction only Maurice made in interview. When asked specifically, he did not say the strategic management course included ethics. Further in his business ethics writing, the manuscript he described and in an earlier business ethics text I collected, he argued against the financial details playing a part in ethics. Lake, as observed earlier, drew definite links between the financial details and the ethical matters in the chemical industry case study.

Colin at Our Lady (Social Values in Business) worried that there were enough details to inform the students. In deciding the relevant type of detail Colin sided with Lake to include financial information. In one favorite case, which he repeated in different interviews, he saw financial information as ethically significant. The company was about to move to a modern plant with the best pollution control equipment available. When he used this case students frequently demanded immediate prosecution. They argued that the ethical principle that all pollution is bad took precedence despite any other considerations. Prompted by this student reaction Colin paid a visit to the local regulatory authority. He confirmed his suspicion that the authority believed it not worth the cost of prosecution when the problem would soon solve itself. The company when it moved to its new plant exceeded local regulations.

A General Pattern in the Detail Data

In all the three professional schools detail provided a useful criterion for either action-plan or connection types of analysis. Therapeutic purposes in education do require the largest practical amount of detail to allow students access to other minds depicted in the case. Detail provided stability for interpretations across different case readers. Teachers in education and business worried that with too little detail individual students might infer capriciously. Detail provides the antidote to inferential chaos. In medical schools detail still provides stability but with a different quality. The right detail in a medical case was a rock the readers sought out to show the link with a moral principle that justified action.

Conclusion

At the beginning of the chapter I described the anticipated result of asking people to describe the good case study. I argued it forms a patchwork of overlapping areas of agreement and distinct areas of disagreement. The data clearly show there is no ideal case study awaiting discovery. Furthermore, there is no agreement of what made up a good case study in any school. These data reflect a part of the image of professional ethics in each school. I will conclude the chapter by discussing why good case studies vary.

A Good Education Case Study

In a good education case study, especially at the teacher preparation level, there was mostly connection and therapeutic types of analysis. At the preprofessional level case studies served as an introduction to a generic national education system. The system is generic in the sense that it had no name or any distinct properties that existed anywhere. The generic education system is an idealized work situation peopled by teachers who share the deep commitment to schooling and kids. Apparently, prospective teachers are entering this ideal community. Partly this program perspective was because education schools couldn't predict the exact workplace conditions they prepared students for.

Case studies served as specific good professional practice examples and an example of how students could approach problems when alone in the workplace. A good example was using the Nieto cases in a foundation course on multicultural education. These cases convey how a teacher's ideas change on careful reflection. The instructor models through the case analysis the dispositions they value of reflection and sensitivity. Teacher educators recognized it was difficult to control how teachers conduct themselves in the classroom. Professional ethics in the preprofessional programs aimed to expose students to desirable ways of thinking they might adopt through case study analysis. Detail in a good case provided access to the thoughts of others -- a useful property for a case aimed at setting dispositions and beliefs.

A good education case may model desirable dispositions but the cases do not provide much practice making classroom decisions for prospective teachers. In the three schools studied I was told education foundation classes dealt with ethical issues and that teaching methods classes rarely dealt with ethical issues. The decisions portrayed in many good education foundations cases are not ones prospective teachers make. Case studies depicted decisions made at the school district level or at a generic education system level. Appropriate topics for these cases included the justice in busing policies, expressions of free speech in dress or behavior, and matters concerning curriculum design and content. These are important topics but the topics are not represented in the decisions that novice teachers have much opportunity to make. As part of reflection instructors also thought desirable ethical thinking should include critical examinations of the education system. It was not all sentimental bolstering of the status quo. A good case study could illustrate a bad example such as how retention for two grades increased the chances of the child dropping out of school.

The decisions prospective teachers really make occur in the privacy of their classroom: These decisions included the way they deal with grading, classroom management, or various ways of learning. There were no good case studies I observed raising the ethical issues in grading or any other novice teacher level decisions. Grading student's work was largely ignored. Classroom management was a psychological, not an ethical problem. Learning is a scientific, technical, or a craft area of professional expertise but rarely is it claimed that learning had

explicit moral content. Except three classes in teacher preparation all others I visited were foundations or philosophy of education. Those exceptions were one English methods class and two elementary education instructors applying theories of practice with ethical content.

If the prospective teachers do not make the decisions portrayed in the good case studies it made sense stressing connection analysis. A good case in education foundations clearly illustrated what an abstract principle like justice or equality looked in a practical situation. Importance was given to providing rich contextual information so that students clearly saw the link between particular theories and the case. It was neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition that students do anything but appreciate and understand. There were many dilemmas that showed students that multiple frameworks or solutions were possible. Teachers are free to be reflective and sensitive without decision-making power.

This suggests that teachers get this sort of presentation to fulfill a subordinate role not always assumed in business and a subordinate role definitely not assumed in doctor preparation. A nursing ethics class, another subordinate role, reinforced this impression. There was a similarity in what counted as a good case. There were similarities in the issues raised by cases describing a nurse dealing with an ethical problem created by a doctor and a teacher dealing with their immediate supervisors. A subordinate role created a special set of ethical problems. Yet, according to one medical ethics director, these cases

described personality clashes not ethical issues. The director's remark was from the doctor's viewpoint and made when he explained how cases that dealt with personality clashes between doctors and nurses were not ethical cases and therefore bad. Fifty nurses that spent three hours considering different cases of nurse-doctor relations obviously took a different view about the topic. After the lesson several students told me how valuable this class had been for them.

The speculation that subordinate roles create new ethical issues is mentioned in the general professional ethics literature but normally to conclude subordinate roles are "quasi-professionals" or some other title. The idea that the subordinate role creates new ethical issues suggest further empirical study is needed. I can only identify the area with a small amount of data gathered by chance rather than design (the nursing class observation).

Aspiring teachers may be prepared for subordinate roles but the cases where action-plan analysis went on dealt with decisions in a role rarely occupied by the novice teacher. Action-plan analysis with immediate utility was reserved for people who actually were either already in or about to enter role making decisions beyond the classroom. Action-plan case analysis was found in education administration classes or classes for experienced teachers. The students in those classes were either on the threshold of or engaged in making decisions described in the case study. In medical education there was evidence of a changing conception regarding a good case as the student progressed from pre-medical to

resident. In education the change where it was seen was different and it continued over a longer time period extending beyond the initial training.

This does not deny connection case analysis with experienced audiences. In connection analysis the decision making level portrayed in the good case study was legislative or legal. Good education law cases, for example, illustrated connections but the instructor rarely demanded the student do more than identify the principle and then evaluate the decision. It appears that contrary to medical school nobody in the education professions should doubt that whatever their position they are subordinate to others. Education is not an activity that depicts its professionals as independent decision-makers except behind the closed classroom door.

Comparing the literature and the data on good education cases.

The literature review in Chapter 1 for a good case study in education found four criteria. First, a good case served a psychological function. The data show instructors spend considerable time presenting cases that served therapeutic functions. Good cases allow people to understand the thoughts of those depicted in them.

Second, good cases show dilemmas that required students see them from various points of view and they remain open to various problem interpretations or solutions. The dilemma quality cited in the data

match the literature's second conclusion that a good case present a puzzle to students.

Third, a good case in the literature promoted student interest in the connections between the case and the abstract theory. The data showed good cases illustrating how the system of education worked and justified itself.

Fourth, in the literature a good case should provide action-plan analysis. Here the widest gulf existed between what ethical case authors promote and the cases ethics instructors used. Education case studies used cases in education foundation course to consider decisions not faced by the average recently trained teacher in their classroom. This was not in step with some newer ethics texts that consider classroom decisions with ethical content.

A Good Medical Case Study

A good medical ethics case study dealt almost exclusively with the action-plan analysis. The purpose of case analysis for aspiring doctors is the reinforcement of a physician's professional image. That image portrayed in the case is that the doctor is a key decision maker with serious responsibilities and duties. A good case study should also convey hope in the sense that although the problems portrayed are difficult or painful, the doctor can suggest something. The decision required by ethical case content resembled a clinical decision in many



ways. They are often made on partial or imperfect information -- the cases contain just "enough detail."

The decision making process involved rational procedures and justifications that discouraged emotion playing any visible part. More obviously than in any other professional school good medical cases connected the justification for a decision made in a case study to moral principles. Selecting a suitable principle and then linking it with the action-plan decision was a secondary but still important type of analysis.

Good case studies do not show doctors that they lack control over certain events to the point where their professional autonomy is threatened. Evidence of this is dramatic when policy questions were rejected as content for a good ethics case. Policy questions involve people from outside the profession and therefore policy questions devalue or they limit the professional autonomy of doctors in important ways. There is a sharp line medical ethics programs draw between the policy content and the ethical content in a good medical ethics case. Policy content has no place in the medical ethics courses for doctors.

Comparing the literature and the data on good medical cases.

In the medical ethics literature a good case had three characteristics. First and primarily, the case should provide an opportunity for the student practice of decisions. Second, the dilemmas that good cases

depict in medicine were ones that the individual doctor had to resolve. Third, and linked to the first feature, the good case should allow the student to connect their planned actions and the case particulars to a moral principle. There was clearly continuity between the literature and the data.

The medical ethics literature descriptions of good cases and those instructors described all dealt with three broad areas of professional practice. Medical ethics in its literature and teaching looks for case studies that deal with patient-doctor relationships, and the issues surrounding birth and death. The medical literature and the data do offer cases that deal with medical policy but when that policy influences an individual doctor's decisions. There are very few case studies that deal with health care at the organizational or systemic levels.

It is interesting to see that the literature and the data did not deal with certain areas of professional practice. There were no good cases that dealt with ethical issues in preventive health or professional charges for service. Medicine constructs a very different professional reality compared to education. Medical ethics takes a restrictive view of what counts as good ethical content where education had an expansive and inclusive outlook on ethical issues.

A Good Business Case Study

A medical ethics case anticipated the trainee's immediate future role. Business ethics case studies provided occasions to practice decision making that may be many years in the future for the students. Medical and business ethics shared a pattern dominated by action-plan case analysis with connection analysis for justification. However, they served different goals.

In a good business case the roles portrayed are ones many students will not assume for many years if ever. The people in the good case are senior decision makers. In business settings this content apparently motivated students to analyze the cases and ones allowed students to fantasize about future influential positions they may occupy. Ethical case analysis in medicine was an exercise developing practical knowledge skills for immediate use by the recipient. Good business ethics cases developed the same decision-making skills but they may not have instant and direct utility for the students.

There were interesting comparisons to make among the three professional schools. Education's connection analysis favored case content that showed students other decision makers at work. Good medical cases rarely mentioned ethical issues that assumed the doctor played a subordinate role. In good business case action-plan analysis the students pretended they were those senior decision makers. The business school ignored any short-term subordinate role. Business took the long

and more speculative view concerning the workplace reality their students enter.

Comparing the literature and the data on good business cases.

The business ethics literature cited four features for a good case study. First in common with education and medicine the good case should link to theory. However, unlike medicine and like education, the business theories that the case particulars connected with need not be moral ones. The instructors and the literature in education and business had a less restricted view concerning theories that may link to cases with ethical content. For some instructors theories in education finance and microeconomics had potential ethical implications. Among business ethics instructors there is disagreement particularly over the financial content's role in a business ethics case. The disagreement among instructors mirrors the debate in the literature concerning the appropriate place for financial theories in business ethics cases.

Second, the literature review suggested a good case gave the students practice making decisions. Clearly the data showed instructors also chose cases that allowed action-plan analysis solving concrete problems. Third, business ethics authors and instructors agreed that good cases shock students' intuitions and those cases challenged students' beliefs. The dilemmas portrayed in a good case should engage the business student emotionally. The literature and the instructors also agreed on a fourth

feature of a good case that they provide incomplete information that simulated the situation for the decision makers they depict.

CHAPTER 5 SOURCES FOR CASE STUDIES

Introduction

In this chapter the researcher describes three potential sources instructors consider for case studies. First, instructors saw themselves as the originators of cases. A second popular source was published material -- written work dominated but there was some video and computer software in some schools. The third source was for instructors to look to their students to provide cases.

Chapter 4 described the case study as a "black box" that served three analytic functions -- connection, therapeutic, and action-plan analysis. This chapter's structure reflects the instructors' descending order of importance attached to different case study sources. This hierarchy, if it extends beyond the nine professional schools studied, has important implications about the learning theories in use, who controls the opportunity to learn, instructor judgments about students and case functions. In the chapter conclusion I discuss those issues. If the instructors' purposes motivated the case study use in teaching then it is probable that the instructor favored cases they wrote or that they

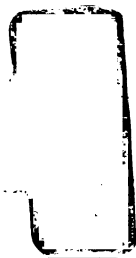
found in published form. The instructor exercises strong control over these two sources. Conversely, student-supplied cases represent a poor source as instructors exert weak control over this source.

Instructors as the Source for a Case Study

Many instructors wrote the cases that they used in the classroom. Several reasons motivated them to use their cases rather than relying on published sources. Some instructors simply liked to write or they had to write cases. Instructors in the business and medical schools got visibly excited about their case writing. Colin (Our Lady, business ethics) only half joked when he said he would be writing a new teaching case if he did not have to answer interview questions! For medical ethicists case writing came with their consultation role. "Ethical consults" supplied raw material for transformation into teaching cases.

Another reason for instructors to write cases was a negative perception about cases available from other sources. Some instructors singled out a research case, which stresses the presentation among experts rather than transmitting knowledge from expert to student, as providing poor teaching cases.

In education schools a common complaint was that instructors had to write case studies because there were so few published cases available. Furthermore, according to some instructors, the students in the professional school lacked experience or they had the wrong experience.



Therefore, instructors in many professional classes rarely considered asking students to supply case studies.

The instructor as the source of case studies in business.

Many business school instructors write at least some cases that they used for teaching. In the business schools visited it was part of the organizational culture for instructors to draw material either from newspapers or from magazines. Four out of eight business instructors interviewed mentioned they read *The Wall Street Journal* every day and they used that material for case writing. Nobody in the education school or medical school described case-data collection systems where they read popular news sources to build an ethical case study.

Carol (Our Lady, Business Strategy) explained the way she compiled case studies using *The Wall Street Journal*. The Journal gives an index of companies mentioned in each issue. Carol followed certain companies and their associated stories that she thought might produce a good case study. Each day she cut out the articles. During the interview in her office she opened file drawers full of clippings organized under the different companies.

One story she followed was the Solomon Brothers Investment Company. Mired in a bad scandal the company sought to restore consumer faith with a new chief executive officer (CEO) known for his integrity and plain speaking. Carol read in the Journal that the new CEO testified before a

Congressional committee on values in the investment industry the day before. She phoned Solomons and she obtained the CEO's testimony transcript. That speech with background from the Journal appeared in Carol's case write-up as evidence about the company values under a new leader.

Carol was not the only business instructor to develop cases this way. Colin (Our Lady, Business Ethics) mentioned that a research assistant was clipping the newspaper and magazine articles about the General Motors reorganization. On his way into work he heard the GM announcement and he stopped at the newsstand to buy several newspapers.

Colin also talked about a pollution case he wrote; prompted by a news item he interviewed the company officials and the local health authority. The attraction for Colin in case writing was being an investigator and finding a counter-intuitive result. The case described in detail in chapter 4 showed that not all polluters need to be prosecuted.

Business schools were the only examples that made systematic attempts to collect the latest news data for cases. Business schools may recognize enduring problems and classic case studies but as Maurice (Eastern, Business Ethics & Strategy) put it, students and probably the instructors tire easily. "The Prince widebody tennis racquet story is a classic entrepreneurial case but Microsoft's Bill Gates" or another recent innovator, is the case study of choice in business ethics.

"Fifteen years is ancient history" in the business case study! To reinforce the timeliness point Maurice added an appendix in a second edition business ethics textbook that dealt with the Exxon Valdez disaster that occurred since the book was first published. Student or instructor ennui with the past may not be the correct or the only explanation for modern cases.

In all three sites various instructors or administrators mentioned how the business school "had to" consider international topics. The Dean at Western adopted a messianic tone when he mentioned how important it was for American business schools to recognize global markets. Not only must the schools recognize those markets but also they must teach their students to think internationally. So an ideal business case must be modern and international as well!

Christine (Our Lady, philosophy and business) told me about her new Summer course devoted to problems of "international business ethics." International issues reinforced the impression that the business school offered the latest innovations to their graduates. It reinforced an image straight from the business world where innovators have to be "out there in the forefront" to be competitive. More specifically international ethics cases hold the intellectual attraction for instructors because they raise difficult issues about ethical standards between cultures. The Lockheed bribery scandal was a classic case that has undergone a recent revival.

Business school instructors devoted time to cultivating this image of only working with the most up-to-date cases. News sources not scholarly journals provided the case material for some instructors. Even instructors that I observed who used an old or a classic case study made the analysis take an international slant in line with the present business school ethos. For example, Lake (Western, Business Strategy) selected the international business case from 1975 out of fifty studies in the text he used.

Lake also represented an instructor who wrote cases because they enjoyed doing it or they felt compelled to for a combination of reasons. He wrote a case study about a small horticultural company. One reason for writing this case was that there were very few published cases that describe small businesses. Lake and several other business instructors wrote cases published in a casebook so they did not just write cases for personal classroom use. Many business school instructors probably write cases partly for career advancement and because they enjoyed case writing. Published case studies represent an attractive way to build the resume. It is convenient that students in the class serve as a test audience for any case that instructors wrote.

Maurice (Eastern, Business Ethics) used a book manuscript as the basis for an ethics course. The manuscript itself is discussed in more detail elsewhere (Chapter 6) but the student reaction to the manuscript was important for the instructor's case writing. It was not uncommon for professional school instructors to admit they wrote case studies and

they tested them on students before publication. A published business casebook equated with the music record industries recycling of previously recorded material in a "greatest classroom hits" format.

Maurice used a video he produced the month before in a business consulting class I observed. He introduced the lecture as "the ethics of consulting." However, the video did not explicitly deal with consulting it was about American companies relocating in the Third World. As Maurice set the scene for the video he asked the class to imagine themselves as consultants to the company. This guest lecture incident with Maurice represents the control that instructors wanted and the control that they exerted over the case analysis in the classroom. The same video could be shown for an ethics discussion about the consultants role (as it was here), industrial relocation, comparative labor and work safety issues and many other topics.

Afterwards, he told me he decided to use this case study to see how students reacted. The video told the Green Giant Company's plant relocation from California to Mexico story. This case study illustrated a recent example of "outsourcing" where American companies seek labor and other cost advantages with foreign plants. A video format was potentially faster than a printed one and that allowed business instructors to respond quickly to current issues.

Business school instructors felt that it was important that cases for teaching should be current. This shows that precedent in cases was not

as important in the business school as it would be in a law school. It was more important in business that cases showed current problems using modern examples. Consequently a textbook, with their older case studies, is a lesser source for cases in business. Older cases show the continuity normally associated with legal case teaching techniques.

There are several attractions in the instructor being the major source for business cases. First, it was consistent with business school culture to take news reports and write the material as a case. The Harvard Business School originated the tradition in 1905. Second, an instructor-created case could be tested for inclusion in a forthcoming textbook. Third, business instructors claimed they liked case study writing. Fourth, case study authorship represented a legitimate way to enhance an instructor's career. A familiar complaint among the university faculty was that their teaching bears little value in the academy but the faculty member building a publications lists has definite value. Case study writing was one way to gain professional reward from the discounted teaching activity. I suspect that this fourth attraction for writing one's own case studies held across the different schools.

The instructor as the source of case studies in education.

In the education school many instructors acknowledged they use at least some case studies they wrote or generated in some other format. In contrast to the business school few education instructors claimed their

material came from a newspaper or a magazine. Lucy (Western, Education Foundations) wrote a case study inspired by a television news segment but nobody in education showed me those filing cabinets filled with news clippings.

However, it is wrong to conclude that education schools spurn this source in favor of scholarly journals. With one exception, an English method instructor, who mentioned using cases from English teaching and literature publications, many felt a research case study from a journal was not the answer. Education instructors cited a major motivation for writing their cases was a dissatisfaction with research case studies.

Several education instructors distinguished between the case studies written for research and teaching purposes. Instructors perceived a research case study as overanalyzed or as biased. When instructors talked about overanalysis they cited the research authors editing the description to support a particular perspective or a particular conclusion. The teaching-case study stressed description that came from "real teachers" which included themselves. The inclusion of the teacher educator was not a trivial provision. The cases they wrote could filter "real classroom teacher" experience and the recycled version provided the desired spin to the story told.

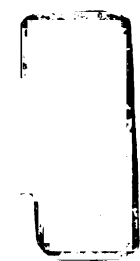
Education instructors cited personal reasons for writing cases. Lucas (Western, Crucial Issues & Education Law) wrote case studies based on recent legal reports that interested him. Lyle (Western, Education

Administrator Behavior) wrote cases that "shadow some of my belief systems." Cathy (Our Lady, School Finance) wrote up some cases for teaching based on what she thought was an "interesting personal experience."

I suspect many professional school instructors found attractions in selecting or in writing case studies that stemmed from personal interest or from a personal investment in the subject matter. Lewis and Lorne from Western's medical ethics program mentioned their interest as the motivation for looking at certain cases. When instructors mentioned personal interest they may refer to a curiosity about a topic, such as Lewis's interest in treating hopeless cases. Some medical and education instructors seemed more likely to express this topic-based preference. Other education and business instructors expressed personal preference in a specific developing situation.

Newer technologies, such as video and computers, had an impact in education instructor case writing. The education school at Eastern developed a ground breaking computer dialogue system. Monk was the faculty member responsible for introducing this sophisticated computer discussion forum. Under his supervision the original project wrote six case studies for the education foundations course in teacher preparation programs¹⁷.

¹⁷ Often mandated under state teacher certification laws foundation courses explored topics like equality or multiculturalism in schools which education school personnel frequently equated with ethical training for teachers.



The computer software allowed a matrix style discussion to go on not the usual linear electronic mail discourse. In a linear discussion it is difficult to do more than react to the last statement because the contributions are in a chronologically organized line of argument. It is obvious that chronological order is not the only way nor even the most desirable way that "real dialogue" develops. In the matrix style discussion a potential contributor reviews different argument strands and then they add commentary based on a wider view of the whole discussion.

Several instructors at Eastern education school, who dealt with ethical issues, used this software. Mathew and Marie wrote case studies or they used adaptations from the original cases. An innovator on the site was a major factor in continuing and expanding computer format case studies writing by the education school faculty.

Some instructors expressed a growing interest in video case studies. For example, Louise (Western, English teaching methods), was editing a set of classroom teaching tapes. Lincoln told a story about taping a student and that the class analyzed her filmed responses regarding gender equity issues. Overall, instructor-generated efforts in video as opposed to commercial ones were not well developed. Louise and others identified problems in future video case development. Those problems included the drain on the instructor's time and the present lack of technical expertise.

An instructor-generated video does have the potential to satisfy the demands in education for detail and realism in good cases. Through a combination of computers and film it is increasingly easier to produce multimedia cases. The theory driving a multimedia case is that behind the visual image the instructor can put a mass of information. Students choose those details to explore in ways that make sense to them.

The first attraction that education instructors mentioned was a personal interest in the material as a reason for writing a case study. A second attraction was the negative way that research case studies over-analyzed the data. Third, instructor-generated case material was needed for an innovation like the computer dialogue software.

The instructor as the source of case studies in medicine.

A major difference between the medical and the other schools was that an instructional team collected or they wrote and they collected case studies for teaching. At Western the Medical Humanities department instructors collected the case studies. At Our Lady instructors collected and wrote cases as a result of cooperative effort.

Our Lady had a formal system where a team wrote and evaluated a case study. Cliff and the medical anthropologist or others sought suitable material for case studies. The department built a case study library over the years. This teaching group chose or they dropped cases based on their joint decisions. Each class analyzed the case study according



to a common strategy that involved splitting the class into two groups. Collegiality was a constant theme in every phase surrounding case study use at Our Lady¹⁸. Our Lady's ethics program provided instances that simulate and model how a case is treated in the medical workplace.

Medical ethics instructors faced a special problem writing cases from experience and that was masking the participants' identity in the description. Cliff (Our Lady) took steps to withhold identifying features. "I could have added the emotional aspects to that case we considered this morning." However, this might lead some students to recognize the patient and the doctor(s) involved.

The medical anthropologist and Cliff produced "many drafts" before an actual case becomes a teaching-case study. Business ethics instructors did not feel constrained to write cases that mentioned companies by name and they sometimes allowed individuals to be identified. Education case writers have just started to consider the propriety of naming the schools and the teachers described in case studies. People and organizations might be flattered when the case depicted them positively

¹⁸A medical instructor at Our Lady told me they recently coauthored a case study on an ethical issue through their association with Cliff. The instructor had thought a clinical research background automatically excluded them from writing about ethical issues. Cliff had encouraged them to write this ethics case study with commentary. In Chapter 7 I tell the unusual story about a former medical school administrator who was invited to teach in the ethics program by the Director. The ethics program worked very hard to establish and maintain open dialogue throughout the medical school. Claire, one of the ethics teachers, was employed to coordinate these efforts.

but they are less enthusiastic when the case chronicles them in a less favorable light.

Medical ethics instructors sometimes used case studies drawn from ethical consults. An ethical consult meant an instructor or an informant was part of a decision involving ethical issues. The mechanisms for consults range from formal committee membership to a medical team asking for an opinion from an ethics specialist. Lucien (Western, medical ethics) said, "I occasionally use cases I am familiar with through consultations I tend to be a bit wary about those." Lorne (Western, medical ethics) used consultation material for case writing but he only wrote the case when some time had passed. Cliff (Our Lady) used the rule that a case he wrote involved a patient who was dead. Patient confidentiality is the concern medical instructors cited about using this close-at-hand source.

Privacy was not the only concern for instructors writing cases based on their experience. Lewis (Western) offered another reason consults sometimes made poor case studies for teaching purposes. A consult-case needed considerable editing or it was too complex. Many ethical consults involved material that allowed the students to consider five different principles. "It is too distracting" in a class when you stand there and you say "we are going to ignore these four issues" and then concentrate on this single principle. On the positive side using a consult as the basis for a case study gave the case study authenticity.

For Lewis and Cliff, both directors of their programs, the authenticity derived from the ethical case study "looking like a medical case."

Claire (Our Lady, medical ethics) confirmed that when cases originated in the on-site teaching hospital extra care was taken to protect the patient. The medical students may be assigned to the ward where the situation described occurred. A real possibility existed that students could meet case study participants in their hospital duties. Additionally, health care professionals working on the wards were uneasy when medical students could identify them in a case study. Senior physicians might understandably feel discomfort that first and second-year medical students evaluated the doctors' decisions with the benefits of hindsight. Inviting students to openly discuss senior staffs' decisions and actions were not professional norms the school wanted to encourage. The staff identified in the case study may at some time supervise those students.

As with many issues in ethics it is difficult to establish whether concern over patient confidentiality or professional reticence to criticize colleagues, shaped instructor case study writing patterns. Another confounding factor is that some medical ethicists are not medical practitioners. It was difficult to establish whether that influenced them as case study authors to be deferential or critical of a profession that they have to work closely with.

Instructors writing case studies in medical education reflects the workplace practices. Conversely, instructors writing cases in education and business are fulfilling a teaching obligation. Therefore, medical ethics case writing models collective action wanted in the medical profession. But, medical ethics case writing posed special challenges for instructors. The potential for the writer breaking patient confidentiality or embarrassing colleagues dictated heavy instructor control. Sometimes, instructors avoided that problem by using cases from published sources.

Textbooks and Other Published Sources for a Case Study

Published material represented a step away from the total control writing one's cases offered. The instructor accepts choices made by a third party over case selection and how the author describes the case. However, textbooks represent sources of legitimacy and authority in students' eyes and so do have certain advantages. The syllabi review in the nine professional schools showed that ethics instructors drew heavily on published case studies in their teaching.

Relying on a text imposes a structure and an organization on how instructors present the topics and cases. A textbook sets the case study in a context for the instructor and the students. It provides links with theories, timely and topical discussions within the field, and common understandings. New textbook editors have responded to the call to present several commentaries by distinguished ethicists. These

commentaries may enhance the class discussion beyond what was possible if the class relied on instructor-only written cases.

Charles (Our Lady, Education Foundations) and Carol (Our Lady, Business Strategy) mentioned they used a text that included some cases embedded in a theoretical discussion for undergraduate classes. In graduate level classes a casebook collection text replaced the theory and case mixed textbook. Charles felt graduate students did not need the theoretical discussion required for an undergraduate class.

Some people claim that a tenured teacher at a university is free to exercise academic freedom. Sometimes this may be true but this data also suggests that like their counterparts in primary and secondary education textbooks do shape instructor activities in the university classroom. One effect of instructors deciding to use a text is that the text organization is likely to shape the course and conduct in a practical ethics class.

Business textbooks.

In business schools a variety of textbooks, case collections and professionally produced videos provided case studies for the classroom. Using a case from a textbook allowed business instructors to give a broad range of recent ethically questionable incidents. Business ethics instructors placed a high value in cases that clearly portrayed a recent scandal. I found people using cases that represented "hot topics"

(Lorne, Western) or as Lance (Western, business) called them "neon issues." Generally, the business literature has a tradition of following "fashionable ideas" in keeping with the entrepreneurial spirit that is claimed to drive American business.

Carol complained that business professors get inundated with new texts for possible adoption. Texts that are not returned because the publisher initiated the advance. This means that one cannot rule out chance factors in the use of certain commercial case studies. Some published case material may get used simply because the instructor received it in the mail.

Education textbooks.

In education, instructors frequently mentioned one series produced by Teachers College Press and written by Jonas Soltis and others. It is striking though that the volume titled "The Ethics of Teaching" was used less than the "School and Society" text in classes people identified as dealing with ethical issues. Education school administrators claimed that ethical issues are discussed frequently in a foundation course.

Instructors apparently considered the School and Society text more appropriate for foundation courses than a book devoted exclusively to ethics. This observation reinforced the claim from education school people that ethical issues occurred anywhere and that they need not be sought out from an obvious source. It is not just the teacher's job but

the whole education system that had moral implications and goals that required exploration. In all three education schools I met many instructors who used cases from this series. This is not surprising for with so few published alternate case collections, the first in the marketplace understandably dominated.

Medical textbooks.

The three medical schools made limited use of published materials. Our Lady did not use textbooks for cases involving ethical issues. Martin at Eastern gave guest lectures and so his pedagogical style coupled with institutional arrangement resulted in no text being used. Westerns' medical ethics instructors were the only ones using published material for case studies. A student study packet for the second year medical ethics course contained many published case studies.

The one nursing ethics course I observed used a textbook but this choice was from Western College of Nursing. The two instructors, Lucien and Lorraine, told me they were "filling in" using predetermined material. Here was a situation where using published sources for case studies was not through instructor choice.

Other outside forces also decided the tapping of certain published case study sources. Lewis (Western, director and instructor) provided an interesting insight into why so many medical ethics instructors used the Dax burn victim video. Some cases are "standard in the field" and when

medical students compared notes with students from other institutions everybody expected some common cases. If the Western's ethics program did not use "Dax" the faculty was judged as less than thorough among medical students and among other medical ethicists.

Two or three instructors reinforced and extended the cultural explanation for using cases from published sources. Case titles served as shorthand between medical ethicists. During the interview they assumed I was a colleague who worked in the medical ethics field. "You know the principle in Dax" one remarked as they described the link between the theory and the case details.

Fictional Sources for Case Studies

Fiction in business.

Education and medicine explored the possibilities of using literary case studies; business did not. No business school instructor mentioned literature as a source for teaching cases. This suggested that based on these three schools business looked for case studies based on only real events. This might be a reaction to the criticism that business generated its activity based on the fiction of consumer demand that advertising creates. Socializing the business community to fictional cases could be construed as reinforcing that criticism. Business instructors showed a marked preference in conversation to portray their field as an environment where "hard fact" takes precedence over fiction.

Fiction in education.

Matthew (Eastern, Education Foundations) felt fiction could supply a case study if it "illustrates a class of problems well." Three education instructors thought literature provided good cases. The cases chosen from literature depended on that case providing an efficient way to get "salient" features of a situation.

Lisa (Western, Education Foundations) liked literature because in a novel we learn what various people are thinking as well as what they say or do. In fiction it is an accepted style to write down a person's thoughts (see Chapter 3 as an example). Through this strategy the writer conveys directly to the reader what characters think, without relying on the reader inferring the right thing.

Chris (Our-Lady, Education Foundations) made extensive use of both the written and the performing arts to present moral issues to students. This instructor goes beyond the access to the minds of others and the efficient transmission of important ideas. Literary cases provoked the students' emotions. Good fictional cases helped students to identify with or to sample vicariously the lives of those in the case study.

In the group that I teach with --- we deal with handicapped children. There was a play in town called "something Little Egypt." It was a novel written by a professor at Harvard that was made into a play. It's about a blind man who gets involved with Alexander Graham Bell, Thomas Edison, and J. Edgar Hoover. What you have got are four or five different people who are all blind, and you get to see what it is like to be blind in that kind of world. And there is an immediacy to it. They get sucked right into it, and the

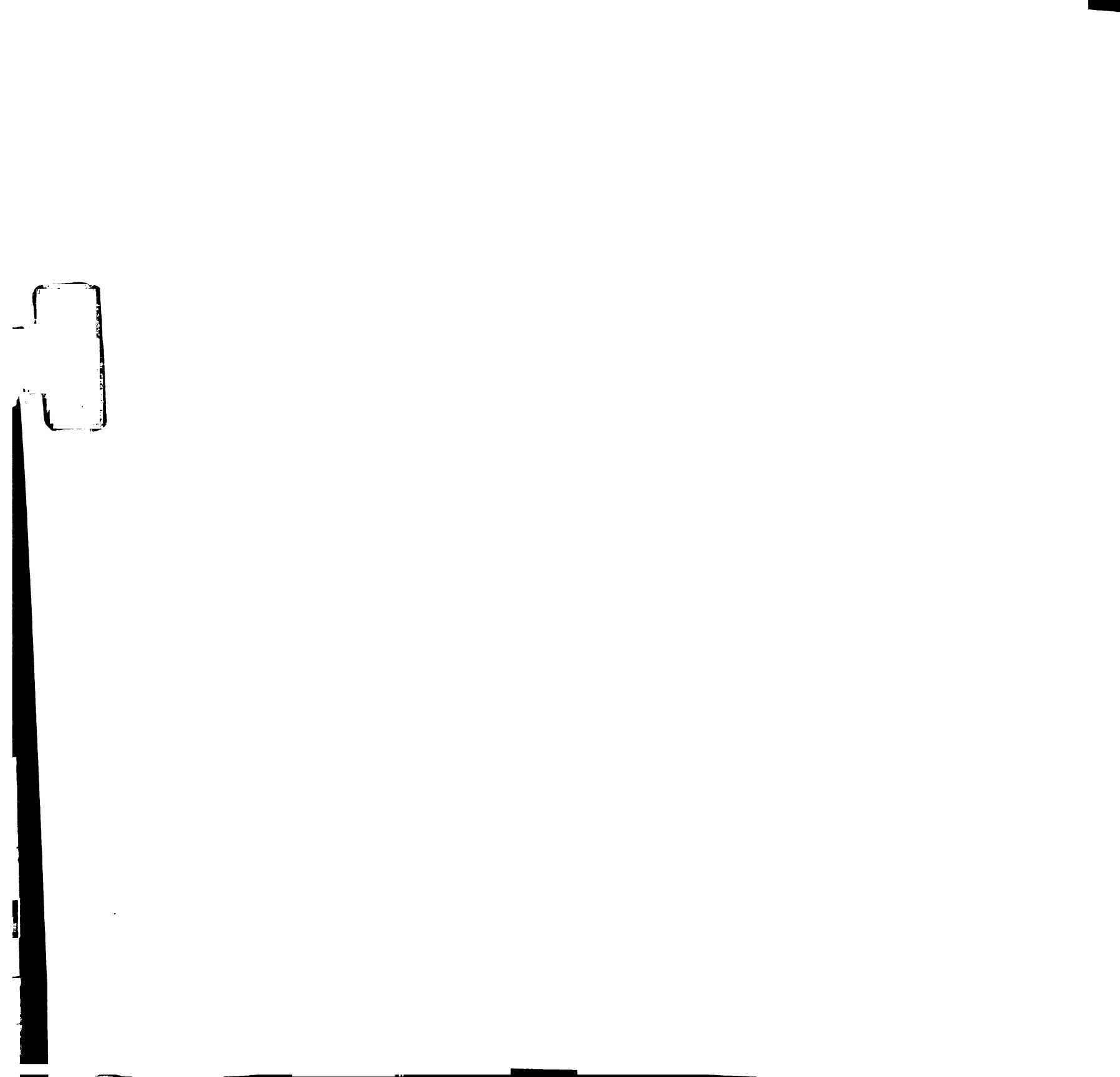
experience gave us some very good things to talk about in that particular class. I prefer a different kind of handicap, but we use the facilities that are available. I also think it's more exciting for students if you do things outside class. You need to break through the classroom formula. I don't try to get it all done in the class. Instead, I try to get the students outside the class.

Fiction in medicine.

Medical ethics has experimented with fictional cases following a similar trend in modern philosophy a discipline that many ethicists were trained in. Dostoyevsky or other Russian novelists are fashionable. In two cases, Our Lady and Western, instructors claimed they considered literature as a source for cases. Lewis, the Director at Western, wrote a book, which used cases from novels, illustrating a fictional doctor's behavior.

Western and Our Lady placed the responsibility for ethics teaching in a medical humanities department. This structural arrangement influenced who affected or who had input in the ethical program. Lewis described how many teachers drawn from all schools at Western had contact with the medical ethics faculty. Medical humanities included faculty with literature backgrounds. These people increased the chances that a medical ethics instructor might look at literature as a source for cases.

At Our Lady the director acknowledged that case writing was the collaborative responsibility of an anthropologist and himself. An anthropologist is likely to be sympathetic to or to be knowledgeable



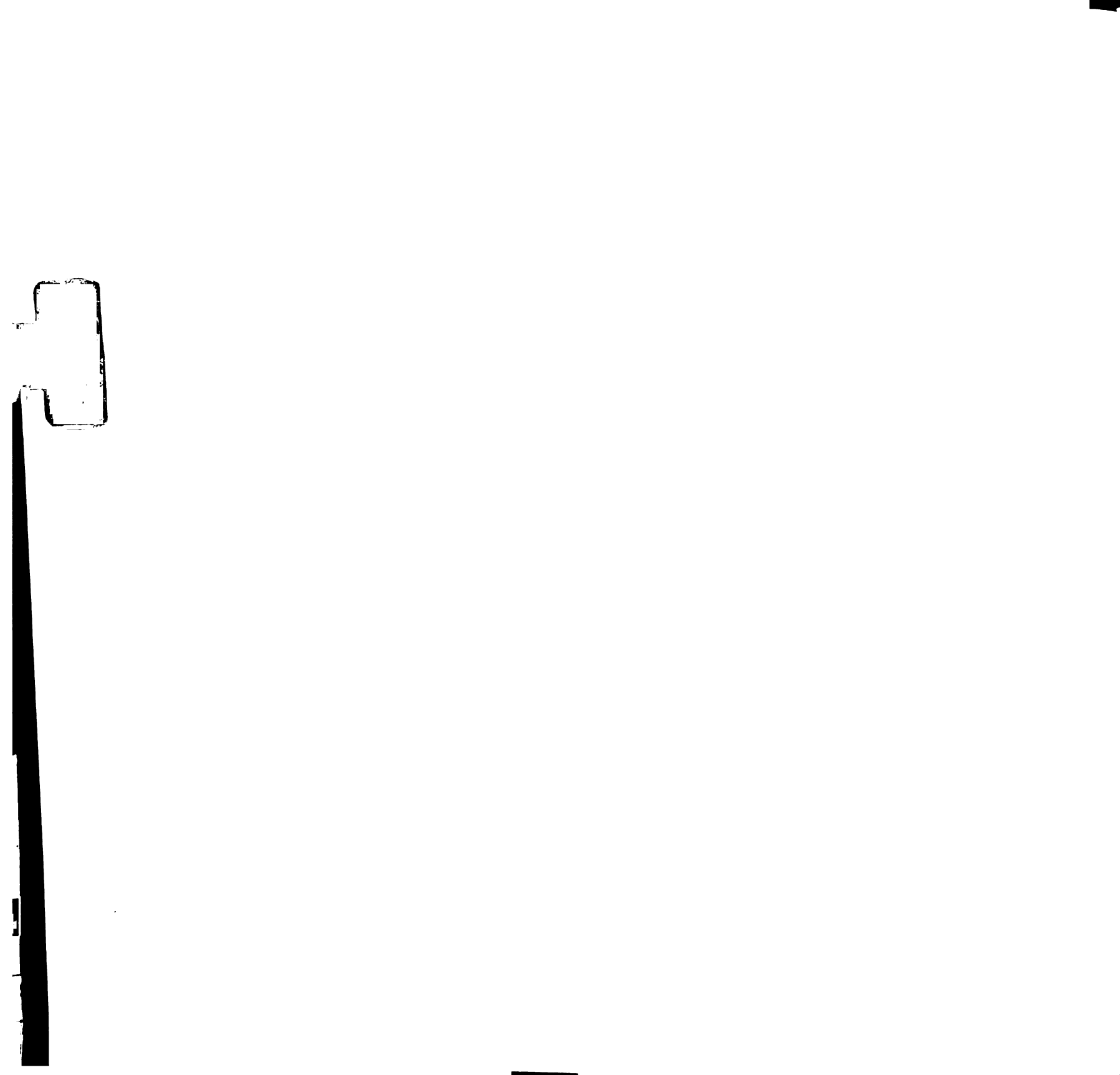
about literary sources for good case material perhaps more than research medical faculty. At Eastern there was no corresponding structural arrangement and Martin did not mention using literature as a good source for cases. Martin, a half-time philosopher, formed a one man department directly responsible to the Dean of the Medical school.

Video and Computer Software as a Source for Case Studies

Computer software as a source for cases.

Business instructors may not use fictional writing as a source for case studies but they did use computer simulations. Carol (Our Lady, Business Strategy) used two different computer case studies in the undergraduate and the graduate strategic planning courses she taught. Eastern Education school used computer cases although some faculty and some graduate students write the cases. The common element was that the business and the education school used these computer case studies as out-of-class teaching opportunities.

Very few instructors mentioned computer case studies. The lack of hardware, or software and the varying levels of computer expertise among instructors probably account for this. No school I visited had many classrooms equipped for computer use. Only Eastern education school and Our Lady business strategy classes used software that dealt with ethical issues. The few instances where computers were used showed them used outside the classroom. Therefore, one can only speculate about the



future impact of computers and software simulations with ethical content.

Commercial video as a source for cases.

Using video received a mixed reaction from instructors. Many instructors preferred written case studies based as they said on their age and training. Many saw videos as an "inefficient" or a "biased" way to present cases. Curt (Our Lady, Medical Humanities) said:

We did one video case using the case of a man that had extensive third degree burns (the Dax case). He wanted to die and requested that he be allowed to die repeatedly. The physicians refused to let him. That was a popular video, but being a video made for a very lengthy case analysis. Just to see the video and discuss and so forth. I'm quite comfortable with the printed written presentation.

On the positive side Lucy and Lisa (Western, Education Foundations) believed video allowed the students to see or to share the emotions of those involved. Lisa claimed videos exposed her students to people and to places not available to students through normal classroom experiences. Lisa assumed her white, middle-class, mostly female students knew nothing about the environment depicted in the video. She used a video case study as a window into the world of the inner-city and the predominantly minority populated schools within the inner-city. Lisa coupled the case with discussion about the students' personal feelings and their attitudes to color, class, and background. The video provided graphic evidence that often contradicted the students' sheltered and their possibly prejudiced preconceptions.

Maurice (Eastern, business) showed video dealing with the relocation of a Green Giant Corporation vegetable processing plant from California to Mexico. As I watched the film with the students they visibly reacted to the interviews with people about to lose everything. Ex-employees, with large families running around in the background, tearfully explained how with little education they used to earn \$8 an hour or more. Now jobless they could hope for only minimum wage jobs at best. The pictures caused a visible stir among the students. Later, in an interview the company vice-president stated categorically that Green Giant applied U.S. child labor laws in the new Mexican plant. The interview is followed with a quick cut to the Mexican factory showing 14 year-old girls working full time on the production line. This produced derisive sneers from the audience.

Lewis, Lorne, and Lorraine, all medical instructors at Western, agreed that videos show powerful emotions and they convey immediacy. Western medical ethics instructors used several video cases especially in the early premedical ethics course. As is evident from Curt's remarks above Our Lady used video cases occasionally.

Video is a good source for cases when the instructor wanted to expose the students to emotions. However, there was an important difference between the video usage in medical ethics and the other two schools. In education and business the instructors wanted their aspiring professionals to be emotionally affected. Medical ethics instructors used video to inoculate aspiring doctors against the powerful emotions

involved. Lewis, as he described the Dax case and when I watched it in class, he warned the students how easy it was to become involved in this patient's emotional appeals to die.

Students as a Source for Case Studies

The business student as a source for case studies.

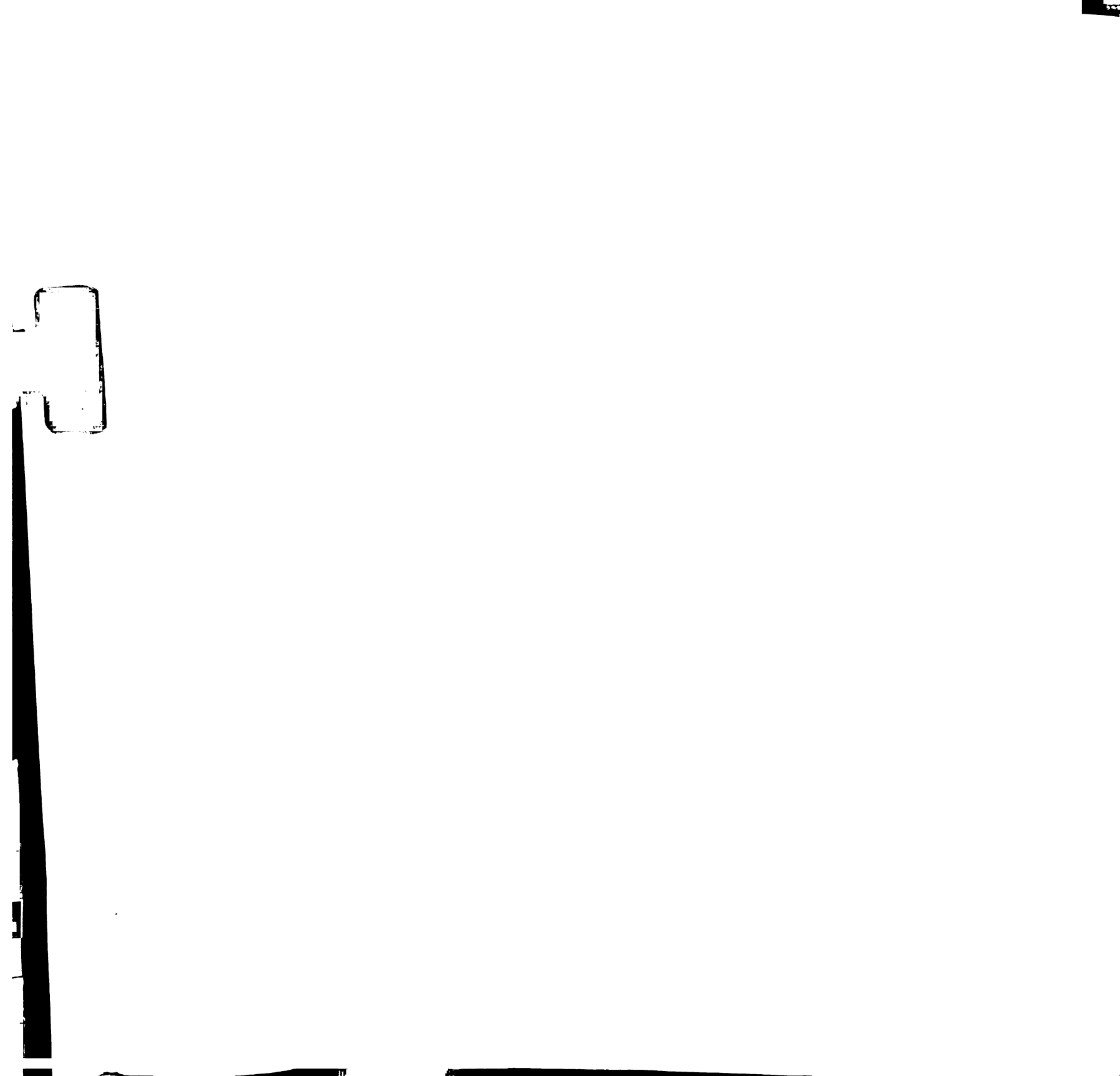
Generally, students served as sources for instructor confirmation in business classes. The instructor introduced a topic and a case study then the students verified or they added to that case study. In a class observation Maurice (Eastern, Business Ethics & Strategy) tried to use two students' experience as business consultants. Louis (Western, Business Ethics) elicited a case about the downsizing steel industry from a student who interned with a major steel company. In Carol's class (Our Lady, Business Strategy) a student provided updated case history. He volunteered that he had recently worked as an intern for the Quaker Oats Company, the case study Carol selected.

Another interesting utilization of students as case sources came from Christine (Our Lady, Business Ethics). She used students as an extension of her search for suitable case studies. Carol reported that a student was a good source for business ethics cases in fields she could not monitor. "I had a computer expert one year who found a wonderful case in a computer journal I'd never read in a thousand years." The student discovered a story of how IBM supplied computers to

the Chilean government that used the machines to track political opponents for imprisonment, torture, or worse. Christine planned to use this case study for a course in International Business Ethics.

Most business instructors assumed students had little business experience to supply cases from. This assumption created the student role observed in business ethics classes as confirming the principles or the details in an instructor's case. Furthermore, business instructors pointed out that the students' low level business roles offered little experience of being a major decision maker in the company. In stark contrast most business teaching cases asked the student to imagine they are a Chief Executive Officer (CEO) or an advisor to a major decision maker. I asked several business instructors whether students complained that the case study dealt with senior management a position they may never reach or that was far removed from their present positions. The usual reply was that students wishing themselves into that senior position provided the motivation for case analysis.

The counter example, Lake (Western, Business Strategy) confirmed instructor assumptions about student experience. Western ran an off-site extension program, which included a business ethics course, for experienced senior executives. Lake used student case studies extensively in this course. For example, students analyzed their work situation as a major class exercise.



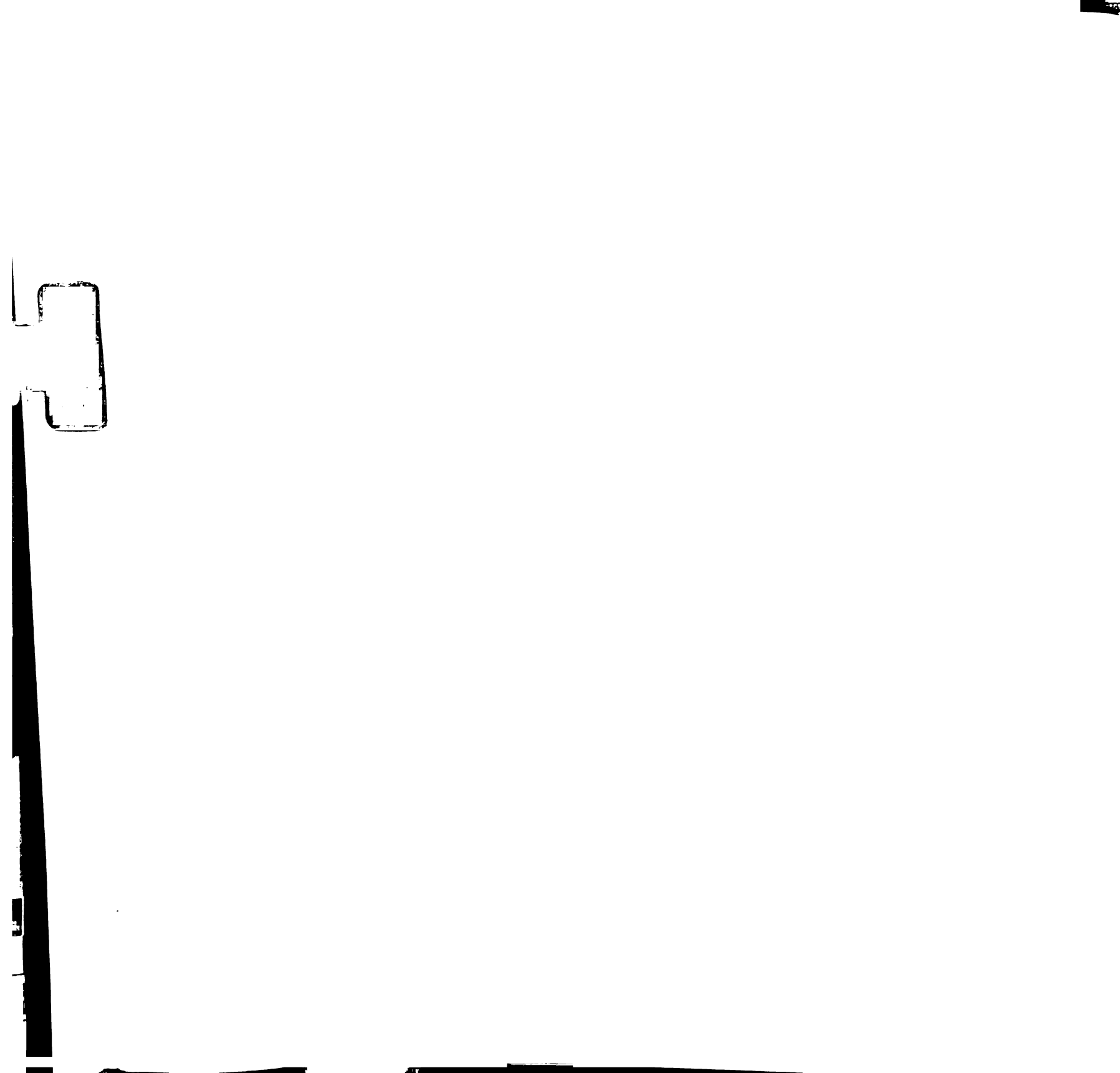
The medical student as a source for case studies.

Instructors asked medical students with work experience to use it in nearly every case as a private reflection not a classroom activity. Two medical schools, Our Lady and Western, included the third or the fourth years ethical case write-ups based on the student's experience. However, only one instructor, Lorne at Western, sometimes used these write-ups with other students for teaching.

The education student as a source for case studies.

Student-generated case studies played a more significant role in education than medical and business schools. This might imply that education instructors see students as a richer source of experience than their medical and business colleagues. However, instructors encouraged critical reflection on that experience thereby suggesting that the instructors see something wrong with the cases students bring.

Unlike the other professional schools most education faculties assumed their students had knowledge about schools they attended as pupils. Opinions vary on whether that experience helps, hinders, needs revision, or is discounted because it stemmed from the distorted perspective of a child. No medical and no business instructor I interviewed mentioned or took into account their students' experiences with their doctor or business people! It might be interesting to explore reasons why



education was the one profession that paid so much attention to students' experience before training.

Student cases as "research."

Student case studies became personal research projects for the student. This research did not generate knowledge to add to the educational research literature. If conventional research was the major objective then I would expect instructors to pay more attention to the teaching and the applying of standard research methods. Instead, this research resembled the "ethical write-ups" some medical ethics instructors wanted.

The main reason to use student sources for case studies in education was to expose the student teacher to a reflective process. Student cases provided practice that they might use later in their teaching. It also might destroy or at least prompt the student to examine their beliefs. When they reflect independently as teachers, they would have to look to themselves for the case to think about. Therefore, it was necessary to teach students how to select a case from experience in their training.

Three instructors described this reflective type research. Lucy and Lincoln used student-generated case study to reveal new insights about teaching. Lucy (Western, Education Foundations) had a small group project where students examine an aspect of school life. For Lucy the

project was a "cooperative exploration through a concrete example of an ethical principle such as equity or justice."

The day I observed we heard a progress report from a group of special education student-teachers researching regular classroom teachers' attitudes to mainstreaming¹⁹. The students conducted interviews and they surveyed staff at their student practice sites or their former primary and secondary schools. A former private school pupil shared an unsettling experience in their presentation. She was interested in how private schools dealt with special needs' children. Her plan was to write a little case description based on interviews at her old school. Instead she discovered there were no special needs children in her private school. She found, through a cooperative ex-teacher of hers, the answer to why this state of affairs existed. A child with a special need was "the responsibility of the public system" and not the responsibility of her alma mater.

She told the class how this discovery upset her and that she had been unaware as a student about this state of affairs. "It just never occurred to me what was happening." The case study had greatly affected that student's perception of her schooling. The research had caused the student to reflect on experience. It also showed everyone else how the

¹⁹Mainstreaming describes the practice that places students with various special needs in a regular classroom. The practice tries to eradicate prejudice by other children against those who are physically or mentally different. Mainstreaming also represents a recent response to equity issues by schools. It replaced the segregation of physically and mentally "challenged" students in special classes.

research process sometimes revealed things not obvious to case participants.

Lincoln (Western) followed four themes throughout a year-long sequence of courses in a specialized teacher education program. The course sequence focused on four themes. First, the students looked at organizing a classroom composed of mixed ability cooperative learning groups. Second, they explored gender equity issues. Third, they looked at student-teacher relationships in schools. Fourth, the students learned how the teacher, as the resource manager, can use federal, state, and local district programs for to benefit children with special needs.

Lincoln held the final class in the sequence once a week during student teaching. Students conducted small "experiments" and investigations in their assigned schools exploring the four themes. One student told the group about her gender equity experiment to form student lines. As a test she had mixed lines not based on the conventional single gender lines. The group examined her case and they offered suggestions to improve the negative reaction the experiment provoked. Cooperative reflection was a major ethic in the specialized program that included this course sequence.

Cathy (Our Lady, Education Administration) taught aspiring or established administrators in an education finance course. A major assignment in the course involved the student writing an action plan to

resolve an issue in their district. The students armed with a cultural research method and a technical knowledge of school finance applied what they learned to their case. Cathy stressed the main aim was that the prospective education administrators practice writing proposals. She placed less stress on formulating a solution and she put greater emphasis on how the administrators reflected about a problem.

Trained in ethnography she explicitly rejected the idea that she encouraged ethnographic research to her students. "You have to spend six months at least getting to know a field site. These part-time students haven't got that time." The best part-time students could hope for was "to apply ethnographic methods in their own setting." Cathy selected student case studies because they provided the one situation which guaranteed significant student immersion. She worked toward developing a highly individual reflective model among the students.

These three education instructors had students supply case studies for practice in "reflective teaching" not to produce "teachers who were researchers." Reflective here meant thoughtful about one's work down to the smallest detail such as getting students to stand in line. These instructors clearly displayed the popular belief in the education school that ethical issues could be found anywhere.

Student cases as journal entries.

Another way to stimulate reflection and to use student-generated cases was journal writing. Lucy (Western, Education Foundations) had students write reactions to various things that happened. She mentioned that the writing journals or the "reaction logs" was a course requirement. By writing a student supposedly built a bridge tying some broad issue like gender bias to specific incidents (a case study loosely construed) that occurred. Journal writing looked like a variation on the educational "research projects" or the medical "ethics write-ups."

Student cases for motivation.

Other education instructors used student-generated cases for motivation. Constance (Our Lady, elementary teacher education) suggested students bring many experiences with them: "Those are more meaningful than the ones out of the book." Lucas (Western, education administration) succinctly put an idea other instructors silently endorse. "I know at least one person in the class is interested in that case study."

Looking at student reactions during observations there is possibly a counterpoint to Lucas and his story of that one motivated student. Other students often engaged in activities suggesting disinterest during the telling of a student-generated case and its subsequent analysis by the one student and the instructor. Education instructors sometimes felt compelled to moderate the flow of student case studies. One

instructor locked a steely gaze on a small discussion group and he laid out the ground rules for student contributions. "I am not interested in war stories [student cases] unless you can tie your story to some general idea of its significance."

Lyle (Western, education administration) foresaw potential harm stemming from student-generated case studies. He used student cases "sometimes but not frequently." "I have show-and-tell time, but [I] avoid giving a resolution that is counter to what the author of the case did." Student-generated case studies can be dangerous in professional school classes which might discourage some instructors.

Case analysis can be very critical of the people involved in the cases and the discussion emotionally charged. As I found when I observed, the student and the instructor analyzed individual student cases often without other students. This may protect the author from analysis by their peers. It might suggest a student case given verbally "on the spur of the moment" might, not in the instructor's judgment, be accessible to other students. A prepared case study that describes a situation and actors who are third parties provided an emotionally safer sense of distance from potential classroom difficulties for students and instructor.

General Impressions About Potential Sources for Case Studies

When the instructor was the source for the cases they exerted the greatest control over student learning. Connection analysis, of the three functional types proposed, fits well with the instructor exercising control or relinquishing it to a published source. It is difficult to see why instructors ask students to supply the case when that instructor planned on connecting a case to a specific theory or principle.

Furthermore, instructors could justify their control because professional training has to reinforce the authority of expertise in the student's mind. A student case study can never supply professional authority. Either, the instructor writes the case themselves and then it is as a specialist that they gave them the stamp of an authority. Or, the instructor can choose cases from the relevant literature not only drawing on the field's authority but they also exercise their expert choice.

Some instructors exercised control on the case source based on negative reasons. I asked instructors to describe the popular ideas and the prevalent attitudes that students had in case analysis. Those data paint the generally held poor opinions instructors held about their students. We have already seen that with notable exceptions few instructors put great emphasis on cases the students brought with them. A student case was most useful when it confirmed the instructor's case.

In the broadest terms instructors depicted their students as frequently naive, ethically relativistic, lacking in experience, or the students had a tendency to draw the wrong conclusions from experience.

Instructors use case studies, so the literature and some informants claimed, to motivate students. However, one may ask how motivating was it for students to have instructors completely control the theories and the practical instances considered? On the other hand, how could instructors produce coherent programs exploring ethical issues when they rely on student sources for cases studied?

Connection analysis for cases makes sense when instructors assumed that behavioral or genetically determined learning theories²⁰ are correct. These learning theories set a model in which the learner makes sense of what the teacher controls.

If a constructivist learning theory is assumed by the instructor then therapeutic, not connection, analysis becomes the credible aim. When instructors want to change or challenge the students' beliefs and dispositions then the students are a viable source for cases. In

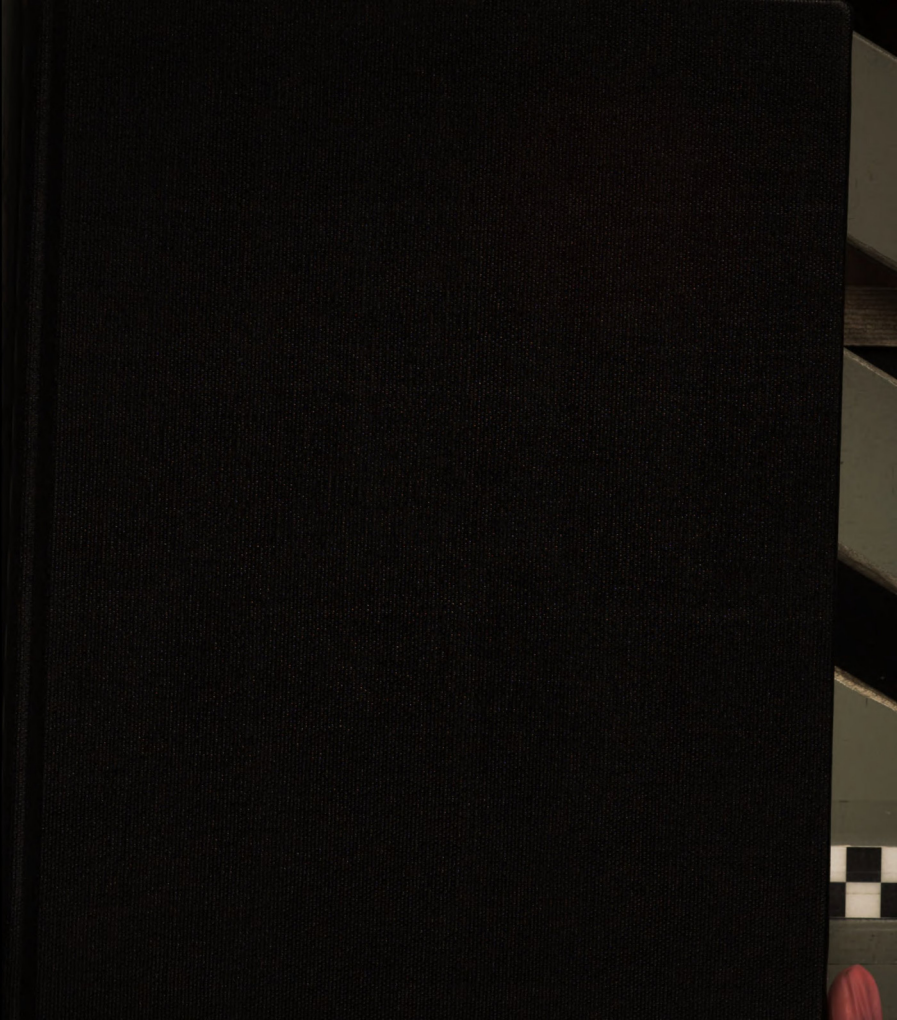
²⁰Behavioral and genetic learning theories are consistent with instructor control of student learning. Both learning systems suggest a teaching model where the instructor creates the environment that enhances student learning. The only thing a student needs to bring to the classroom is motivation to learn what the teacher presents. Constructivist theory rejects the largely passive learner model. Learners structure their ideas based on prior experiences and through interpreting new learning based on those existing structures. Any case study presented to them by the instructor becomes problematic if the instructor wanted to focus on a particular understanding that they drew from that case study.

education there was evidence in the "reflective research" that a student was a valid case source. Medicine had a similar "reflective" activity called the ethical write-up that might be construed as therapeutic in function. Only action-plan case analysis appeared not to require the instructor to assume a particular learning theory and therefore only instructors with action-plan analysis in mind could draw on any source for a case.

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CHAPTER 4: DESCRIBING TYPES OF ANALYTIC PROCEDURES

THREE WISE MONKEYS: TEACHING ETHICAL CONTENT THROUGH CASE STUDIES

VOLUME II

By

James Valda Mead

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Administration

1993

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CHAPTER 6. DESCRIBING TYPES OF ANALYTIC PROCEDURE analytic procedures to fulfill that function. This procedural case analysis knowledge, which instructors taught, I call *analytic*. These cases are increased from theoretical language for the persuasive power this is expended. Theory influence

Introduction it is not a direct application of that parent theory. Following the theory's case, for

Case Analysis Type and Analytic Procedures

An important theme is describing how a case study maintained a link to particularity while providing something that carried beyond the case. Instructors hoped that analyzing the case study provided something a student took beyond the description's particulars. No instructors expected a case analysis to generate knowledge, beliefs, dispositions, or decisions that remain locked into one situation. They tried to give the student the means to analyze the case before them as well as the procedure to analyze future cases. After the analysis instructors wanted students to be able to justify that analysis. In addition the instructor wanted the student to have a way to evaluate other people's case resolutions.

The preceding two chapters focused on three functions that are called types of analysis recognizable in a teaching case study. Those chapters (Chapters 4 & 5) described possible functions case analysis served and

how those functions related to instructors ideas about good case characteristics and their sources. It follows that when instructors pursue those functions through case analysis they employ many analytic procedures to fulfill that function. This procedural case analysis is knowledge, which instructors taught, I call maxims. These maxims are borrowed from theoretical language for the persuasive power this engendered. Theory influenced the maxim but it is not a direct application of that parent theory. I retain the theory's name, for example, the Kantian maxim to show its origins.

The instructor's purpose directed the students attention toward the three functional analysis types. In the first a connection-functional analysis draws a student's attention to the knowledge and the beliefs collectively endorsed in society. The knowledge and beliefs I have in mind are such things as the sun is at the solar system's center or that when exploring moral problems Utilitarian moral theory is helpful.

A key element that distinguished connection from therapeutic analysis is that instructors disregard or they ignore the student's mental state. When an instructor describes a connection analysis they spend no time wondering how a theory or principle affects what the student already believes. Conversely in a therapeutic analysis the student's mental state before and after the case analysis is the primary emphasis for the instructor's teaching.

For the second analysis type instructors pursued the therapeutic analysis when the target is a student's beliefs or dispositions that everyone need not endorse. Therapeutic case analysis deals with personal knowledge and beliefs that are privately held. Those beliefs could be patently false such as the sun is the center of the universe or the belief that all teachers by definition loved children. Therapeutic analysis tries to influence the way the students see situations and that analysis emphasizes psychological change in students.

In the third and final type of analysis -- action-plan analysis the instructors provided a way to solve a class of professional problems exemplified by the particular case. Action-plan cases contained practical problems, which required solving. Instructors mixed the three analytic types forming interesting blends. Instructors who encouraged students to pursue one analysis type did not exclude exploring other types simultaneously.

One might expect in cases dealing with ethical issues that the most frequent influence on maxims and analytic procedures was moral theory. However, like other professional school courses a practical²¹ ethics

²¹Practical or professional ethics is what these instructors taught through case studies. These were problems and situations with ethical content that the professional could face or needed to think about while in training. Moral or Ethical theory refers to a sub-specialty from philosophy that has the same status as Logic in the discipline. In moral theory philosophers develop various understandings of the Good. Applied ethics is a further category of specialization in Ethics that applies those understandings within the context of different fields of human activity. The relationship between philosophy, the philosophy of science, and practical science can be understood the same way. Philosophers of science are the first to recognize their specialty has a

course contributed to the students' expertise and the students' ability to express that knowledge. Therefore, it was no surprise that in schools ethical case analysis, procedures and theories currently favored and the throughout the school appeared. Professional ethics instruction is not about transforming doctors, teachers, and business people into moral philosophers or applied ethicists. an integrated approach but most ethics

teaching took place in the "foundations" courses. A smaller section
An ethics instructor may have a personal interest in applied ethics but this was not what they taught students. These instructors shared the same concern as their professional school colleagues to produce respected professionals. In all the schools instructors acknowledged that practical ethics played a part in producing the desired end for professional preparation.

Two medical schools
In this chapter the researcher describes the analytic procedures or maxims in a way that reflects how the different schools arranged their opportunities to learn ethical content. For instance, the three medical schools dealt with ethical issues in separate courses. Each school as showed an important variation. Western followed a common syllabus in the major medical ethics course for aspiring doctors but had instructor variation in teaching. Our Lady followed a common syllabus and they had a single analytic procedure. Eastern organized their medical ethics activities around one philosopher. This chapter

complex and indirect influence on the conduct of science. I use these distinctions consistently for clarity to the reader not as a proposal for universal adoption.

In the business schools the interesting variation and patterns occurred between two courses common to all schools. The business section deals with analytic procedures in the separate business ethics courses and the integrated approach taken in business strategy classes. Education schools claimed to take an integrated approach but most ethics teaching took place in the "foundations" courses. A smaller section depicts the few analytic procedures carried out in "methods" classes.

"I work from a large" Medical Analysis Procedures

Action-plan emphasis in analytic procedures.

Two medical schools, Western and Our Lady, blended the action-plan and the connection analysis types. The procedures used persuasive principles derived from moral theory and they illustrated those principles with frequently occurring medical situations. Instructors made case studies opportunities to practice making decisions and then as occasions for students to practice citing moral principles justifying those decisions. Martin at Eastern represented a unique instance. Eastern did not have a medical humanities' department responsible for medical ethics. The instructor's had limited access to students and he used mass lecture sessions in small time blocks.

Analysis at Western Health, it endangers their (financial) livelihood."

Lorraine described the case studies she used as organized around "a general question not a general principle." It is crucial to understand that Lorraine distinguished between exploring principles and exploring questions. She might teach "general principles" in a philosophy or applied ethics class but she explored the "general question" in practical ethics.

"I work from a largely unarticulated moral theory as far as the students are concerned." This position she quickly added was not motivated by any need to conceal from students the deontological² position she took as a professional philosopher and a scholar. During the first session "I talk about the conflicts between deontology and utilitarianism" and I explain where "I come down." However, "graduate business or medical students are just not interested in that level of abstraction."

Lorraine illustrated her approach in medical ethics classes with what she called the "general question" of "the duty to treat." This was a new question when explored through AIDS but an enduring problem "when students considered serious infectious diseases like tuberculosis and polio. Also, there was the duty to treat the poor, which doesn't

²Deontology or Kantian moral theory argues that one's duty (read the right thing to do) lies in a maxim or rule we could apply to everyone. Utilitarian theory in contrast claims that we should consider the outcomes to determine the right thing to do.

endanger a doctor's health, it endangers their [financial] livelihood."

Besides articulating general questions Lorraine stressed the importance of case details. "Gathering the facts is important and not as easy as it seems." "How can [somebody] be certain of all the facts?" Facts in a case can change or they influence the moral judgment so the facts are not a trivial issue easily put aside. There are doctors who refuse or who are unwilling to treat homosexual AIDS patients because of how the patients probably became infected. Condemning a lifestyle, for whatever reason³, was not a relevant consideration for polio victims.

Lorraine used a Kantian maxim to help the students analyze cases. The Kantian maxim explored the general questions about duty in a medical context. This instructor did not teach these professional students the intricacies of duty-based theories. Deontological theory, however, provided the language and that language inspired the procedure students followed to analyze, persuade, evaluate, or justify decisions.

Lorraine selected cases that illustrated to students the general question of a doctor's duties. However, she did a personal connection analysis that linked her deep understanding of moral theory to case study choice. As a deontological medical ethicist the choice of

³The argument is not whether the reason is rational or right. The point is that in the AIDS cases we get involved in a discussion of lifestyle and specific details of sexual practices that would simply be strange in the context of polio. In some modern tuberculosis cases it is the apparent refusal of some patients to follow treatment that causes doctors to question continued treatment. Under a general question lies a host of morally significant facts that vary among cases.

question connected to the Kantian theories she favored. Meanwhile, the students practiced decision making based on the Kantian maxim and the factual circumstances in cases. Students used the Kantian maxim as a tool or analytic procedure, which resolved practical ethics problems depicted. Lorraine suggested the general principle and the specific situation, where the sister could be exposed to preventable risks. The students suggested the mid-level rule. Lorne suggested another analysis procedure for students to make decisions from the case facts. Lorraine had suggested a Kantian influenced maxim and Lorne gave students what he called a "mid-level rule strategy." The commonly held understanding he communicated through case analysis was that the "mid-level rules lie between the general principles and the case specifics." Lorne illustrated this analytic procedure with a case study. There is a general principle that physicians respect patients' wishes about confidentiality. The confidentiality principle was one he wished to connect to through a mid-level rule to case particulars.

A young Mexican gang member lay in a Los Angeles hospital recovering from gunshot wounds. The hospital is short of beds. He has no insurance therefore this case represents charity by the hospital. A standard blood test reveals the wounded man is HIV positive. No one in his family knows, as the doctor does, that he is homosexual. The doctor is under pressure to release him to the care of his sister. However, the wound requires daily dressing, so does the doctor tell the sister her brother is HIV positive? The man specifically asked that his homosexuality and HIV result be kept from his family.

The doctor has an ethical conflict in Lorne's view. If he respects the man's wishes, his sister risks HIV infection. She is willing to dress her brother's wound and she will give him a place to convalesce. The procedural task was to make a mid-level rule, which bridged the general confidentiality principle and the specific situation, where the sister could be exposed to preventable risks. The students suggested the mid-level rule that the doctor teach the sister "barrier wound dressing" but that she was not told this was the standard procedure for AIDS patients.

When analyzing a case study Lorne suggested one asked "What are the moral issues here?" It is important that unlike Lorraine there was no single theoretical lens (deontological) to see those issues. It is possible that students recognized principles represented in the case based on any moral theory. Lorne then argued we decide "What are the conflicts and why is this a problem to us?" Once students separated out the issues under the conflicting principles they considered appropriate actions and reasons for those actions.

Lorne described his method as "defending a version of reflective equilibrium." In the gang case there were two general principles, the need for patient confidentiality and the need to protect all persons from harm. The case supported the relevance of both principles. The mid-level rule suggested a practical action which balanced those two principles. Mid-level rule formulation was the analytic procedure the students practiced in case analysis.

Lorne used a mixture of theoretical language that borrowed from Rawlsian justice theories and a variation on consequentialism called rule

utilitarianism. Rule utilitarians formulate a maxim that produces great benefit. He did not teach students rule utilitarian theory and how that

particular theory differed from other consequentialist theory. Lorne claimed to subscribe to "a version of reflective equilibrium"; the key word is "version." He was not as Rawls' theory dictates suggesting the students place themselves behind a veil of ignorance to formulate the mid-level rule.

Two theories influenced a maxim, which Lorne used, to analyze specific cases. The mid-level rule procedure had general application but the rule content was specific to the Mexican gang member's case. Students suggested content for the rule that was not designed for application beyond the case. The Rawlsian maxim laid down a procedure to look at cases in general. Never did Lorne suggest to students that this case connected directly to Rawlsian principles. The procedure had application beyond the case but the rule formulated was specific to that particular situation.

Lewis believed the analysis procedure forced students to produce "reasons to support their choice." The goal was not to judge the student's choice. Lewis thought a case presented choices for students.

He expressed no preference for one student decision over another but Lewis disliked an answer that suggested the decisions were equally reasonable.

"When you throw out a case you've got to have some confidence that by the end of a certain period you are going to get to some sort of endpoint. . . . Endpoints may be different for different students. . . . but you are forced to plunk down on one side or the other, you cannot say they are evenly balanced."

In the classic Dax burn victim case, Lewis identified two general principles, patient autonomy and benign paternalism. The doctor must make a decision based on either the autonomy principle or the paternalism principle. Under the first principle the patient in the case will exercise their autonomy and they will die. Alternatively under paternalism the doctor decides to continue the treatment hoping the patient eventually realizes the benefit²⁴. There was no talk of mid-level rule formulating or producing a decision that equalized two principles. Lewis wanted the student to make the choice between two actions and then they justify that choice. He evaluated the rigor of the student analysis procedure by looking at the justification based on one principle. There was an explicit recognition that no principle was "better" or that represented "the right answer."

Narrative moral theory influenced this analysis procedure where an argument's coherence was the crucial feature. Lewis described this as an ongoing and gradual change that had moved him from a traditional moral theory approach to a pragmatic or casuist analytic procedure. It

²⁴This is the video described in detail in earlier chapters. The video shows how a man "Dax" expressing the wish to die or at least in his depressed state relieved from what he now claims is considerable suffering. There is no doubt that he is in considerable pain from a series of plastic surgery procedures. Despite extensive surgery he faces more painful operations in the future.

is pragmatic in the sense that principles come from experience represented in the case study not from moral theory. It was casuist because the case study details generated the possible principles students considered not a moral theory. He was less concerned in the case study context with any theoretical argument that underpinned the principles considered. Students looked at a case following the coherence maxim and they formulated the principles, then they chose actions that upheld one principle.

Lucien presented a series of cases that coalesce around a dilemma. Casuistry inspired this case analysis procedure²⁵. Observation reinforced the impression that Lucien showed students casuist analysis procedures. However, there was no suggestion Lucien ran a mini-course in casuistry; he just used a procedure inspired by casuistry.

He introduced two cases about Permanent Vegetative State (PVS) patients. The practitioner in the teaching team reviewed the medical details for various brain states -- comas, PVS and death. The physician laid out for the students the three related paradigm cases emphasizing the differences among the three conditions. Lucien put two PVS cases out on the table and he asked the students to describe the detail that made one case significantly different in a moral sense. In other words given the

²⁵Casuistry is sometimes described by the metaphor of map drawing. If we see medical ethics as a blank sheet the casuist identifies medical practice problems. A single paradigm case marks the "center" of the practice problem. Once we determine the paradigm other related cases are then marked on the map in a way that shows how close or far they are from the paradigm case. Equidistant between two paradigms lay cases representing considerable moral difficulty.

location of three paradigm cases the students had to mark the two PVS case positions on the moral map.

Lucien's aim was the same as most medical ethics instructors to "help students develop their ethical reasoning skills." He used a casuist analysis procedure without ever calling it that to develop those skills. The dominant feature was that instructors used analytic procedures or maxims influenced by moral philosophy. Lorraine described a Kantian maxim inspired by an unarticulated deontological theory. Lorne took his inspiration for analytic procedures from the theory of John Rawls and the Rule Utilitarians. Lewis borrowed procedures from the pragmatic and the casuist theories. Instructors at Western shared a syllabus for the major second year medical ethics course and yet despite the shared syllabus the analysis procedures and maxims used varied considerably between instructors. This made a contrast with Our Lady where instructors shared the same analysis procedure and the same syllabus.

Analysis at Our Lady

Cliff, the director of Our Lady's Medical Humanities department, devised the "Six Step Analysis of Ethical Judgment" partly for fact gathering purposes. The six steps were: First, state the known facts. Second, state the missing facts that should be there. Third, ask what are the relevant values here. Fourth, identify potential values' clashes. Fifth, list different possible actions. Lastly, from the list choose an action that protects or that upholds the most values. The final step

six or so Curt (one of Our Lady's instructors) claimed was not an important one. He was "more concerned with the procedure, the process" than whether the students reached a definitive answer in that case. Cliff endorsed that view when he described the program's aim was to provide practice in ethical judgments. In practical ethics students used the consequentialist maxim to make lists and then. Whatever the merits or disadvantages of this decision procedure my interest lies in how students applied the procedures to a case study. Steps one and two involved making two lists of case details (the known and unknown facts), then, the students inferred values, which the lists suggested. Students then listed possible conflicting values. The procedure did not leave students paralyzed without a way to resolve the issue. Instead they made a fourth possible action list. Only during the final step do the students have to make a choice. They make that choice based on list three (values) and list four (possible actions). When the students make the choice they have a decision aid-score each possible action-to see the action that upholds the most values. Students chose the action that protected the most values.

Cliff's six step work-up resembled the consequentialist maxim. In consequentialist or utilitarian discourse we list the possible actions and the associated outcome. On that list we score each action-outcome pair based on benefit. The outcome that accrues the most benefit is the action we should take. I am not suggesting that the six step work-up is a consequentialist theory. The benefits considered are values that looked like Virtue based moral theory not outcomes. Mixing the

utilitarian outcomes and the virtues makes no sense if the six step work-up represented direct application of ethical theory. There is no defense from a moral philosopher's viewpoint for this "hybrid theory." However it makes good sense as a practical ethics procedure or maxim that consequentialist and virtue-based theory inspired. In practical ethics students used the consequentialist maxim to make lists and then students score or they weigh items on those lists. Furthermore students used a consequentialist maxim as a procedure to justify the best action-plan.

Analysis at Eastern

Eastern took an entirely different approach to the relationship between ethics and medical education. The differences were not due to instructor background. Many medical ethics instructors at other sites shared Martin's philosophical background. Martin did mention several times how he had no medical background. However, several philosophers had no medical training.

The major difference was that in Our Lady and Western case analysis was a team effort with philosophers and medical practitioners. In Western a philosopher-practitioner pair led the discussion groups for the doctor ethics classes. In Our Lady the department had regular consultation between all medical school instructors. The lecture format and the timing at Eastern encouraged the impression that ethical questions can be separated from the clinical issues. This raises interesting

questions about future developments in medical ethics at Eastern with the newly created ethics department Martin headed.

At one point he depicted various philosophical views about rationality.

Martin "used cases as illustrative of the principles" under discussion.

He acknowledged that "I discuss whether the actions (decisions) in the case were appropriate." In a talk about suicide's moral dimensions he told the audience that the problem was interesting philosophically.

Traditionally doctors see suicide as a psychiatric condition and it is not treated as an ethical problem. Doctors assume, as many argued in the question and answer time, that suicide resulted from mental-imbalance. The problem became philosophically interesting, at least for Martin, because there are increasing instances where people refused treatment or people asked doctors to help them commit suicide.

Martin throughout the lecture told the audience the connections between a moral principle and the different cases. For example, suicide is not restricted to terminally ill patients; "what about Japanese "kamikaze" pilots or the soldier who dives on a grenade to save a comrade." These were cases where the soldier committed suicide in one case for national honor and in the other case for humanitarian reasons. He also described Captain Oates who walked out into the Antarctic night to save food on Scott's ill-fated expedition. If these are suicide cases how do they differ from the terminally ill patient who refused treatment? Martin discounted this last case as hardly counting as suicide when they die regardless of any suicide decision. Using these examples he defined suicide as the "deliberate and the intentional bringing on of death."

Eastern Medical school made Martin the ethical expert, an impression he reinforced when he laid out possible philosophical positions on suicide. At one point he depicted various philosophical views about rationality. Then he argued that a rational act was "one where the person had considered alternatives to realize goals and they chose the alternative most likely to advance our objectives." He then referred the audience back to the examples that he suggested shared a common element of being rational. At that point Martin reminded the audience that to consider suicide's morality as distinct from its rationality was a different philosophical question.

Martin provided philosophical tools to his audience to evaluate decisions. I doubt that many in the audience had considered the philosophical distinction between rationality and morality in the suicide act. He discussed the philosophical views about death such as the argument between death representing an irrational non-choice because it was not something people experienced. This argument claims that if people chose to stop being (die), it was impossible that they will regret it once they are dead based on our best available evidence. After a suicide only the living had regrets. Martin disagreed with the view that death was not an experience with unknown effects and therefore the suicide decision represents an irrational or non-choice. He put forward the opposite view that "you do not have to have an experience we can still estimate its effects." Before the suicide the person can estimate the effect of what they are about to do on those it will effect

regardless of the unknown state the person committing the suicide is in when dead.

Martin's teaching strategy presented various cases and the philosophical positions. He then choosing one position and he described the consequences of holding that view on the examples given. During the final discussion students applied the lecture arguments to specific cases.

Analysis Procedures at the Three Medical Schools

Medical ethics case analysis in the three sites offered a sharp contrast between Eastern and the other two medical schools. In Western and Our Lady instructors made overt attempts to promote what looked like a doctor's clinical judgment. At Eastern there was an emphasis on the importance of detail but there the one instructor, Martin, stressed a line of argument.

In both an ethical and a clinical case study slight changes in detail altered possible actions. For example in the two PVS patient cases (Lucien) it made a morally significant difference whether the patient was in this state for two weeks or for two years. After two years the doctor probably advocated different options to relatives based on the confidence in the diagnosis and based on the relationship the doctor had with those people over two years. At two weeks the doctor may still

doubt the PVS diagnosis that may be a deep coma and doubt any judgments about relationships with the relatives.

Medical ethicists wanted students to pay attention to detail. The six step ethical work-up resembled the diagnostic clinical work-up in more than just name. Students who used it paid attention to detail.

Instructors at Western and at Our Lady provided analytic procedures that enhanced decision making having focused student attention on the case detail.

Decision justification to colleagues and to others was a role expectation for doctors whether that decision was clinical, ethical or a decision that mixed both the clinical and the ethical elements.

Instructors introduced students to procedures and maxims inspired by ethical theory that they hoped enhanced the doctor's professional expertise beyond the technical. For example, Lorraine's students used the Kantian maxim as a reminder that underlying doctor's practice lay duties.

Ethical discussion at Eastern looked very different but I wonder if it really was the same. Martin emphasized he was a philosopher who worked in the medical school and he was not a medical ethicist. The ethicists described their role in medicine as helping doctors make better clinical judgments that include ethical considerations. Martin, the philosopher, modeled the philosophical way to look at problems and cases in a medical context. The lecture format reinforced the impression that ethical

issues could be separated from clinical issues. However, like the medical ethicists, Martin did not expect the medical audience to engage in detailed theoretical debates. Martin offered to clarify philosophically a medical issue that does indirectly enhance clinical decisions. The expectation was that undergraduate and graduate synthesized the knowledge, dispositions, and skills from all their particular programs. Business Analysis Procedures, strategic planning fulfilled may also not directly support clinical decisions that

In medical ethics the three schools had different institutional arrangements. Each medical school had separate courses or lectures for ethics but the business schools mixed separate ethics courses and classes that integrated ethics with other subject matter. In the three business schools an ethical issue is primarily dealt with in these two different courses²⁶.

Maurice, Millie (Eastern), Christine, Colin (Our Lady), and the team of Louis and Lance (Western) all taught courses titled business ethics. Maurice also taught strategic planning. In our conversations he confined his remarks to the business ethics courses that he taught. Therefore, it is impossible to say whether business strategy classes at Eastern had any ethical content.

²⁶ The Dean at Western claimed that ethical issues were possibly considered in every business class. He then admitted that ethical content would be small in an Accounting class. I offer no evidence to dispute this claim as I collected no data from instructors in these other classes.

The other business strategy instructors (Carol, Our Lady; Lake, Western) taught classes where ethical issues played a part. Strategic planning was a common "capstone experience" in all sites and the course was often the final course for different business school programs. In this strategy course the expectation was that undergraduates and graduates synthesized the knowledge, dispositions, and skills from all their particular program experiences. According to instructors strategic planning fulfilled many aims and strategy instructors considered that ethical issues played a variable part in fulfilling those aims.

Analysis Procedures in Business Ethics

Therapeutic emphasis in analytic procedures.

Maurice (Eastern) wanted the students to make a decision and then he wanted them to be able to justify it. He agreed with the metaphor I suggested that business ethics provided students with a tool box for case analysis. For Maurice justification lay in a set of tools, which he wrote, the moral theory literature influenced his ten maxims. Students used these ten maxims to defend various positions.

There are ten ethical principles that are explained. Three per chapter. We get into them in some detail. For example, now, I would much rather have the students read Aristotle Nicomachean Ethics Books I and II, in their entirety, but in their short modules we can't.

Maurice emphasized the connection type analyses when justifying or evaluating the actions of others. The ten maxims Maurice used instead of getting students to read the philosophical works are:

(a) Self-interest is the only one that isn't in historical sequence, but this is the most obvious. Always act in your own self-interest, others will act in their own self-interest and somehow amongst that social benefit will occur. (b) . . . The next is personal virtues with Aristotle Niccomachean Ethics -- be honest, be open, be true, be proud of what you do. . . . with the religious injunctions. . . . do nothing that destroys the sense of community. I think that's ideally expressed in St. Augustine, on the one hand and then on the other hand St. Thomas Aquinas interprets that and switches it into the church rules. Pope John 23rd . . . if you have a right to the truth you have a duty to energetically seek out truth.

(c) Hobbes' Leviathan suggests either people follow the law or that we fall into social chaos. (d) Locke -- the people should obey the central authority, as long as that central authority observes rights to life, liberty and property. (e) Mills Utilitarian rule. (f) Kant's Categorical imperative. (g) The idea of Liberty as embodied in the Declaration of the United States of America, the Bill of Rights, and Rousseau. (h) The idea from Adam Smith that economic self-interest leads to social benefit. (i) John Rawls distributive justice that suggests we have a duty to protect the weakest in our society. (j) Robert Nozick's ideas, which Maurice called contributive liberty. Maurice interpreted Nozick's liberty as the idea that people take no action that interferes with the rights of others as they fulfill those rights.

Maurice liked a case analysis that set a "triangular tension." That tension was best when there are at least three defensible positions for any given case. In the class discussion I observed he tried to get at least three students contributing views that created this triangular tension. In the Green Giant relocation case he persistently encouraged students to give many contrary positions. He explained in the interview that a simple linear tension between two defensible positions was less desirable and that tension threatened the atmosphere of trust. An important element in ethical discussion is to build "a climate of trust among the students and the instructor so they feel free to offer their opinion."

Maurice explicitly recognized in his teaching that ethical discussion often generated emotional tension. Objectivity may be admired in moral theory, in practical reasoning it is suspect. He and other instructors felt there was something undesirable in students formulating detached opinions. There is something intuitively wrong with case analysis that suggests the analyst does not feel committed to the solution suggested. Obviously, instructors walk a fine line in any analysis between emotive anarchy and cynical or detached ethical win-at-all-cost competitiveness.

In Colin's syllabus (Our Lady) there are two aims for case analysis. First, Colin wanted the business ethics course to sensitize students to the "ethical and the social dimensions of business decision making." Second, he provided the "tools for the student to apply their values to business decision making." He explicitly assumed the students in the

class brought values. This explicit recognition of student values was found in the business and the education schools. Colin taught a four-step analytic procedure. First, the students wrote down the assumptions of the groups and the persons portrayed in the case study. "The facts are there but if you make a different assumption, it's going to change the case." The syllabus showed Colin took a "stakeholder approach" or, as I called it, a stakeholder maxim. We list, according to this maxim, the ways that specific stakeholder groups see the "facts." These different versions are what Colin meant by the facts changing under different assumptions. Second, students listed the issues in the case study. The issues, in Colin's syllabus, were listing potential role conflicts. Third, students considered possible actions. Fourth, students decided the possible action on the list that was rational. Students could use this stakeholder maxim to practice decision-making or they evaluate the actions and decisions described in a case.

Students got a second analytic procedure that Colin intended students used for decision making practice. Again there was an appeal to rational standards. Colin wanted rational decisions backed by ethical principles. These principles, Colin referred to, were very different from Utilitarian or Deontological understandings. The ethical principles in this decision making procedure used an old monastic formula of "two-fold effect (the proportionality maxim)," where, "anything you do has a combination of good and bad effects." Colin gave

students a photocopy of T. Garrett (1967) *Business Ethics*. Prentice-Hall Inc. It was a very different analysis procedure rooted in casuistry. The procedure did not rely on the Enlightenment inspired moral theories most instructors used. *he appropriate varied interests represented within the case. Students used a stakeholder axis that*

According to Garrett, students judged proportionality (p. 9-10) by listing the goods and evils involved and they should consider the students situation's urgency. Not all goods are the same, so, Garrett argues keeping the business in existence clearly takes precedence over a cut in a stock dividend. Stockholders suffer but if there is no company then there is no dividend at all. On urgency questions the company conducting research and the company meeting a payroll are important to its existence, however, issuing paychecks cannot be postponed and research investment can. Furthermore, students considered the probability of various events. Risk judgments can be made when there was a slight chance of serious harm and a great chance for realizing a particular good. Lastly the student decided the intensity of the decision maker's influence. In an example Garrett argues that firing personnel for absenteeism will cause family hardship. However, the employer did not directly influence the employee's absenteeism. The employer did not make the person absent and so the bad side effect here is permissible. There is an important rider to this that obliged employers to consider disciplinary alternatives.

employee revealed a trade secret the students concluded if the competitor
Colin used two maxims the one influenced by policy and business theory (stakeholders maxim) and the proportionality maxim from casuistry.

Together these two procedures fulfilled the course's two aims. First, Colin wanted students sensitized to the ethical and the social issues in a case study. A four-step method led students to appreciate the different viewpoints and led students to appreciate varied interests represented within the case. Students used a stakeholder maxim that evaluated decisions described in the case. This maxim performed a therapeutic purpose through "sensitized students" and connected students to a business theory. The stakeholder maxim reinforced or it reminded students about the stakeholder theory encountered in other business classes. Second, the proportionality maxim was used in an action-plan analysis, or as Colin put it, student role play at making decisions.

Millie (Eastern), like Colin, saw case analysis as sensitizing students to ethical issues. In the course description, Millie described how the course explored the "gray area," which lies outside the written business law. In the class observation two students led the discussion on the issues involved in obtaining trade secrets. Student presenters, with prior assistance from Millie, led a discussion. They described various cases and any possible action was polled in the class to gauge the group's changing views.

The class looked at telephone conversations first. The students discussed if a company employee makes a mistake over the phone and the employee revealed a trade secret the students wondered if the competitor use the information? Afterwards students considered cases where people posed as either a journalist or a prospective employee to obtain

information. Then, the discussion leaders questioned the propriety of hiring away people to get information, paying ex-employees "consulting fees" to get information or even hiring ex-employees just for shape the information. Lastly, the class considered personal use of company information either before or after an employee decided to go into business themselves.

Millie described one course objective as developing students' "critical thinking skills." Student case analysis followed a pragmatic maxim where no theory was discussed. Other activities in the course involved theory discussions. The class presentation described details, which varied along a general theme. Case analysis consisted of students getting feedback about how acceptable their proposed action is to others. Throughout the session students indicated by a show of hands whether they would act as a discussant had suggested. The session exposed individual beliefs. The class exposed students to alternate points of view or it alerted them to how unique their view was.

Louis and Lance shared Millie's sensitizing aim. An interesting contrast between these instructors is that Millie considered case studies at the individual level. "Would you apply for a job at Pepsi if your supervisor at Coke suggested it?" Louis and Lance put case analysis at a systemic level considering the whole industry or even more broadly "the capitalist paradigm."

Louis described business ethics' purpose as, looking at "a structural problem [such as the Aspirin advertising or the Cola Wars]. You're looking at hundreds of millions of dollars spent every year to shape the public consciousness about something that is essentially the same." He defined the successfully sensitized business student as: "An educated person is one who begins to ask their own questions."

They must accept or deny the definitions and the decided criteria

This team used the standard discussion and readings in their course. Students wrote short reaction papers every week to case studies and issue papers they read. They also used a unique and structured way to engage students in case analysis in the classroom. They borrowed and adapted a university debating team procedure (a debate maxim) to lay out the issues in a case. In one observation I made the resolution debated was "Advertising degrades the quality of life in the United States." Four students debated the issue with some initial preparation by Lance. The class followed the debate and they prepared flow diagrams during the debate. The "flow" device allowed students to evaluate the arguments put forward by each side.

In this debate format the Affirmative side started defining the key terms such as "quality of life" from standard reference sources. Then the affirmative laid out the decision criteria. The affirmative side chose the Rawlsian principle that "those least able to protect themselves need protection by the state." They then laid out contentions that supported the negative effects of advertising. At the end of this timed presentation there was a short cross-examination

performed by the opposing pair. Ostensibly, cross examiners seek clarification, but like the legal counterpart (cross examination replaced the medieval trial by fire or torture), the object was to embarrass opponents.

After the cross exam the first negative case debater stated their case. They must accept or deny the definitions and the decision criteria given. During this debate the negative side accepted the Rawlsian principle thereby committing a major tactical error. The negative needed to challenge affirmatives' definition of consumers as weak and that they require protection. This error invalidated much of what they subsequently argued.

The negatives then run through the affirmative's contentions specifying their reply to the points raised. Each side followed standard debate procedure where not mentioning an opponent's point was tacit acceptance of their point. Then the negative side could add new contentions supporting their position that the affirmative side failed to mention. Again there was a cross-examination period. After this the second affirmative speaker then replied to points the negative case made. Finally, the last negative speaker had the option to rebut the whole affirmative case.

In university debating there is a winner and a loser. This was not the purpose in the classroom. This debate stimulated further discussion. After the debate described the class explored Rawls' principle cited in

the debate and his recent amendments contained in a forthcoming Rawls manuscript Lance brought to class.

Analysis Procedures in Business Strategy Class

Action-plan emphasis in analytic procedures.

Colleagues and administrators identified Carol and Lake as interested in ethics. They dealt with ethical issues in strategic planning classes. Depending on the individual case study content ethical issues might play a significant or small part in the case analysis. Lake only taught graduate classes whereas Carol taught undergraduate and graduate classes.

Lake selected case studies that illustrate a topic like "the ethics of leveraged buyouts." He avoided "absolute ethics." Absolute ethical theory "does not help a lot solving problems." He chose maxims influenced by business not moral theory. The use of business theory follows a tradition dating back to Adam Smith. Beyond being the founder of modern business theory Smith frequently underscored the moral underpinning in his writing on economics and business.

Lake was not alone in seeing a gap between ethical theory and practical application. Louis (Western, business ethics) agreed that "there has been an overemphasis of ethical theory." Rawls' ideas on justice may provide the fundamental objective for society. "But what do you tell a

mid-level manager about to make a key decision? Do justice? You have to work on practical problems." These instructors supported my contention that practical ethics classes in professional schools are not direct derivatives of moral philosophy. Lake advocated a practical application maxim influenced by theories from any field. In situation to a three-stage theory of international market growth. In Lake laid the groundwork "approaching it from the perspective of there being several dilemmas that you need to work with." He posed the task to the students as: "I ask them what are you going to do faced with this situation and this decision?" Four graduate student presenters do the analysis normally from textbook case studies. They prepared a twenty minute presentation. Students dressed in business suits and Lake expected that they act in a role, normally company advisors or company executives, which Lake or the students thought appropriate in that case study. Lake said one reason for the oral presentation was his feeling that students needed to present their ideas verbally. This often neglected skill was valuable to the students in business.

Both cases I observed came from the business policy text. First, the presenters gave their interpretation of the facts. In the first observation, which dealt with Kentucky Fried Chicken International, the students laid out the company's purposes in Far East expansion, mainly to the Japanese market. Then the students identified key issues needing resolution and they cited the strengths that the KFC corporation could use to resolve those key issues. Their recommendations for action

covered corporate structural changes and improvements in the international marketing strategy.

After the presentation they took questions. Then Lake completed the case analysis with a summary. Here his main point was to connect the situation to a three-stage theory of international market growth. In this model's framework he suggested that companies need to hire, fire and place personnel according to stage of growth. In the instructor's summary and in one student question was the 10 percent of discussion, Lake had estimated as devoted to ethical issues in our interview. Lake had hoped that students would discuss the ethical issues surrounding hiring and firing based on short-term role requirements rather than employing people for their entire career. Although Lake planned this discussion it did not actually occur.

Lake split the duties for two types of analysis between himself and the student presenters. He took responsibility for the connection analysis. The students concentrated on the action-plan analysis with variable results. The presenters failed to identify that KFC corporation's strength lay in selling chicken the "Colonel Sanders' way." Instead the students accepted with no criticism the case detail that KFC Japan was right to cook fish and hamburgers.

This class observation reinforced my growing impression that student led case discussion added new variables to case teaching. Lake's post observation remarks and my own notes confirmed this presentation was

confused and the presentation did not show great analytic skill. This was why I agreed to return for a second observation on the instructor's invitation.

In the second observation the presenters used the Harvard Business School's "Allied Chemicals" case written in 1979. A recent major chemical spill by an Allied subcontractor resulted in sickness and deaths. The students gave a brief review of pending federal legislation aimed at controlling the chemical industry. Then they recommended the company take certain positions to parts of the pending legislation.

After this reaction to the legislation they presented an alternative to external regulation -- an internal corporate strategy called Total Quality Control (TQC). TQC was a direct response to the subcontractor problem. Under TQC Allied dictated to suppliers and consumers their ethical responsibilities. Allied refused to work with their suppliers or to supply consumers who failed to comply with the company's policy. The students suggested structural changes, new positions, and ideas for Allied's business conduct under this new commitment.

Lake seized on the subcontractor negligence because it raised an interesting ethical dilemma. The dilemma concerned government or industry controlled regulation. He remarked that government regulation sometimes was better than the companies regulating themselves. Industry controlled regulation allowed individual companies to occupy the moral high ground but it could put companies at a commercial disadvantage.

Dow Chemical instigated TQC and Dow had benefitted from some needed publicity. On the negative side effective self-regulation implies sharing secret information with competitors. In those cases government regulation was desirable despite the usual business community's negative rhetoric against it. The government had no commercial interest and they can be relied upon to keep company secrets.

Analysis Procedures in the Three-Step Case Analysis

Students' action-plan analyses in Lake's class stood in direct contrast to the undergraduate strategic business study course I observed. Carol (Our Lady) took a direct teaching approach, questioning students as the lesson unfolded. She recognized that she directed the undergraduate case analysis more than a graduate class. The undergraduate case described the Quaker Oats company's possible expansion into new business areas. This case came from the textbook. Carol's major analytic theme was to uncover the "guiding values of a company." Company values were rarely written down. This meant the case analysis involved investigating the decision history and personalities that guided the company. The instructor inferred the values based on these case details.

Carol described this analytic procedure as value's clarification at a corporate not individual level. A self-confessed "child of the Sixties" Carol took a psychological theory dealing with individual growth and she transformed it into a procedure to analyze companies. "In class we identify and we understand a particular strategic issue facing a company at a particular time." Carol used a values clarification maxim because

"the students need to identify and use an evaluative standard gathered from the case details." Students used that value as a standard to defend the desirability of a variety of proposed responses. "There is no right answer" but Carol stressed that all recommendations must reflect "feasibility and desirability."

Analysis Procedures in the Three Business Schools

Business schools mixed every case analysis type and they used maxims influenced by various theories. Critics within the business schools charge this confusion is evidence that business ethics had no place in the school. In contrast, they could point to doctors' ethical training that confined itself to action-plan analysis with some connection analysis for justification. Ethics in business schools looked messy. However, the order in the medical school resulted from excluding case studies with content medical ethics labeled as "policy issues."

An alternative to the "messy explanation" is that the variance in analysis types and procedures represented effective counter responses to an attractive business model. The free market paradigm promotes rugged individualism and hard-nosed objectivism that are attractive creeds especially in American business schools. The unfettered free market model can trace its roots to Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations" and Thomas Hobbes' pessimistic observations on human nature²⁷. Modern free market

²⁷The model proposed by Adam Smith argued that the free market had an "invisible" guiding hand that exercised moral and economic control over the economy. The free market paradigm accepts Thomas Hobbes'

capitalists and libertarians support this model. The paradigm is not one unified theory or model but the way to represent the economic world.

The free-market paradigm is like the multi-headed Hydra from mythology that requires attack from many directions to counter its effects. Lake attacked the free market paradigm when he used a case that showed where government regulation was preferable to market or industry regulation. This paradigm denies that the government has any place in regulating industry. The free market paradigm writers claim that regulation upsets free market forces and that self-interest alone will eventually curb any pollution excess.

Carol offered an alternate explanation for the force that guides corporations and their managements. Values rooted in the company history and the leading personalities in the company served as a moral compass to corporations. She countered the paradigm's story that profit and responsibility to shareholders were sole guides to corporate decisions and policy.

Maurice suggested, contrary to the free market paradigm's conclusion, that corporations were indeed morally responsible. The ten maxims justified social duties for corporations and for people who work in

assessment that self-interest is the motivation of all human action. Milton Friedman is the leading modern exponent of small government and unrestricted business being self-regulating. This paradigm stands implacably against the Keynesian view that government can and should manage the economy.

them. Colin used a different methodology but he attacked the same set of paradigm ideas.

Millie sets her aim at the paradigm's argument that law defines moral boundaries in business. Her whole course and her chosen case studies explored that area where the law did not act as a good guide. Finally, the team of Louis and Lance explicitly attacked the paradigm's two assumptions that corporations represented morally neutral objects.

A free market paradigm is no "straw man" in the business school; it is a valid position. This paradigm occupies the same role as skepticism in philosophy. Many philosophers devote time and effort defending against skepticism. The point is, if the free market paradigm is to be effectively countered, then it called for many analysis procedures to negate its influence. Ethics instructors felt this model severely restricted moral judgment or reasoning. Business instructors in ethics didn't accept the paradigm's depiction of individual or collective business action that could stand morally unaccountable to others.

Education Analysis Procedures

Foundation courses in education schools cover many disciplines, which influence education. The philosophy of education is an obvious example where students learn about philosophical influences on education. Other foundation courses explored an educational topic from various disciplines' viewpoints, not one discipline's influence on the field.

Analysis in Foundation Classes

Connection emphasis in analytic procedures.

Charles (Our Lady, philosophy & sociology) contrasted two moral maxims, which utilitarian and deontological theories influenced, for his students in an undergraduate philosophy of education class. The two maxims "show how these theories might promote different practical decisions." First, students used the utilitarian maxim to list possible solutions, which accrued the most benefit. Second, students applied the Kantian maxim to the case that decided possible actions that they wanted everybody to pursue as a universal rule. According to Charles, when the student had two lists, one list should appear "more useful to solve a particular practical problem." This instructor applied two analytic procedures to the same case.

Charles used two types of analysis, connection and action-plan analysis, because he perceived a student needs to know "what makes up good evidence and persuasive argument." This interest in evidence and good argument extended to the scholarly writing where Charles specialized in what constituted confirmation in qualitative research. The "two-maxim strategy" echoed an argument he published where metaphors, paradoxes, and dilemmas contain arguments. Charles used the Kantian and the Utilitarian maxims to produce two separate arguments the students compared.

In the graduate sociology course Charles introduced different social theories that raised questions about public education policies. As the syllabus suggested those questions centered on what precisely made up an effective school in an urban setting. He gave the students a chart with data for three different sociological variables (Table 6-1). "How you design the school forms a picture of how you see equality of educational opportunity for example in structural terms." The students wrote an action-plan analysis to build a new "effective" school for one thousand pupils in this hypothetical district. The students undertook that action-plan analysis using an analytic procedure from sociological maxims influenced by Durkhiem, Blau and Brookover. One purpose for the hypothetical school district case study, according to the syllabus, was a connection analysis to the theories of Raymond Boudon.

Table 6-1

Effective Schools Case Study Chart

		STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT						
		MINORITY STUDENTS			MAJORITY STUDENTS			
		High	Low	Sub- total	High	Low	Sub- total	
SES	High	80	20	100	240	60	300	400
	Med.	160	40	200	320	80	400	600
	Low	160	640	800	40	160	200	1000
Total		400	700	1100	600	300	900	2000

Therapeutic emphasis in analytic procedures. The case decided the truth of the allegations. This case suggested the teacher's political Lucas (Western, education law and sociology) explained that "a great concern in my professional life is the ethical posture of teachers toward students." In the two different classes and I observed both he frequently pointed out the hidden agenda, which guided teachers' views about students. A therapeutic type of analysis figured strongly in both classes. Lucas favored a case that "embeds the pieces I want and that give the facts so it elicits the kind of thinking and analysis I am after." By pieces he meant the ethical, legal, or social theories he wanted to connect to the case study details.

In the education law class students got a legal maxim for written action-plan case analysis. The case studies followed a law school analytic procedure but followed the procedure without the lawyers' emphasis on establishing precedent. The instructor spent class time introducing legal presentation and how to read legal case publications. Students formulated and they wrote responses to the case details. The students justified their action-plan citing case law, but they did not interpret the legal precedent they followed a legal maxim. During an introduction to the education law class Lucas explicitly rejected the idea that he trained education students as lawyers.

In one case study a secondary teacher, who was also a prominent local political figure, became embroiled in a sex scandal. A twenty-two year old ex-student claimed that she had a brief relationship with the

teacher just after she graduated. No statement in the case decided the truth of the allegations. This case suggested the teacher's political opponents had encouraged the young woman to come forward. The veteran high school principal also resigned amid allegations of aiding a cover-up in the case.

Lucas wrote the case with two legal principles in mind for a connection analysis. First, this case illustrated the legal principle that assumes the accused was innocent until found guilty in a law court. Second, there was the legal principle of double jeopardy applied to educators found guilty in a law court. Students discussed whether it was appropriate to penalize educators twice for crimes.

The connection of legal principles merged with a therapeutic analysis when Lucas engaged the students in argument. Students gave their opinions on matters and their opinions were then defended or attacked by others in the group. Students inspected their beliefs about any relationship between a teacher's out of class behavior and their in-school effectiveness. The use of a Socratic exchange furthered the instructor's aim that students see case studies as a "critical spectator and not as a hypothesized participant." Lucas used Socratic teaching methods modeled on his legal training. When a law professor interrogates students they look for the student to show critical insight not empathy with the case participants.

Watching Lucas and listening to him talk I was reminded how many instructors model a stance toward the world for students. Most instructors claim they do so but some instructors I observed did it visibly more than others. Lucy (Western) integrated a particular teaching vision into the foundation course. This instructor, like several teacher educators, saw students as desperate for "a set of tricks" to survive teaching. Lucy refused to provide those wanted tricks in a list or notes. Instead, the whole course served as an evolving case study for her students that displayed a moral model of conduct. Lucy's course had case study teaching activities going on while simultaneously managing the class as a cooperative model of teacher-student relationship.

The class used therapeutic and connection analyses on various case studies. For example, students looked at equal funding in Kansas City. They discussed how the funding problem connected with various equity principle interpretations. As they worked through this and other cases students listed personal beliefs and assumptions about various topics in teaching several times. Lucy distributed and discussed those lists throughout the term to map the changes publicly. "Students need to recognize through case analysis they are moral actors who bring a set of assumptions." Students and instructor discussed appropriate evaluation for this self-analysis. The students also did small group research projects on teaching producing case studies. Again, Lucy discussed with each group and the whole class the appropriate assessment each project received.

Lucy and Lucas make an interesting contrast in analytic procedures they gave students. Both instructors aimed for the same analysis types (connection and therapeutic). Lucas used an objective legal maxim consistent with his training as a lawyer. He wrote the case study to elicit from students simplistic or formula-like emotional responses. For example, in the sexual conduct case many teachers and administrators in class immediately concluded this was a simple case deserving moral condemnation. Lucas took those student responses and he described reason to doubt where students expressed certainty with their quick judgments. He connected the legal principle of presumed innocence to the case detail that the teacher stood accused but he was not convicted of any crime. He also confronted the students' beliefs with penetrating questions about how far into private life it was reasonable to impose moral ideals on teachers. Whose standards apply and who should decide those standards? Throughout the course he used the interrogative legal style to sharpen the student case analysis.

In contrast the analytic procedures that Lucy adopted came from a commitment to democratic education². The college teaching showed the same commitments and passion to modeling. The vision of proper conduct in teaching provided a maxim that students saw in action and they could use to analyze student teacher relationships. In the student research project, Lucy involved the students in the decisions about its

²I am constrained by confidentiality commitments to reveal the evidence for Lucy's deep commitment. As noted in Chapter 2 this was one instance where the reader simply has to trust the data were available.

assessment. Lucy consulted individually, with the small groups, and the whole class to find a mutually agreeable way to assess each person's contribution to the research projects. Unfortunately, as Lucy said these consultations exhausted her and they required an enormous "emotional investment" on her part. Students needed careful guidance to respond to this novel procedure. Other work pressures led her to abandon this process, an expedient decision that deeply troubled her because it sent an inconsistent message to students.

The two instructors had therapeutic aims directed at the students' beliefs and dispositions. Lucas used the legal model to confront students' beliefs and intuitions. Lucy used a particular teaching style to show a way of life in the classroom that challenged what the students thought was appropriate. Lucy's difficulties provided evidence of how alien students found this classroom procedure.

In therapeutic case analysis there was a major teaching problem that involved how the instructor gained access to beliefs, dispositions, and mental processes of their students and the people portrayed in the case study. Lucy and Lucas worked with students' mental lives, not the actors' mental lives portrayed in the case study.

The pedagogical problem of access to mental processes among case actors prompted a different response from another instructor. Chris (Our Lady, special education foundations and philosophy of education) wanted the students to reach the mental processes of case participants. The

"logical inability of adult college students to adopt the point of view of the handicapped child" concerned Chris. In the special education class, Chris looked at case studies about blindness. He took the group to a play on blindness as they studied the cases "to illustrate the issues." Chris used literature for the reasons that other disciplines do. In literary work it is acceptable to describe directly for the reader what people are thinking and not leave the reader to infer from the actors actions what those actors think.

Chris claimed theater allowed students to "get into the problem without having to identify with the people in the situation." He used fiction and drama extensively in the special education and the philosophy of education course. He agreed with Bernard Williams' view²⁹ that a person's character is the bridge between a moral principle and a person's action. The actor in fiction provided an accessible and non-threatening working example for the students of character.

Chris team-taught the special education foundations course. His teaching partner was a special education law specialist who supplied the case studies. This instructor described his major responsibility as leading theory discussion. Theory was not abstract moral theory because "that only applies to rational adults." Chris claimed that children generally, and special education students in particular, are not classed as rational adults. Therefore, traditional moral theory has little

²⁹I assume that Chris was referring to views expressed in Williams, B. (1985). *Ethics and the limits of philosophy*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.

application in cases involving children. For Chris, "theory" was "examining closely, concrete actions in the style of the casuists." He used a casuistic analysis procedure to build connections between the case study details and maxims. The procedure started with looking at cases to see what they are a case of, form a maxim or a rule, then related that maxim to their students' experience. Decisions about the maxims adopted are not in his view "personal policy statements but ones, which are socially acceptable."

Chris used fictional actors in case studies as a modern response to the ancient other minds' problem. In factual case studies instructors have to find other ways to describe mental processes, beliefs, and dispositions of actors. One possibility was to portray the actor's behavior and from that description discuss what we can infer about that actor's thinking.

An interesting instance of this inferential approach was Lincoln's video taping to analyze a student's perception that she did not practice a gender bias (Western). The video tape, which the student teacher group analyzed, presented graphic evidence that this teacher candidate did favor males over females in the classroom. Lincoln used empirical evidence to confront this teacher's beliefs and the evidence also fostered collective reflection by the group. This instructor used qualitative research procedures to give the students a research maxim for analyzing cases.

A major reason that Lincoln engaged in a collective appraisal was due to Western's teacher education structure and curriculum. Cohorts and cooperative learning were major themes in this specialized teacher preparation program at Western. Lincoln taught a cohort for the whole year. The three course series looked at four key issues in schools; gender equity, mixed ability cooperative learning, teacher-student interactions, and government interventions in schools. This cohort was in the third and final practice teaching phase when I observed them.

The students conducted observations and experiments in schools. This research explored the practical manifestations of the four issues the cohort studied throughout the year. Students reported the results of their interventions to the class. Under the gender equity issue one student reported her experiments to get boys and girls to play games together during break. This student teacher found that starting a new game, softball, was more successful than trying to insert girl players into an exclusively male basketball game. The class discussed the student teacher's strategy and the alternatives that promoted gender equity.

Case analysis in Lincoln's class looked like collective research. Students gathered empirical evidence. They kept journals throughout the year to record changes in their thinking. Lincoln tape recorded the class sessions and Lucy produced student belief lists grouped under the four topics. He used the tapes as a measure of student's beliefs and dispositions regarding the four topics studied. It is likely that

Lincoln used the data for his own research although I did not ask him if he did.

Lincoln engaged students in all three types of analysis. He encouraged connection analysis in the class and through short case description papers the students had to write. At the action-plan level the students planned and they carried out teaching interventions. The evidence students brought back to the group made raw material for therapeutic analysis that confronted their beliefs.

Lisa (Western, education foundations) saw a need to confront students with their beliefs. That perceived need did not come from a positive theme this special teacher training program promoted but a need that reacted against an undesirable program selection side-effect. Lisa's program admitted academically high quality students whom she judged were victims of their success at school. Lisa found the programs' students often "held children who are six years old fully responsible for whatever academic and social characteristics that they seemed to have." Therapeutic case analysis tested and confronted that belief.

Lisa saw case analysis as "bridging their [students'] experience to another experience." She described her students as predominantly female, white, suburban or small town middle America. She analyzed cases that gave insights into alternate backgrounds such as inner city education or cases dealing with membership in a different ethnic group. Lisa, like Lincoln, saw the group setting as an appropriate one for a

student's personal sense making experience. Each case formed part of a story the instructor was trying to tell. That story was "trying to touch upon a student's compassion not just their mind." Lisa used a learning theory maxim as an analytic procedure on individual cases. Using any medium to hand from video, through literature or factual cases she expanded the experiential base these prospective teachers could draw upon.

Matthew and Morris (both from Eastern, education foundations program) wanted case analysis in Morris's words to "invoke reflection." In Matthew's classes the students' reflection took the form of a political and a research epistemology. Matthew never explicitly said he aimed to connect with any broad social theory. However, he encouraged students to use a Marxist or Critical Theory maxim. This maxim stressed combatting false consciousness in a process similar to what I describe as therapeutic analysis.

Matthew described a case study about Whittle Communications attempt to get into the classroom. He wanted the case analysis to help students "think about how to engage kids in thinking about the nature of knowledge and the epistemological questions." The television company example went beyond the issue of commercialism in the classroom. He wanted students to look at the wider educational agenda, which he suspected lay behind this news program, an agenda Whittle made public later and that had broad implications concerning private industry's role in public education. Whittle's chief executive and founder has started

a company that will offer commercial "public" education. Matthew borrowed from critical theory ideas and methods to provoke student reflection.

Morris in a multicultural education class I observed used small cases drawn from his life to provoke student reflection. At one point he related a story about growing up in a small town. As a minister's son he recalled the local hotel manager used to phone his father to place any black people who asked for rooms. His father apparently knew several "safe accommodations" outside the town limits. Morris reminded the class this was at a time where to insist the hotel put up blacks or to welcome them into his home was dangerous for the family.

The instructor told the story and he expressed his feelings both then and now as he showed the class how cultural attitudes evolved. The story provoked others in this racially mixed class to share their stories and feelings. Morris used himself to model a psychotherapy maxim that produced therapeutic types of analysis from students.

Monk (Eastern, educational foundations) used technology to produce an exchange that analyzed the case study. He designed the widely used computer simulation described in Chapter 5. Monk saw the simulation in its many forms as "trying to get the students to look more critically at themselves and their assumptions. One unexpected advantage for computers with remote terminals was the anonymity it gave students.

Dramatically, in one student's case, the anonymity allowed a prospective teacher to engage in therapeutic analysis in a novel way.

Monk taught an educational foundation class where one student was a prominent ultra-right student leader. Each student in the class reacted either as a teacher or as an educational consultant to the case study described. This conservative student was assigned a liberal educator's role. This meant he formulated a commentary on the case and teacher's suggested solution very different from his beliefs. He told Monk after the simulation ended that the freedom to explore his opponents' point of view had been an important learning experience. It helped this student to appreciate the value and be less dismissive of liberal viewpoints.

Action-plan emphasis in analytic procedures.

Five instructors stressed the action-plan case analysis. Cathy (Our Lady) made the students' case analysis the central activity in her school finance course. Throughout the course the students wrote a policy brief in stages drawing on the ideas Cathy discussed in the course and their personal situation. She called the analysis procedure "a full cultural analysis" inspired by ethnographic research. She explicitly rejected the idea she taught students "proper" ethnographic research because "proper" ethnography required months in the field.

Cathy used the student's case (situation) because it represented the only feasible way for the student to adopt an ethnographic spirit.

Part-time education administration students could not take the essential year off to be "in the field" needed to enter another situation. It is an interesting case of contrasts that she considered it essential for students to work from their situation in action-plan analysis. However, case studies Cathy wrote did not come directly from the students' experience and these cases provided opportunities for a connection analysis to education finance and planning theories.

The cultural analysis or ethnographic maxim had three elements. First students looked at the historical aspects to understand how the situation evolved. Second, the students examined the present environment and they formulated a clear problem statement. Lastly, students analyzed the political aspects; this included identifying the various interest groups that formed temporary working alliances and divisions. A student formulated a policy from this three-part analysis that was feasible for the particular case.

Lyle (Western, education administration) used case studies for connection analysis to organizational theory and to practice action-plan analysis. Furthermore, there was an important general purpose for case study teaching -- the therapeutic analysis. Case analysis had the transformational purpose of "reorienting the student to a new administrative setting." He based case choice on the specific student needs. Lyle gathered the student's background, aspirations, and state of knowledge about organizational theory early in the course.

Lyle chose one case study that involved the Catholic Church. In this study a newly appointed bishop inherits a former mentor as an assistant. The very young bishop and his former teacher hold different theological views and leadership styles that erode the bishop's authority. The assistant is apparently oblivious to any problems and he sees his position as a personal triumphant end in a respectable career. He used this case with a group that was mostly aspiring administrators some who may walk the educational equivalent of the young bishop's path. The case also fulfills Lyle's aim that reoriented students through a case from a religious context unfamiliar to class participants.

In Lyle's case study there are clearly three types of analysis. First, each case required the student to produce an action-plan. Students had the organizational theory framework to influence their decision thinking. Second, the decision process also exposed students to the conflicting possibilities between beliefs they might hold (therapeutic analysis type). Third, the case analysis linked what was described in the study with student reading in organizational behavior and theory. Case analysis introduced students,

. . . to dilemmas between personal loyalty and professional goals. A case study illuminated perspectives that might otherwise be hidden from the student. They [the students] don't like the complexity of thinking more than one way. It is important they be aware there are multiple perspectives even if they do not use them themselves.

Larry (Western, philosophy of education), like Lyle, chose one group of theories for connection analysis but they came from philosophy not organization theory. Larry used action-plan analysis in class

discussions. Case analysis for Larry posed "disconcerting questions that I hope make students formulate a thoughtful position." Various philosophical schools, which Larry described in course notes, helped students justify their action-plan analysis.

After a brief overview of philosophy his syllabus listed John Dewey's pragmatic position. He also discussed authors from both sides of the meritocracy or egalitarian debate. Finally the course examined Existentialism from Sartre and Wheelis and Ferree's Aesthetic position. Larry encouraged students to use a maxim influenced from these philosophical positions to analyze specific case studies.

I observed the class that looked at the introduction of a multicultural curriculum in a school district. The small group discussions focused on formulating an appropriate set of actions. These groups imagined they were school board members faced with laying down guidelines for multicultural teaching activities. A spokesperson reported their group's action-plan analyses to the class.

After the small group discussion the whole class discussed which philosophical position justified the proposed action plans. Larry mentioned how some action-plans apparently favored allowing all views. However, this made the decision maker a relativist because "you see merit in all views which was fraught with practical difficulties." Larry referred to a student reading, which he wrote, where the argument was that relativist theories are psychological not philosophically

founded. "Psychology allowed one to hold inconsistent views but philosophy did not."

The discussion that followed visibly frustrated the teacher and the students as they struggled to resolve the dilemma posed by the case. Students could not find a plan that did not fall under Larry's relativism definition. Several students and Larry argued about the instructor's relativism definition. Larry had warned me before the observation that he expected people to advocate a relativist position. He had used this case study several times and he predicted this response from students in a preobservation interview based on that experience.

This observation strikingly highlights a difficulty with analytic procedures that used maxims. A maxim distills subtle theoretical positions into stark statements. In this case the relativist maxim stated that a relativist cannot criticize any other person's position because they do not recognize any valid standard to assess those positions. They are in relativist's eyes all equally valid.

This relativist maxim Larry gave students ignored various relativist theories, which argue that relativism can criticize certain positions. The work of Bernard Williams, David Wong, Stephen Toulmin, and Stuart Hampshire names just a few moral philosophers who argue in various ways against Larry's relativist maxim. However, Larry and others who work in practical ethics classes cannot explore these sophisticated and difficult positions in the time allotted. A relativist maxim had to state the extreme position just as the Kantian maxim holds that the

outcome is not morally important. A more detailed study of Kantian theory reveals that not all positions exclude any consideration of the outcome.

Marie (Eastern, elementary education) wanted case analysis to expand the students' outlook "to include looking at their [students] assumptions and [the instructor should] be more tolerant of multiple interpretations." An important piece to action-plan analysis was looking at the "potential moral consequences of the choices made in the case study." Case studies portrayed situations that involved the student in making a decision. Different decisions resulted from "putting different analysis frames on a case. What I struggle with now is how many frames you could and should use." Many instructors limited the frames (or possible maxims) to one theory type or discipline influence like Larry. However, Marie suggested many possible types of theory could be used.

Analysis Procedures in Methods Classes

Connection emphasis in analytic procedures.

Louise (Western, English teaching methods) through case analysis "tried to connect particulars to enduring problems." A case that described a student misbehaving was not one situation "managerial problem" that required an isolated decision. Teachers who see a student misbehaving as a one-time event react rather than reflect on any broader meaning the

behavior might show the teacher. The teacher making isolated decisions is letting the situation control them rather than controlling the situation.

The single problem with a student illustrated a wider puzzle contained in "student-teacher relationships." Teacher education "students crave technical tricks" from methods classes. Students want tricks that solved the immediate problem and they see those classroom events as linear and the events unrelated to each other. This student teacher perspective dictated a reactive problem solving response. Louise wanted students engaged in a connection analysis that looked beyond the single situations to wider ethical issues. Louise viewed the student-teacher relationship, as the key ethical issue for teacher preparation programs.

Constance at Our Lady favored connection type analysis to an array of educational theories such as Maslow, Bloom, Kohlberg, and Piaget. She used her teaching as a model, constantly pointing out how something she said or did, linked to these theories. Constance took theories that ranged from children's learning and moral development to teacher management strategies.

The class I observed had teachers completing the required 100 hours of in-school experience. Constance modeled the Madeline Hunter effective instruction techniques when conducting the class. She wrote the lesson plan on the board before class. She organized small group discussions with a loosely defined creative thinking task. In the post-discussion

analysis she linked the activity to Bloom's Taxonomy. The ethical point she made was that teachers should create conditions of respect and trust where their students felt free to allow their thoughts and opinions full range.

Throughout the lesson, Constance mentioned various theories and how they related to the incidents students described. This instructor had a mesmerizing presence as she fired off a theorist's name and then she summarized how this idea related to a situation the student had described.

This instructor's speech pattern was deeply ingrained. In our interview she told me a story about a small groups' discussion of abortion that failed to reach a consensus in the 45 minute class period. Constance told the students: "We are going to follow Montessori, let it rest a while and we have a period of absorption." The next class period they resolved their discussion at least to Constance's satisfaction. She was not content to just tell students the discussion would continue next time. Instead in this instance and in other ones, she seized every opportunity when I saw her to emphasize the connection between what was happening and various theories.

Louise and Constance made a good contrast in the maxims, which influenced their analysis procedures. Louise worked from the assumption student teachers got caught up in isolated and reactive decision making that demanded tricks from the teacher educator. She resisted giving

them those tricks. Louise encouraged the students to use a reflective maxim influenced by the moral qualities implicit in the teacher-student relationship. Constance accepted the student demand for tricks but she only supplied them with an explicit theoretical background -- a series of learning theory maxims so students saw those isolated classroom decisions as influenced by theory and research literature.

Analysis Procedures in the Three Education Schools

Education school analysis procedures had one significant feature, which influenced all three analysis types. The instructors in education considered the student experience in the case analysis. Student experience could be useful, bad, or simply not worth considering.

Instructors emphasized action-plan analysis when they felt the student had useful school experience. They assumed that experienced teachers and aspiring administrators brought potentially relevant knowledge, skills, and dispositions to case analysis. Action-plan analysis unlocked that potentially useful experience. Student experience for this level of analysis represented a positive influence to the instructors' purposes.

The assumption of benign influences from student experience stood in sharp contrast to those instructors who favored the therapeutic case analysis. Instructors assumed student experience probably distorted their analysis. In extreme cases student experience increased the

likelihood of bad practices and beliefs. Therapeutic case analysis gave counter examples to the preservice teacher or the aspiring administrator challenging beliefs and dispositions formed from inappropriate experience.

For preservice teachers that potentially dangerous experience came from their own elementary and secondary classrooms. Instructors expected preservice teachers to embrace very different visions of teaching than what they saw as pupils. Case analysis on the therapeutic level contrasted the students' experience of that kind of teaching with this kind of teaching. It seemed to follow naturally that this kind of teaching contained morally superior ways of treating children. Studying cases of cooperative learning not only convinced the students it was a better way for children to learn but also taught important moral lessons.

In educational administration classes, case analysis reconnected the student to rational legal procedures or organizational theory appropriate for the efficient functioning of an administrative system. Exemplified in Lucas' s class the students' intuitive, quick moral reactions to cases illustrated some important lessons for aspiring administrators. The environment of school administration penalizes the inconsistent who can give no rational basis to support their judgment. As a member of a religious congregation it might be defensible to publicly humiliate and summarily dismiss from the church the suspected adulterous teacher. However, the same church-going school

superintendent must follow a rational, humane, dismissal procedure defensible in law should the need arise.

Those instructors that favored the connection analysis assume students had no experience useful for appreciating the big issues. This case analysis aimed at socializing the preservice teacher to the "big professional picture." Education schools are not unique in assuming student experience has little utility. Medical schools gave little consideration in ethical case analysis to any role but the doctor's. Students don't cite visits they made as a patient to their doctor in case analysis. No student was invited in business strategy classes to use their experience as a shopper to analyze the case study. No other professional school devoted as much time and effort to therapeutic case analysis as education schools countering the potentially negative effects of student experience.

General Impressions of Analysis Procedures Across Schools

Pedagogical Issues Raised by Analytic Procedures

Action-plan procedures.

At least two medical schools, perhaps all three, used case analysis procedures that aimed at improving action-plan analysis. The instructors used procedures that exclude cases involving "medical policy" and they center on preparing the aspiring doctors to make

decisions. Similarly the policy exclusion made students concentrate on justify their decisions with links to a moral theory or principle. Various analytic procedures prepared the student for a decision making role instructors assumed the students were shortly going to assume. Medical ethics instructors emphasized procedures that attended to detail and, excepting some ethical content, generally conformed with analytic procedures used in clinical cases. Education instructors worried about the student demand for "tricks" to solve classroom problems. Should medical ethics instructors worry that their analytic procedures bow to the medical students' unspoken demand for "tricks" to cope with medical practice problems?

Some instructors recognized this problem with their calls for procedures that stressed developing a moral narrative, consistency, and coherence. The medical ethics literature and the data show similar movements away from thinking about isolated principles that applied in one case to procedures that considered a broader view across several cases. The pedagogical difficulty with action-plan analysis is the tendency to focus the students' attention on the problem at hand. Action-plan analysis easily slides into isolated problem solving in whichever professional school setting we consider.

Analysis procedures that aimed at action-plan analysis raise another broad brush pedagogical issue. Instructors described four, five, and six step procedures they encouraged their students to learn. Instructors offered sequences as a general procedure, a template, to

apply to all cases. The problem with a template is that the students soon realize it never fits the case particulars. Students who follow the sequence get caught in the rhythm of the process. If the aim was a connection type analysis to some broad theory this posed no problem. Each individual case, which represents a practical illustration of a general understanding, is expected to have inconvenient or messy details.

Template procedures like most theories share the ability to ignore or absorb inconvenient and ill-fitting details. We could tell students that in addition to following the four, five or six ill-fitting steps they should follow a rule that considers all relevant factual details. The student will ask quite reasonably how they recognize relevant from irrelevant details, perhaps the instructor gives them another procedure to distinguish between the two types of detail. In an action-plan analysis the individual details that vary in each case can be morally significant. The student's task is suddenly very complex when the template approach promised simplicity as well as generalization among cases! For example in our suspected PVS patient's case each individual case provides a multitude of potentially significant details. Students intent on fitting some template may obscure or ignore a significant detail because they rely on the "general application" such template procedures promise.

Therapeutic procedures.

Business and education classes spent time with procedures that sensitized students. These sensitizing procedures associated with therapeutic analysis pose a considerable evaluation problem for instructors. What is good evidence that the analytic procedure the instructor followed was successful?

The analytic procedures followed suggest three distinct types of access to minds resulted from case study teaching and so conceivably needed evaluation. First, students were given analytic procedures that showed the instructor what the students were thinking. This "showing what students think" raises a host of fairly obvious and difficult issues for the instructor. Second, the procedures gave the students access to the minds of people depicted in the case. Does any evaluation simply lock me into the infinite interpretation spiral where any version is as good as the next? Third, the procedures gave students a look at the instructor's mind, at their beliefs and dispositions. Why complicate the problem with case studies? Why not tell students your views directly?

Connection procedures.

Connection analyses raise a significant pedagogical dilemma. One horn of that dilemma for the professional school educator is socializing or convincing the students about the unique authority for the professions

expertise. This authority lies at the core of any occupation that aspires to professional status. In case analysis this core value suggests analytic procedures where instructors "show and tell" novices. Making the instructor the profession's classroom representative gives them with major responsibility for directing student learning in traditional didactic teaching models. Other teaching methods are possible but they are less attractive because they are "inefficient" and they are more open to student control and questioning.

The second horn of the dilemma lies in the instructor recognizing that students may not play a passive role in their learning. For example, some instructors accepted constructivist learning theory and they had difficulty reconciling that with the core value of expert authority. The concern led some instructors to apply procedures influenced by multiple frameworks and perspectives. This confronts the student with a confusing and shifting list of possible candidates for case analysis. Teaching ambiguity and uncertainty is difficult in a professional school that supposedly empowers students with expertise authority³⁰.

³⁰This second part of the dilemma dealing with ambiguity and uncertainty is where bitter inter-education school ideology wars are being fought. Armies in this war include; those who believe that the answer lies in applying research into efficient classroom practices, aesthetic or moral perspectives applied to schools, empowering school teachers who really know what goes on in classrooms and others. I see business school instructors shaping up for a similar ideological battle with only two contenders -- business ethics and integrated ethics approaches. Only the medical schools have so far avoided the battle.

Analysis procedures that allowed students to control or direct their learning involved instructor risk taking. Some instructors used summaries to draw students' attention to significant themes after the student analysis. Others opted for a guided discovery approach where the instructor guided or they coached the students before the actual presentation. Finally, instructors used procedural devices during student presentations like debates or machines such as computers to control what and how students learned.

My favorite analogy about analysis procedures comes from Boehrer and Linsky (1990) and it captures the instructor's pedagogical dilemma. Case analysis resembles bringing a scattered group of parachutists together not marching an orderly band of hikers over a well-defined route. In connection analysis many instructors like the idea of directing the hikers across the wilderness but they show less enthusiasm to lead the parachute group.

Ethical Issues Raised by Analytic Procedures

Apparently each type of school and the instructors within those schools had a particular vision of what students learned from case analysis. The descriptions suggest rich content for future cross-professional methodological discussions. For example, the use of quasi-experiments in social engineering by student teachers raises some interesting ethical issues. Suppose a business student performed a gender equity experiment where she worked. Such an experiment probably invites no

comment when applied to children in school but it might be very different manipulating adults in the workplace? Maybe there is an ethical concern about children being manipulated for training purposes?

Another ethical issue raised by these procedures received scant attention from instructors. Many instructors used procedures where they exposed the student's personal sense making to public scrutiny. University student counseling departments have recently raised questions about instructor demands that elicit potentially embarrassing admissions from students. Now the debate concerns journal writing in English classes but it has obvious ties to some procedures described here. Asking a medical student to write an ethical case study could place that student in either an uncomfortable predicament or a legally precarious position depending on the subject matter. Professional reflection like any other procedure is not without potential hazards.

Maxims Distinct from Principles

Across the different schools the data suggested a distinction between theory representing a body of knowledge and those theories inspiring a maxim used in a case analysis procedure. The maxims resembled the theory because they share the language but they clearly represent a way to gain insight into cases, not an insight we draw from the case. Sharing a theory's language increased the maxim's persuasive power. One clear example was Maurice, the business ethics instructor. Inspired by moral and social theories he formulated ten maxims as ways to analyze

cases. Generally, instructors took various bodies of knowledge, not just moral theory, and they formulated analytic procedures based on maxims to analyze the case study.

Imagine that a moral principle is like a screwdriver whose purpose we know. A carpenter and a moral philosopher make similar sounding arguments to describe the purposes of screwdrivers and the moral principles. Screwdrivers can also be used to open paint cans and to stir the contents. The carpenter protests about screwdriver abuse. People opening paint cans are using the tool for a purpose it was not designed for and that echoes the moral philosophers complaint that practical ethics abused the moral principles. There is little to say to defend the theorists' charge that principlism represents moral theory misuse except challenge the carpenter's and philosopher's authority.

However, there is an alternative that the screwdriver is no longer a screwdriver. The tool we call a "screwdriver" is now a can opener, paint stirrer, or whatever else, transformed by the context where it is used. The maxim looks like a moral principle but it is used in practical ethics not in moral theory. There is no "essential screwdriver essence" that transports itself context free and that decides a screwdriver can only be used to turn screws. Carpenters might be upset but that does not prohibit a new use for the tool or its effectiveness in a different context.

These maxims found in analytic procedures are "screwdrivers" used as paint stirrers. Practical ethics provides a new context and that context transforms a moral theory's principles into something else a maxim. An example of a maxim operating was an analysis procedure that generated professional duties. Moral principles that state we should formulate duties that apply to all, serve no useful function in case study analysis. There is no attempt to universalize those duties to everybody as the Kantian principle dictated. The maxim suggested the opposite strategy that we find the duty most appropriate in that particular case. Instructors hoped the maxim that we look for morally appropriate duties transferred to other cases.

The professional ethics literature is filled with descriptions of the relationship between theory and practice. Scholars acknowledge this as central challenge for practical ethics. Different theories suggest different principles and rules in each case but nobody has devised a widely accepted method for ranking those principles that definitively showed which is best in each case. These data suggest an alternate relationship between theory and practice represented in a case study -- separate worlds with identifiable influences on each other.

There are two other views about the relationship between theory and practice. The first alternative is to view practice as an imperfect mirror, pale imitation, or a caricature of pure theory. This alternative is attractive to moral philosophers who do not work in the practical ethics field. Philosophers see what goes on in a professional

or a practical ethics class as "applied ethics." From their viewpoint what goes on in case analysis is an "abuse of moral theory."

There are survey data gathered more than twenty years ago that supports a mythology about professional ethics. The myth tells us ethics instructors working in professional schools' lack knowledge of moral theory. The case analyses described here do not suggest the people lacked theoretical knowledge. Case analysis does not emerge from these descriptions as some poorly run moral theory class. Chapter 7 presents more data showing instructors come from strong theoretical backgrounds including a large number from moral philosophy.

An alternate view to this theory-practice relationship is to reverse it, claiming that case study specifics generate maxims and that by locating the maxims on some topical map we gain an understanding of professional ethics. A few instructors favored this casuistic view but it hardly wins universal approval. The data fail to support either alternative to the theory-practice relationship. Yet, the two alternative ways to see the theory practice relationship clarify two key elements in case study analysis. Theory influences the maxims, which provide a way for students to gain insights into a particular case study. Casuistry reinforces the importance of case study details to students and those details make a case analysis interesting or challenging.

Reference

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CHAPTER 7 THE INSTRUCTOR BACKGROUND'S INFLUENCE ON ETHICAL CASE ANALYSIS

Introduction

Chapter 6 on the analytic procedures adopted in ethical case analysis showed a counter-intuitive result. When looking at cases instructors did not universally apply principles and ideas from moral theory to the practical cases. If the intuition had been confirmed by the data it is easy to argue that good ethics instructors were always moral philosophers interested in applied ethics. The fact that instructors used procedures from other fields suggest we examine two possible sources for those ideas. This chapter takes a detailed look at the instructors' backgrounds.

Instructors bring assumptions and ideas to case analysis that manifested themselves in how they approached case teaching. A sociologist used a model from that discipline to teach about different financial arrangements that could exist in schools. An instructor with psychological training engaged students in psychotherapy to explore attitudes about race.

Early ethics teaching surveys from professional schools showed instructors with limited experience or qualifications taught professional ethics. The story forms a chain. First, inexperienced instructors who expressed a high enthusiasm for moral issues taught ethics. Second, instructor inexperience relegated ethics to the margins of the professional school curriculum. Third, the schools expressed low institutional interest in ethics so, we expect nontenured faculty members involved in ethics teaching. Finally, as these instructors attained senior rank they stop teaching ethics especially where there was no institutional enthusiasm.

However, these data cast doubt on a direct link between moral theory and practical ethics. The question then becomes what counts as suitable qualification and experience to teach professional ethics? One candidate for suitable instructor experience might be a strong grounding within the subject matter in the profession's field. Professional fields represent specific practice knowledge such as school personnel administration or accounting practices. This argument assumes that a subject matter background allows ethics instructors to appreciate the technical and the ethical complexities of practical situations.

Ethics instructors could have a background in another discipline not experience in the professional field knowledge. Moral theory historically played a prominent role in practical ethics. Perhaps a background in philosophy might be good experience for teaching practical ethics. Many moral philosophers advocate philosophy's benefits.

However, many professional schools set up their ethics programs and they did not rely on what the philosophy department offered. This suggests that philosophers' advocacy of their discipline might be self-serving.

A final candidate for appropriate instructor experience is spending time as a practicing professional outside academic life. Instructors mentioned how important it was to be personally credible and to present cases that were credible. Experience as a doctor, a chief executive officer in business or a classroom teacher might contribute to both forms of required credibility. Ethics instructors could draw on personal recollections for case study examples and use workplace experience to select case studies they judge as realistic.

Other surveys suggest that ethics enjoys high individual interest within professional school instructors but low institutional interest.

Although there may be individuals committed to ethical issues the professional school as an institution offers few incentives to pursue that interest. As this chapter deals with instructor backgrounds the main focus is on the individual interest question. Instructors explained their interest in moral issues as they described how they became involved in ethics teaching.

The formulation, "institutional indifference coupled with high individual interest" in ethical issues resonated with a general theme in higher education. Observers of curriculum development in higher education claim university departments add new courses to existing

programs as they are proposed. An additive strategy avoids faculty warfare resulting from instructors justifying the exclusion and the inclusion of various program elements. Simply adding courses avoids the difficult alternative of reaching a departmental or a school-wide consensus on a cohesive curriculum. Professional school faculty surveys show high individual instructor interest in ethics. Therefore, it is plausible the schools indulge individuals where possible, accord ethics a place in the curriculum and so avoid friction.

Each story blends into a wide self-sustaining pattern of explanation in a specific professional school setting. For example, a business school adds a course on accounting ethics because the state certified public accountants (CPA) association and the legislature requires it for certification³¹. A newly hired faculty member in business law develops the course after expressing an interest in ethics to a colleague. There is no mandate for the instructor to give a grade under the certification requirements. This pass-fail arrangement isolates the course as the only compulsory course graded that way in the business schools' accounting program.

This chapter explores how data on instructor background support or refute this picture of ethics teaching. Is ethics a distraction

³¹ In an educational environment legislatures and a state board of education had a major influence shaping and controlling the curriculum. The state board of education is the equivalent of a professional licensing board in other fields such as in this fictional example for CPA's or real state bar associations that are a major influence on legal education.

indulged by the professional school to satisfy some faculty's intellectual curiosity or the school's response to external regulation? Who are the people who teach ethics and what motivated them to get involved in the subject?

Instructor Backgrounds

Instructor Qualification and Experience

One prominent story was that professional school instructors felt unqualified to teach ethics. Apparently instructors lacked a sufficient background in ethical theory and therefore they avoided teaching ethics. Professional rewards lay in teaching and in writing about the "hard facts" in technical subjects. In contrast practical ethics represented a soft subject for instructors that dealt with personal opinions. In a world where not all facts are created equal, "soft ethical facts" infected with personal opinion are best avoided. Only young instructors could be coerced to teaching the ethics course as a possible step to tenure and to gain a secure foothold in the department.

The faith in a natural progression from traditional moral theory³² to practical ethics disappeared in the 1960's. It is true that many people, represented in Table 7-1 had a philosophy background. However, no data supported the idea that philosophers made the best ethics

³²I use "traditional moral theory" here as shorthand for the three major streams of moral thinking -- Kantian, Utilitarian, and Communitarian.

instructors. On the contrary, philosophers in medical schools, for example, recognized they lacked medical subject matter knowledge that hindered case analysis. Western University responded to the knowledge deficit with a practitioner (to supply the medical knowledge) team teaching the major ethics course. Other instructors, with the philosophy background, described how over the years traditional moral theory played a decreasing role in case study analysis. Lewis (Western, medical) described himself as part of this movement "from foundational [he mentioned specifically a moral theory foundation] to a casuist approach."

Insert Table 7-1 about here

The Responsibility for Ethics Teaching Falls to Experienced Instructors

The first row of Table 7-1 provided grounds to suspect the assertion that ethics instructors were novices. Most instructors had at least five years of university teaching and many taught ethics all of their careers. Senior instructor involvement suggested their personal interests were institutionally tolerated. Individual careers showed a long association with ethics programs that dated from the program's introduction 20 to 30 years ago.

These nine professional schools, do not support the claim that ethics instruction was the domain of the inexperienced faculty member. However, these data suggested a danger in concluding a secure future for

Table 7-1

Possible Measures of Experience and Qualification Among Professional School Ethics Instructors

	Education	Business	Medicine
Instructor experience university teaching	8 veterans 4 experienced 3 novices 3 missing data ----- N = 18	6 veterans 1 novice 1 missing data ----- N = 8	3 veterans 3 experienced 1 novice 2 missing data ----- N = 9
Instructor academic background [individuals had more than one degree]	2 Philosophy 3 Theology 1 Law 4 Social Science 4 Ed. Administration 2 missing data	3 Philosophy 1 Theology 2 Law 1 Political Science 1 Economics 1 Engineering 3 Business Administration	5 Philosophy 1 Political Science 1 Science 1 Literature 3 Medical
Instructor professional experience [individuals had multiple workplace experiences]	10 administrators or teachers 3 curriculum developers 1 educational psychology 1 lawyer 2 No workplace experience 2 missing data	2 business administration 1 manufacturer 1 lawyer 3 No workplace experience 1 missing data	3 doctors 6 No workplace experience

Note.

Veteran university teacher = more than 15 years (probably full professor)

Experienced = Between 5 and 15 years (probably associate and tenured)

Novice = Less than 5 years (maybe assistant non-tenured professor)

ethics teaching. There were very few inexperienced instructors represented. Today's novice instructors secure the future for ethics programs in professional schools. The data for these nine schools could show a possible decline in ethics instruction as veteran instructors retire without replacement. Conversely, we can infer from Table 7-1 that novice instructors formed a small percentage of the ethics instructors identified in these nine schools.

Medical schools.

As individual instructors traced their careers, they described their involvement in the ethics program development in medical schools. Cliff (Our Lady) had started medical ethics departments in two medical schools. Lewis (Western, director) was a student Cliff trained. Lewis started the medical ethics program at Western. Martin (Eastern) was the modern pioneer at that medical school and he had recently achieved department director status.

Each medical school had a varied institutional history. However, most instructors got involved in ethics teaching during the pioneer days dating from the late 60's. Several ethics instructors interviewed started medical ethics programs at various locations. Medical ethics instructors told stories suggesting there was a meeting of institutional and their personal interest in ethics, which led to their involvement.

Business schools.

In the three business schools ethics was clearly an experienced instructor's domain. Colin, Christine, and Carol, at the business school of Our Lady, were represented to me as the instructors who dealt with ethical content. Only Carol represented a younger instructor, unfortunately; I do not know exactly how long she had taught in a university setting.

At Eastern Millie represented a visiting instructor who taught ethics fulfilling a teaching contract in the Business Law department. Maurice was a full professor with a long history teaching ethics. At Western all three instructors had taught ethical issues for a long time. Most instructors claimed they joined the business school in part because of their interest in ethics teaching.

Education schools.

Eleven out of eighteen instructors in education schools, identified as dealing with ethical issues through case study, had more than five years' experience³³. The diffuse nature of responsibility for teaching ethics undermined the seemingly impressive numbers of veteran instructors in education schools. There was no significant structural

³³ I do not claim that only eighteen instructors taught ethics in education schools studied. Some instructors taught ethics but did not use case studies, others wrote about ethics with case studies but did not teach. Unlike any other school in education schools responsibility for ethics teaching was difficult to identify.

reinforcement for teaching ethical content. The large numbers could simply represent personal expressions of interest in ethics.

Philosophy or Theology as Required Background

Row two of the Table 7-1 highlighted another candidate for significant instructor experience. In each school type there was a strong representation of philosophy and theology. A direct link between moral theory and practical ethics might not be there. However, teaching ethics in a professional school setting still attracted instructors with a strong philosophical or theological background. The professional school setting attracted theologians or philosophers interested in what philosophical writers call practical or applied philosophy.

However, the same attraction to practical ethics held for people with other backgrounds. In medicine appearances in row two are deceptive concerning the five of nine instructors with philosophy in their backgrounds. Some medical ethics instructors held multiple degrees from various fields. Cliff (Our Lady) had a scientific and philosophical background. Lewis (Western) was a philosopher and a doctor. Martin (Eastern) studied political philosophy, not ethical theory, before becoming interested in medical ethics. Many instructors had philosophy in their experience but it hardly counted as the deciding factor in their being ethics instructors.

Professional Field Experience as Required Background

A credible idea is that all these instructors share a common background in practical applications of theoretical knowledge. This makes ethics instructors similar in many respects with others teaching in the professional school. I suspect that if one asked most instructors why they taught in a professional school their answer would mention improving practice through theory application.

The interest in this interface between professional practice and abstract theory might explain a common instructor recruitment pattern. One source of faculty for professional schools was from the ranks of the profession itself. Maurice (Eastern, business) operated an engineering business for many years. Several instructors in each school either had professional experience or they continued to practice in medicine. Teaching in a professional school, after or concurrently with professional practice, was common.

It seems reasonable that a former professional's interest might lie in some theory's practical application. Case analysis, a dominant mode in ethics teaching, represented an attractive teaching area choice to such people. Case analysis for instructors presented the possibility of considering some insight from theory in an interesting practical situation that they as ex-professionals may have experienced.

School Specialist Fields and Disciplines as Required Background

Row two (Table 7-1) shows many ethics instructors had qualifications based on the school's field. Not all instructors combined that qualification with some workplace experience. Those fields included qualifications in education or business administration and medicine.

This leaves those instructors from a particular disciplinary background such as sociology or history. Row two shows strong representation of certain disciplinary fields notably philosophy, theology, law, economics, and political science. There is no ethics instructor who described themselves as having a disciplinary background in mathematics, geography, or history.

Philosophy is not a necessary and sufficient experience for practical ethics teaching.

Why is there this mixed pattern in the ethics instructors' backgrounds? The mixed pattern showed that the intuition was not supported, which says that all ethics instructors had to have a background in philosophy and specifically moral theory to teach ethics. There are instructors with philosophy backgrounds but that background sometimes did not include philosophical ethics. Other instructors coupled a philosophical qualification with other prerequisites, which might count of equal worth with philosophy, when considering relevant experience. It is difficult to assert with any conviction on these data that philosophy or theology

represent a key qualification for professional school ethics instruction.

The Gap Between Theory and Practice in Disciplines

One common characteristic between instructors' background disciplines was a large gap between theoretical descriptions and actual practices. Economic theory whether at the macro or the micro level constructs explanatory models that bear little resemblance to the world as most of us see it. Philosophical or theological metaphysics by definition do little to fit reality's messiness. Models, principles, and ideas in the theoretical world get their strength from a technical-rational and a value-neutral way of looking at things. Strong theory aims at the universal, covering the individual differences for particular situations.

An instructor from economics, philosophy, or political science might find intellectual challenge in applying their theoretical understandings on the practically inclined professional school world they work in. Lorraine and Lorne (Western), both philosophers, claimed their interest in medical ethics at least in part stemmed from the intellectual challenge. This challenge idea established a possible commonality between those with a disciplinary degree like philosophy and those with a professional field degree like business administration. All instructors shared a common interest in the practical application that a

case study represented whether their background contained more theoretical or more professional experience.

Case analysis represented one way to make some connection, however tenuous and temporary, to practical situations faced in the day-to-day life of the professionals they train. But the question still remains why ethical case studies or at least case studies with ethical content? The evidence for looking at ethical case studies may rest on the nature of the professional subject matter and the special case of legal training. The ethical perspective provided a way for instructors to rank and evaluate potential solutions to case studies that the value free technical-rational view could not match.

The Nature of the Professional Subject Matter

Medical subject matter.

Medical science represents a limitless and ever-increasing database of facts. Several ethics instructors pointed out how this technical-rational body of knowledge threatened to overwhelm those trying to learn and apply professional skills. One teaching strategy open to the instructor to impose a semblance of order was for the instructor to focus on ethical issues in particular cases.

Medical ethics case analysis looked like clinical decision making.

However, lying in the background in many case studies was an ethical

problem created by change in technical and medical knowledge. Case discussion recognized that the technical-rational view created the ethical problem but no instructor suggested doctors be medical Luddites and that doctors smash or reject the technology. Instructors focused on ethical features. This allowed them to handle the technology, which created the ethical difficulty, without advocating the suppression of any technical advance. Looking at technology's ethical aspects asserted a control over a state of affairs instructors saw as uncontrollable.

In ethical case analysis Lewis (Western, medicine) described a case that illustrated, among other things, the technical advance problem. The case involved a 90 year-old woman in a nursing home suffering from a bowel obstruction. At first she refused the surgery option the doctor suggested, then for some reason she changed her mind. After the surgery her condition rapidly deteriorated and she was maintained in a vegetative state by a respirator (no upper brain function, an irreversible condition). The family and doctor then faced the decision of when to comply with the lady's wish and they turn off the machine if "she could not get back to useful function."

Lewis presented this case to explore the boundary between a physician-assisted death and the doctor allowing a patient to die. He asked the audience whether a doctor who turned off the respirator helped that patient in their death. One answer, by some medical ethicists, recommended that the doctor switching off the machine was not convincing evidence of intent by the physician to help death occur. He wanted to

examine this justification through discussion to see if the established literature engaged in semantics or if it described a reasonable ethical position.

Lewis observed wryly the audience rejected his enquiry. They wanted to talk about the chain of decisions leading to the point where switching off the machine was the last decision in every sense. They claimed that the woman had her autonomy attacked when the doctor disregarded the original wish and he had argued for the aggressive surgery option. Lewis admitted this experience really made him consider the "futility of treatment" question.

Technology and knowledge advance creates many potential options. However, the purely technical-rational solution took no account of this woman's original preference. The technical possibility instead of increasing the degrees of freedom in her choices limited it. After she took the doctor's advice and she had the surgery the patient lost the ability to make further choices. Once the patient agreed to the surgery she was on a path where others controlled the eventual outcome.

In this woman's case the technical-rational view offered potential options. It is an established practice that doctors list those options to patients. Unfortunately, this option list created in the technical-rational sphere did not come with any way to order or to evaluate it beyond statistical probability. The doctor's information (giving the patient an unordered list) significantly altered the patient's risk

perception. One can question the desirability of doctors altering the patient's risk perception here. This was what Lewis's audience intuitively wanted to do with this case study.

Lewis overlooked the doctor telling the patient the options. He had assumed this had little moral significance. He presented the case as a single decision point after the surgery with no influencing history or significant prior decisions. Unfortunately, the technical-rational view favors single point decisions ignoring or minimizing less substantial but important features. Was the doctor aware of the impact that laying out all the options had on this patient? Could the doctor give those options in an ethically justifiable manner? Here the doctor's action took little account of the expressed preference of a 90 year-old woman. Is the option discussion different with 19 year-old patients? We have no way to know if the patient's original refusal of treatment and her subsequent change of mind was rationally based or not; the case details do not tell us. Even if we did, what difference could that make?

The case study showed why the ethical viewpoint attracted medical ethics instructors. Ethically significant details such as age, and the expressed wishes of patients, overcame the problem the technical-rational sphere created. The moral details resonated with the health professionals duty to show care and respect for patients: A compassion that guides a doctor to look beyond administering their technical skill because the doctor using that skill does not necessarily produce what the patient sees as a desirable outcome.

Business subject matter.

In the business field the technical-rational solutions manifest themselves as part of what I have called the free-market paradigm. This technical-rational view created discomfort in many business ethics instructors. An instructor who confined case analysis to the economics alone found the objective analysis restricting not broadening the exchange between themselves and their students. The technical-rational view stops conversation about a company decision to relocate before it starts.

Maurice (Eastern) showed a video of the Green Giant Corporation moving their vegetable processing operation from California to Mexico. As a solution this move made impeccable economic sense. Green Giant shareholders could praise management's decision to increase profitability. The company greatly reduced labor costs. Freedom from United States labor and pollution control laws also increased potential profits. Mexico offered abundant cheap water compared with their old California processing plant where the company competed for and paid for scarce water resources. Close to the border the new plant did not significantly increase transport costs back into the U. S. market.

There is a feel of Weber's iron cage logic in this free-market inspired justification in the Green Giant case study. In several business ethics classes I observed students often stopped analyzing cases after they made the economic analysis. For Green Giant the technical-rational

model promoted as its only possible justification the inevitable logic that reduced labor costs dictated company action. The Mexican workers' \$2:00 per hour is less than the \$7:50 paid in California.

When Maurice introduced value considerations then the relocation decision looked less attractive. Maurice's intervention reopened the rapidly stagnating class discussion. The ex-employees are now social burdens on America's welfare system with little hope of regaining equivalent work and pay. Freed from American labor laws in Mexico, Green Giant hired fourteen year-old children to maximize the low wage advantage. The ample and cheap water supply was available because the surrounding city rationed water to its inhabitants. Without arguing the particular merits of Green Giant's actions the general point is that the ethical perspective engaged the students in a broader discussion.

Education subject matter.

Medicine and business had some established technical-rational models to suggest potentially value free actions. In medicine and business cases a technical-rational view supplied solid looking possible actions whereas ethics expanded the supposedly inevitable solutions. Medical and business ethics instructors described their role as expanding case analysis around the technical problem in medicine and beyond technical considerations in business.

Education instructors rejected the idea that a technical-rational answer free of value was possible. Many education instructors I interviewed argued that everything about teaching involved ethical considerations. For education the ethical view supplied solidity to the profession and the technical-rational viewpoint was more fluid.

Two instructors, Morton (Eastern) and Cathy (Our-Lady), both taught school finance courses. Both used a case study to explore with their students how funds are equitably distributed in a school district. The ethical principle of financial equity or justice is clearly the same. The technical-rational foundation did not exist resulting in students learning very different technical knowledge in the two classes.

Morton: I use the State of --- at the tail end of the finance course. In a computer simulation the students sit and use the data as a case study. Here is what a particular state decided. The case described the nature of those decisions. What effect those decisions had in the distribution of resources to school districts.

Morton took the macro view and constructed the case study accordingly. He explained the state-wide case study as an introduction to how school districts and other interests influenced legislative decisions. Obviously, the technical-rational model pictured policies originating in the legislature and those policies trickling down through various transformations to the school district level. Contrast this with Cathy's micro view of policy formation.

Case studies describe the organizational structure problems in the formal sense. We use a case study to identify problem solving at a cultural level. Students also see problem solving by case study at the political level. I do

this because I want them in their policy brief [case study] to identify the problem requiring resolution at the school district policy level. We are going to change the policy but we first have to understand what is the problem. One thing I try to point out to students is that a good administrator knows how to be a problem identifier not a problem solver. You can always identify alternate solutions or approaches to problem solving but first you have to have a crisp and a clear identification of the problem.

I generally point out at the beginning of the course how an administrator rewrites solutions and facts and how they state them as problems. For example, 'what we need in this district is more parental involvement' that is a fact stated as a problem. What is more parental involvement going to do? What problem is it going to solve? Is there a particular level you talking about, the kindergarten level or preschool, the intermediate grades, the high school level? What type of involvement we are focusing on for example, the Boosters Club or parent volunteers in the classrooms? If they are classroom volunteers, are they full teacher aides or simply monitors of student progress for the teacher? When you say that more parent involvement is wonderful you haven't solved the problem. All you have done is add more bodies to a space.

We need to start dealing with those issues. I am not going to have administrators going out there and looking at budgetary issues and they are not good at identifying the real location of the problem. To use the resources effectively, efficiently, and equitably they have to understand where the problems are in resource allocation.

In this contrast I do not want to argue which approach to policy is correct or better. Instead, notice that both instructors identified a single ethical maxim influenced by a combination of a justice theory and a principle of equity. The ethical viewpoint was clearly defined in contrast with the divergent technical explanations about how educational policy gets formulated and enacted.

Veteran instructors well-versed in the drawbacks associated with technical-rational solutions might find ethical viewpoint in business

and medicine attractive. The common thread among medical and business ethics instructors was an uneasiness with the purely technical viewpoint that was efficient, value-free, and that expressed an outcome only as a probability. In the education school a similar uneasiness centered on the technical-rational view but that uneasiness went beyond individual instructors.

There is a temptation to conclude that ethics was everywhere.

Therefore, ethics was nowhere in the education schools. An alternate interpretation is that generally education instructors see the ethical foundation as established when surrounded by contradictory and conflicting technical-rational actions.

The special case of a legal background.

There was further support for the idea that the ethical viewpoint--distinct from a moral theory background--attracted instructors. This came from the three ethics instructors with a legal background. In business and education instructors with a legal background described ethical case studies as a logical extension into an area that aroused their curiosity. Much of what forms legal knowledge comes directly from case law (case studies). An important skill in legal education is formulating the principles and the rules suggested by careful case analysis. These three instructors all mentioned their fascination with the gray area beyond legal knowledge where ethical issues played an

important role. Their legal training suggested case study analysis extended to that gray area beyond established case law.

General Conclusions About Subject Matter

The most important pattern in instructor background was the relationship between the technical-rational models and the ethical viewpoint. This relationship varied across the various schools. In the medical schools ethics instructors used the ethical content in case studies to resolve the dilemmas created by advances in medical knowledge. The ethical issues in a case provided a measuring instrument. Ethics gave doctors an adequate way to choose between actions where objective medical knowledge only suggested actions and their probabilities of success.

In business schools the ethical viewpoint enlarged what otherwise might be a restricted monologue. The technical-rational view seemingly points to one efficient course of action. If that really described the situation instructors could simply tell their students the correct answer and show them the financial data to justify the decision. Introducing ethical content into case studies immediately enlarged the potential for discussion. Morally inspired considerations allowed the exploration of avenues that diverged from the single path to efficiency and maximized profit.

In education the ethical viewpoint provided an established foundation that manifested itself throughout the school. Education instructors

considered the ethical aspects of a case to cope with the uncertainty of possible technical-rational solutions. Medicine and education shared their disquiet about the objective side of knowledge and yet both reacted very differently to that disquiet. Medicine sought instructors from philosophy and from its own ranks to consider ethical issues in isolation. The education school placed the responsibility for ethics teaching on everybody but that responsibility fell especially to those teaching foundations courses.

Instructor's Workplace Experience

Row three (Table 7-1) showed ethics instructors had anything from extensive to no workplace experience. Many ethics instructors in medicine had no medical training or medical work experiences. Schools of education had the largest proportion of instructors with extensive school experience as teachers or administrators. These data do not show that an extensive workplace background was a significant factor in becoming an ethics instructor.

This study by design was silent about case study teaching effectiveness. However, ethics instructors confessed in the middle of case analysis that their lack of workplace experience was a disadvantage. No workplace experience probably was less of an issue with veteran instructors. Their extensive classroom teaching provided vicarious work experience making them sensitive to subtleties of a workplace.

At best, work experience might give valuable insights in an ethics case analysis. It is equally possible that the same experience could blind the instructor to the broader picture. The workplace experience could focus the instructor's attention on details that obscured a wider analysis. Whichever outcome applies, in a specific case, tells us more about that individual's intellectual capacity than the nature of that experience itself.

How Instructors Got Involved in Ethics Teaching

Instructor involvement in medical ethics.

All nine medical ethics instructors expressed an intellectual interest in ethics. Several instructors attributed personal involvement in medical ethics to their interest and their circumstance. Individual stories varied but no less than five instructors identified "luck" as playing a major part in how they became involved in ethics.

Lorne (Western) was typical when he described himself as "being at the right places at the right time when medical ethics became a legitimate topic." We could take this at face value and dismiss these accidents of history as idiosyncratic. However, many ethics instructors in the professional schools came from a cohort that entered tertiary education in the late 60's and early 70's. It seems more than "luck" or coincidence that the history of modern medical ethics programs spans the same period.

I argued earlier that part of ethics' attraction was it allowed medicine to cope with dilemmas created by technical advance. Maybe the accelerated speed of change in the medical knowledge base during the Fifties and Sixties created new ethical problems³⁴. Medical schools represented an attractive environment to instructors interested in practical applications of theory. In medical schools they could explore the new ways we interpreted technical advance in a hands-on way. Lorne described his training and background as follows;

I was trained in the history of philosophy and American practical philosophers like John Dewey and George Herbert Mead. It seemed a natural thing to be interested in a practical application of philosophy such as medical ethics.

This instructor interest goes beyond a general concern for practical application. In medical analysis procedures Our Lady and Western made the process look like regular clinical judgments. The general medical structure (and growing knowledge base) encourages and nourishes narrow specialism. Therefore it was no accident that non-medical staff working in the medical environment developed similar specialized interests. The instructors' expressed research and writing interests reflect specialization within the broad area of philosophy's practical applications.

³⁴Science generally became aware that technology created ethical dilemmas as well as solutions to problems. The nuclear bomb at the end of World War II illustrated the destructive potential for scientific advance and prompted people to reflect on technologies role in the postwar world. The sociology of science literature during the late Fifties and Sixties had many authors speculating on what technical advance meant.

Claire writes about the ethical issues surrounding organ transplants. Lorraine's (Western) interest was in the "limits of the market. What things are possibly for sale, from baseball to babies?" Lewis (Western) reported a current interest in "futility of treatment" cases and Lucien (Western) favored resuscitation. Lorne (Western) expressed an interest in cases about medical resource allocation. Whether a medical practitioner or not, each adopted the medical worldview that splits the whole enterprise into narrow specialism.

Only Martin (Eastern) explicitly rejected the push toward specialization. He claimed he was "a philosopher who does much work in the medical school and not a medical ethicist." As the in-house philosopher his role was to give the philosophical viewpoint on medical issues. Martin's association with the medical school had begun on a research review committee work had inspired him to write an article concerning ethical issues in medical research. The exception of Martin, who excluded himself from the medical ethicist role, provided powerful evidence about the extent to which other philosophers had assimilated themselves into the medical culture. Nobody else made the "philosopher in residence" versus ethicist distinction and yet many shared Martin's philosophy background.

Describing his career, Curt (Our Lady) reflected the pace of changes that occurred in the medical knowledge base. Curt trained in neurosurgery and then he spent many years in medical school administration. He became an instructor in medical ethics because his

specialism had undergone such technical advance since he practiced that "it is difficult to regain lost ground." In microcosm Curt worked around the dilemma created by medical science's technical advance. This instructor chose ethics teaching as a way to maintain links to medical education.

All instructors in medical ethics expressed an intellectual interest in medical ethics as an attraction for them. This would be less than noteworthy if instructors in business and education schools expressed their interest in ethics and case studies in the same way. This was not true. Those three ethics instructors who were doctors had a self-interest in solving the problems the technical advances in their profession created³⁵. Instructors with a background in philosophy focused their interest on specific practical applications of philosophical issues.

Both doctors and philosophers, socialized into medical culture, directed that teaching interest into solving the problems on a case by case basis. Very few instructors expressed an enthusiasm for considering broader ethical issues in medical ethics class such as national health

³⁵The same probably applied to those five medical practitioners I observed but did not interview who took part in ethics programs. Additionally, there were several practitioners I met briefly at Our Lady who I did not interview or observe in classes. Some refused to be interviewed and others said they were too busy with their medical duties for interviews. Most doctors complain they are under considerable work pressure and yet they had time to participate in a medical ethics program.

systems or charitable work by doctors. They pursued those broader interests outside the medical ethics courses taught.

Instructor involvement in business ethics.

There were eight business ethics instructors formally interviewed and another I observed and talked with extensively. In the business school one common instructor background and reason for interest in ethics stood out clearly. These were the two instructors (Millie and Louis) with a business law background. The disquiet with the technical-rational view took on a distinctive flavor already described in instructors with this legal background.

Those who come from a legal background rejected the conclusion some in the business field espoused that the boundary for business ethics equated with the legal boundary. Millie (Eastern) was the visiting professor who claimed, "I've taken a personal interest in philosophy and ethics in particular." The course she designed explored according to the syllabus the gray area beyond the law. She shared this interest with the other legally trained instructor, Louis from Western. His intellectual interests lay "in business [activities] that the law did not cover."

Millie and Louis used case studies as particular examples of where the law did not say everything about the ethics of a particular situation. I interviewed one other legally trained instructor, Lucas (Western,

education law). He used case analysis to highlight areas of ethical interest that education law was silent about. I wonder how general this reason for an interest in teaching ethical issues was with other legal scholars working in professional schools?

Other business instructors did not come from legal backgrounds. Nevertheless, the issue of whether the law represented all ethical behavior in business concerned several ethics instructors. The clearest example was the previously described analysis of pollution by Allied Chemicals in Lake's strategic business class. Lake's analytic summary considered whether government should regulate by law or government allow the industry to regulate itself.

Lake attributed an interest in ethics to business case studies and not in abstract moral theory discussions. "I am interested in particular topics with ethical content such as animal rights. I have a marketing case on a competition where a horse was the prize." Competitions offering live animal prizes were not illegal in many states and yet they obviously raised major ethical questions. In contrast, moral theory did not hold any appeal to this instructor because it "lacked relevance in business."

Lake's interest, like those from a legal background, manifested itself in specific cases where the law was silent on a business action. The other instructors told individual stories explaining their interest in

ethics. Each individual story contributed to a generally uneasy feeling with a free-market view of business.

Carol (Our Lady) came from a philosophy and political science background. Her academic writing concerned "principled organizational dissent" that was where individuals act as models of virtue in a hostile business environment. Strategic planning case studies explored the history of values and ethical viewpoint a particular company followed. Carol judged the business school represented an area improved by ethical reflection. She described her reasons for teaching in a business school setting this way;

I consider my role as a teacher in the business school as lay-ministry. . . . I was a Sixties radical. How about teaching in a business school? Now, those are the folks who need change! They will be tough nuts to crack! It will be an interesting challenge.

Maurice (Eastern) had an engineering and a business field background and he became interested in ethical issues through colleagues. In particular he acknowledged a military ethicist's influence who showed him how the military, an unlikely area of human activity for ethics, had interesting ethical content. This mentor encouraged him to read moral philosophy's classic works, in particular, he discovered the work of Immanuel Kant. The reading coincided with "an interest from my years in business in how the benefits and the harms associated with business activity should and could be distributed."

Maurice in his teaching and writing challenged the idea that the technical-rational viewpoint (a free market paradigm) had no moral

content. In one book (not cited for reasons of confidentiality) he devoted a whole chapter to how organizational structure and financial behavior contributed to a recent major ecological disaster. Another chapter examined the moral content in microeconomic theory. Finally, another chapter explored the boundaries and overlaps between law and morality. Throughout the books he wrote and in teaching Maurice used case studies to illustrate his disquiet with the idea that business lay beyond ethical scrutiny. On the positive side, Maurice emphasized several times to me and to the classes he taught how moral theory contributed to a broader understanding of business.

Both medicine and business schools possessed a common feeling of unease with aspects of the technical-rational worldview. Medical schools projected a uniform stance to that feeling. They saw ethics as a way to work around the dilemmas that technology and change in medical knowledge created. No medical school instructor claimed their ethical interests resulted in challenging the fundamental doctrines of medicine. The medical culture rarely challenged the technical changes per se and the scientific method that produced them. Such a fundamental challenge in business was not only possible but also it was mounted by several instructors.

Louis and Lance (Western) designed their business ethics course to challenge doctrines the "capitalist paradigm" generated. Maurice (Eastern) and Carol (Our Lady) above openly engaged in different versions of the same type of enterprise. In business schools the stance

to the technical-rational view was not as uniform except that many ethics instructors opposed the idea that the law represented an ethical boundary.

Instructor involvement in education ethics.

The picture in education reflected greater certainty about education's ethical nature. An assurance in ethical matters paralleled a lack of certainty about the appropriate technical-rational means that applied in the case study context. There were instructors who advocated multiple technical frameworks and analytic processes for case study analysis. These frames did not question that ethical principles were not implicit in education. Instructors offered three reasons to explain their interest in ethics.

Intellectual interest in ethical issues.

Five education school instructors followed thirteen colleagues in the other professional schools citing an intellectual interest in ethical topics. Lucas, like Millie and Louis in business, came from a legal background. Lucas developed an interest in ethics because legal case law was silent about certain areas in education that he felt deserved ethical attention. He combined a legal background with philosophy that translated in the classroom to exploring justification for legal procedures and rulings.

Individual histories and training played their part in shaping the remaining four instructors who claimed an intellectual interest in ethical issues. Lee (Western, education foundations) for example trained as a historian. His research "in the history of professional education in other fields included professional responsibility and ethics." Teachers represented one professional group that interested Lee and that attracted him to the education school.

Charles' ethical interest (Our Lady, education foundations) stemmed from a combination of factors. First, Our Lady as an institution professed commitment to ethics teaching across the university. Charles probably cited this as a positive influence because he was starting a paid sabbatical to develop his thoughts about ethics (Chair interview, Clark). Second, he acknowledged the influence of a colleague, Chris, who taught the same philosophy of education course. Finally, the training in sociology interested him in issues like education resource distributions. Like others Charles saw financial equity in education had significant ethical content.

All five instructors tried to bring different disciplinary views or different frameworks into play in case analysis influenced by their intellectual interest. For example, Morris (Eastern, education foundations) drew on psychology, history, and theological frames to explain his interest in ethics. Lee (Western, education foundations) relied on history to organize his ethical interests. These instructors showed the uncertain state of education's technical-rational aspects.

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Probably if put in a room together all five might agree about the important ethical principles to teach in education. Yet, each instructor approached cases using their disciplines' commitments. This was in direct contrast with the medical ethics instructors who relied on philosophy.

Teaching as a political act.

The second education instructor group acknowledged teaching ethical content was different from the first. The second and third group shared an expressed interest in ethical matters because of their common views on the tasks of education and teaching. This second group believed education represented a political practice on a micro or a macro scale. In the micro-political version it was the individual teacher who was the political agent. Lucy (Western, educational foundations) typified this position:

My interest stems from a political position I hold that says that teaching is inherently a political act. I find it hard to remove ethical questions from political questions. Politics deals mainly with issues of power. I suspect I came to this position through my own experience as a teacher and through readings when I was a graduate student.

Significant experiences, such as Lucy cited, showed a common theme among those who viewed teaching as a political act. Both in her school teaching and the way she organized her university classrooms Lucy used democratic and empowering strategies. Lisa portrayed herself as a living example for her students of different cultures and environments. Leah (interview and syllabus) cited directly her inspiration from Paulo

Friere's ideals³⁶. Instructors, with the micro-political view of teaching, projected a strong personal conviction to various ideals. They made concrete those ideals in their teaching behavior.

In the macro version the whole education system served a political purpose in contrast with the individual teacher actions in the micro political version. Mathew (Eastern, education foundations) acknowledged that personal history played a role in his systemic view for education's political purposes. He described his family background as political. As an undergraduate at college a leader in urban education exerted a powerful influence on him. In graduate school Mathew combined intellectual study of political and democratic theory with work in a desegregation project and his teaching in an urban school. Mathew shared the micro political instructor view that one actively modeled ideals.

In the interview Mathew rejected the standard language from moral philosophy and ethics such as utilitarian or Kantian positions. He became agitated by these ethical terms and claimed such language inappropriately described what he taught. The rejection of moral theory he explained deliberately distanced him from those who taught individual ethical positions through ethical principles. When Mathew described

³⁶Paulo Friere, South American educator, associated with the "liberation politics" and critiques of Western education in the 1970's. Friere, a devout Marxist scholar, is probably best known for the adult literacy campaigns in South America. Each oppressed group or individual had to formulate their own goals the ability to read played an obvious role in liberation. Non-oppressive education was the key to goal forming and liberation.

case analysis understanding the education system's purpose was the goal for the students. In a case study of Whittle's Channel 1 the issue for Mathew was commercial sponsorship and possible control of public schooling. It was not the individual teacher decision of allowing students in the class to watch commercial television.

Systemic concerns influenced how Larry (Western, philosophy of education) and Morris (Eastern, education foundations with an emphasis on multicultural education) taught. Morris put it this way;

Ideologically, I'm a liberal. I really believe that this society in the United States is so diverse in its makeup. Therefore, I have a responsibility to listen to the many voices, which exist out there. Across . . . [politics] and religion and other areas. I tend not to take a single point of view not even my own liberal one. I want to provide an atmosphere in which people are welcome and do not feel threatened in offering their own views. If we need to conflict with each other that is all right, I also value conflict.

The five instructors who saw education as a political and an ethical act differed significantly from instructors who saw teaching as a moral act. The moral viewpoint instructors did not see change as a necessary step in their ethical interest. At either the micro or the macro political levels, instructors argued for a change or a refinement in the present state of affairs. Teaching as a political act for the instructor aimed to persuade students to pursue various ideals with ethical implications. Those ideals or goals included the improvement of urban schools (Mathew), introducing democracy in the classroom (Lucy), or building Morris and Larry's pluralist society.

Teaching as a moral act.

These last six education instructors claimed teaching was a moral act. The moral view did not look forward toward some unrealized goal but from looking back at the practice of teaching. Instructor experience helped form this moral view.

I think moral issues are always embedded in teaching. Much of what teachers do is based on what we should do and part of what we should do encompasses our obligations to kids. I think I am driven by a strong sense of commitment to the kids.
Louise (Western, methods instructor)

I don't know whether I say that I teach ethics as much as help prospective teachers see that everything that they do has moral and ethical consequences. Ethics need to be an important consideration in any choice they make as classroom teachers as opposed to teaching it as a separate component. I see ethical issues in everything that they do.
Marie (Eastern, elementary education)

I think ethical issues are related to everything about being a teacher. It truly is basic, it's an inherent part of the person that is doing the teaching.
Constance (Our Lady, elementary education)

All three instructors blend their background with what they want students to learn about teaching's moral nature. Louise started with a general proposition that by the second sentence she stated as "what we should do" and in the last sentence became a declaration of what "I think." Marie was less explicit but she observed in the final sentence how she, not necessarily the prospective teachers, saw ethical issues in everything teachers did. Constance viewed ethics as inseparable from teaching and she lived out that view through her career as a teaching nun at the school and the university level.

The education instructor interest in ethics took three general forms. The first reaction to technical uncertainty was for the instructor to take their academic disciplines as a guiding framework. Instructors interviewed assumed all education processes had potential ethical significance. An ethical principle involved in an education case was set. The instructor's teaching task centered on portraying an "appropriate technical solution" that enhanced the fixed ethical idea.

A second reaction for instructors was that teaching represented a political activity. This view led instructors to seek a political ideal as a grounding for ethical enquiry. Instead of relying on a discipline's epistemology to provide firm ground these instructors held a political ideal as a foundation for their teaching efforts.

A third and final reaction was that teaching was a moral enterprise. Here teaching's moral nature served as a foundation in the face of uncertain technical knowledge. Teachers never know with absolute certainty that the "whole language" technical strategy was the best way to teach children to read. There is thirty years of contradictory research over phonic, whole word and other schemes that claim to be the "definitive way to teach reading." However, the teacher can be sure there was moral worth helping students achieve their reading potential.

Conclusions to Views that Sparked Instructor Interest in Ethics

Education school instructors differed significantly from their counterparts in business and medical schools. No business or medical

ethics instructor claimed their activities represented political or moral acts. Why is there such a noticeable difference between medicine and education for example?

In medical ethics any suggestion that doctors realized some political ideal was medical policy and not medical ethics. Instructors viewed medical ethics as an ethical variant of regular doctoring judgment. Philosophy provided some language and tools for resolving those ethical problems just as physiology and pharmacology solved clinical problems. It is possible ethics instructors felt medical practice was a moral act. However, only Lorraine (Western) explicitly stated such a view. Medical instructors' interest in ethics came from the view that medical ethics provided interesting and important moral puzzles and problems.

In business schools no instructor even hinted that business was a politically significant act. Politics in case analysis was an external influence that often affected negatively on business activity. Generally, business instructors attached some moral significance to some business activity. The key word is attached, as opposed to education instructors' insistence that ethics lay at the heart of education. Business ethics instructors interest in ethics suggested that the supposedly morally neutral activity portrayed in case studies we call business sometimes required examination of morally significant implications. An interest in business ethics was predicated on the instructor's desire to stop excess and inject ethical considerations into an amoral activity.

Overall Conclusions

The instructor's background and views they brought to ethics teaching varied widely across schools. In medical schools ethics instructors were medical practitioners and philosophers sometimes combining both fields. Thinking about ethical issues allowed the instructor to resolve dilemmas created by an explosion in the medical knowledge base and the fast changes in the technology. Medical ethics instructors, even philosophers with no formal medical training, looked at the moral issues on a case by case basis. The medical school environment exerted a powerful socializing influence over medical ethics instructors.

In the business school instructor background was more varied than medicine and that background resembled the mixed experience found in education schools. A unifying theme that brought business ethics instructors together was consideration of moral issues to counter concerns with ethically unfettered business activity. The central activity of business is selling. Moral worth or praise is not a necessary or a sufficient condition for business activity. In direct contrast medicine has as its central act effecting cures. For education learning is the central activity. Both education and medicine's central activities invited constant moral praise and worth.

This central activity of business, selling, when looked at through the ethical lens, is more likely to provoke moral condemnation or at least behavior to avoid moral criticism. Business ethics' attraction for some

business school instructors lay in defending against potential excess or lack of ethical consideration. Ethics instructors, pointed out through case study among other ways, the potential ethical challenges that might face the students they taught.

Education schools projected confidence in the essentially ethical enterprise teaching represented. There was a real advantage if ethics really was everywhere in education schools. In medicine we can generally see the patient is cured. The resulting profit from business activity is countable. The outcome of the central activity in medicine and business is readily apparent. Doctors or business people receive immediate reinforcement of the professional worth inherent in that central activity.

The outcomes of the central educational activity are neither as visible nor as immediate as the outcomes in other professions. In education the signs of successful student learning are sometimes delayed by design. Sex education and health programs aimed at substance abuse in kindergarten and early elementary grades provide obvious examples of delayed learning outcomes. Is it possible that the immediate teaching rewards were that teachers engaged in a morally significant action? This participation in the process substitutes for the satisfaction of curing people or accruing profit, hopefully in a socially responsible manner. Education school instructors introduced students to a justification of their professional worth by considering ethical issues.

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In the 1960's ethics teaching in professional schools was a marginal activity powerless novices taught. These data confirm the original story. Surveys in the 1960's reported new faculty taught ethics in innovative courses. The data show many of those novice instructors maintained a strong commitment to ethics teaching and now represent veteran teachers that I interviewed. The data confirm that ethics enjoys high individual instructor interest among professional school faculties. However, this instructor background data does raise are serious questions about future ethics teaching viability.

CHAPTER 8 DISCUSSION AND FORMULATING NEW QUESTIONS

Introduction

Throughout the preceding chapters I confined myself to describing the data with some speculations on what that description meant. I comment in this concluding chapter on interesting themes based on the preceding data analysis. The commentary I offer can be either critical or explanatory. However, I would caution readers that the data on which I base this commentary is not a representative sample of all medical, business, or education schools in the United States of America.

I start the chapter discussing the linkage between pedagogical and philosophical issues surrounding the maxim or analytic procedures that instructors used in practical ethics teaching. There follows three significant contrasts that I draw from the overall data analysis. First is how the schools dealt with the detail issue in cases. The second contrast deals with differences in roles aspiring professionals are expected to adopt during case analysis. The final issue with strong cross-professional contrasts is the variable scope of what counts as a case with ethical content in the different schools. After exploring

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these contrasts I conclude with three hypotheses that merit further study.

Moral Relativism the Common Fear in Practical Ethics

Philosophers use skepticism and its moral variant relativism as a foil to sharpen argument and theory. Practical ethics teachers, many with a philosophical background, worried that their students faced with difficult moral problems conclude that moral relativism was acceptable. Several instructors judged that left unchallenged most professional school students sympathized with a default relativistic utilitarianism.

Instructors described this relativistic utilitarianism in this general way: All points of view had merit so one potential principle was as good as the next one. This means students would not discount any possibility and so the students let their opinions guide them to the choice of action or solution in a particular case. The personal choice follows because on this line of argument if every opinion is valued then a student has more confidence in their own. Obviously instructors worried that the students could suggest idiosyncratic solutions. However they were more concerned that a student's "openness to all points of view" was really an unreflective strategy that saved students from thinking very hard about cases. It must be clearly stated that this is an instructor opinion. Those opinions should not be taken as an accurate assessment about the students' beliefs. The instructors'

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belief is significant because it provides an insight into the instructors' dispositions and motivations for teaching ethics.

Instructor anxiety about students' default utilitarian theories focused the instructor's broad teaching purpose in practical ethics as getting students to reflect seriously. This teaching purpose pressed instructors to take into account their beliefs about how students learn. There are three broad categories of learning theories that instructors could favor. However, two categories, the genetic and behavioral theories, suggest similar teaching behaviors. The third category, the constructivist theories, does imply very different teacher actions compared with the others.

Genetic learning theories state that learners have intellectual capacities set at birth. Teachers who subscribe to this belief should provide an environment that allows those capacities to flourish. People who believe in behavioral learning theories argue that intellectual capacities are enhanced or degraded by the environment. Genetic and behavioral learning theories suggest the same teacher behavior that creates a stimulating learning environment. It is also possible to mix both theories and still justify the same teaching behaviors.

In sharp contrast, constructivism places more responsibility for learning on the learner. The learner actively constructs understandings with the teacher's help. The teaching task in a constructivist classroom is to engage students in a learning dialogue where students

can test out their ideas and refine them publicly. The case study represents an opportunity to create a stimulating learning environment, alternatively, the case can act as a context in which students test their ideas publicly. The case study then is compatible with any learning theory which might explain some of its popularity in practical ethics classrooms.

Maxims

I take the philosophical position that use determines a word's meaning. Therefore to distinguish between principle and maxim I describe the different circumstances surrounding the usage of these two words. A Kantian principle such as "people have the duty to tell the truth" is a practice that if followed in many cases leads to moral approval. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred people would not get into moral trouble following this truth-telling principle. The distinction I make between principle and maxim usage is one of degree. In the average case the principle directly guides the action and the circumstances remain in the background. It is akin to doing simple subtraction sums where the doer does not reflect long on the circumstances which demand doing the subtraction he simply acts or calculates. For a difficult case the maxim suggests the way to look at the case but the case circumstances play a major part in determining the action taken after a period of reflection on those circumstances.

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The Kantian principle underdetermines the practice of truth-telling in certain difficult cases. For difficult cases following "the Kantian principle practice" is inappropriate. Instead in these difficult cases people follow the "maxim procedure" that lays down a rule of conduct sensitive to those particular circumstances.

Practical ethics classes always looked at difficult cases that demand the maxim procedure. Rarely did instructors direct student attention to simple case studies where following "the principle practice" was appropriate. For example, in the classic morality tale the friend contemplating murder knocks at the door to retrieve the weapon he left in your safe-keeping. The dilemma is do you lie and say the weapon is lost or do you tell the truth and be a party to a despicable act? Moral theorists offer many resolutions for this dilemma. This homicidal friend case demands serious reflection. Ignoring the circumstances and following the "truth-telling principle practice" produces a troubling and puzzling result.

The researcher identified a maxim in practical ethics as an analytic procedure influenced by theories especially moral ones. The Kantian maxim in the murderous friend case is that you consider your duty to tell the truth but given the circumstances you and most theorists construct a response that justifies not telling the truth. The Kantian maxim produced a rule of conduct that holds for these circumstances only that you do not have a duty to tell the truth in this case. The Kantian

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maxim practice and the Kantian principle practice superficially look the same and yet they produce very different rules of conduct.

There are two key distinctions between the principle procedure and the maxim procedure. First to follow the principle procedure does not demand reflection about specific circumstances but to follow the maxim procedure in difficult cases does. Second, the rule of conduct produced by a principle holds over many cases but the rule of conduct produced by a maxim is specific to a particular case.

The maxim practice describes a continuum of procedures that range from "applying moral theory" at one end to "wide reflective equilibrium" at the other. Instructors with a teaching purpose in mind can be placed along this procedural continuum dependent on whether they stress the teacher giving the knowledge or the student acquiring the knowledge through participating in a process.

Applying Moral Theory

At the applying moral theory end of the continuum instructors defined knowledge to teach students. Instructors used cases to illustrate a moral principle working in practice. Instructors expected students to increase their moral knowledge and to use that knowledge as a tool to solve professional problems. Instructors started with a general introduction to the major moral theories. Then the instructor specified some broad principles that seemed appropriate to the ethically

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significant topics in that particular profession. In the case study I am about to use, the instructor would discuss principles like the doctor maintaining patient confidentiality and the principle that prohibits a doctor knowingly placing people in jeopardy.

From a teaching perspective instructors (and textbook writers) found that broad principles such as confidentiality and preventable harm did not directly solve particular cases. Principles are useful to express morally worthwhile ideas that apply in all cases. Moral philosophers construct principles that reflect complex subtle ideas and debates that further our understanding as people about morality. The philosopher's understanding has a wide application goal. However, professional school students find principles difficult to apply directly to the difficult cases presented in practical ethics classes.

Throughout this discussion of maxims, I revisit the Los Angeles gang member case described in Chapter 6 to illustrate how I imagine practical ethics classes look. Readers will recall that a wounded young gang member had hospital tests that revealed he is infected with the AIDS virus. The young man tells the doctor that he is homosexual and asks the doctor not to tell his family about either his infection or his sexual preferences. The hospital needs beds, the young man is a charity case, and his sister offers to look after him at her house to free the hospital bed. The doctor faces the problem of how to allow the sister to care for her brother without revealing confidential information. The

man's wound still requires frequent dressing and so if the sister does this then she is exposed to great personal risk.

An instructor wishing to teach the application of Kantian moral theory might start by telling students about duty and how Kantians place great stress on serious reflection about those duties that we should pursue even when the potential outcomes seem undesirable. The instructor then moves on to Kant's guiding principle that we are obliged to formulate actions that we feel could be universal.

At this point in the imaginary classroom the case particulars have not been introduced by the instructor into the discussion. After discussing the relative merits for duty and outcome based moral theories the instructor directs the students' attention to the case. Now a discussion, perhaps prompted by a pre-class reading assignment, specifies the clash of specific duties in this gang member case. The doctor faces the conflict between a duty to maintain patient confidentiality and a duty to inform the sister that she is at risk if she dresses her brother's wound.

Kant states this is not a dilemma because moral dilemmas do not exist; if we cannot come up with a decision it is because of our faulty thinking. However, this case analysis is taking place in a practical ethics class. The instructor is not going to take the students through the moral philosopher's controversy about moral dilemmas and how well this case illustrates a difficult philosophical puzzle. In a moral

philosophy class that moral dilemma discussion could be valuable and undoubtedly interesting to philosophy students.

Prospective doctors have little motivation to consider the important philosophical dilemma problem. Instead they face-if only in a simulation of professional practice-the immediate decision-making task that the instructor hopes they will make after careful reflection when they eventually become doctors. The practical ethics instructor suggests the students use the Kantian inspired maxim or analytic procedure to make that decision. The instructor explains the Kantian inspired maxim that, when faced with a difficult case like this, the analytic procedure the students should follow is guided by considering duty not some virtue or rule based on different outcomes as other moral theories suggest.

It is important that both the imaginary instructor and I will not supply the eventual case decision to the students. This reflects accurately the teaching task for those instructors that favor an application of theory. The instructor is responsible for teaching students some important moral theory. The student is responsible for making the decisions that have to be made in this particular case's circumstances.

The instructor supplies the maxim in the form of an analytic procedure inspired by Kant but the student applies the maxim to make a decision and justify the suggested action. What the instructor did is consistent with either genetic or behavioral learning theories. The instructor

created the environment where the students can improve their intellectual capacities.

Wide Reflective Equilibrium

At the other end of the continuum a maxim represented an analytic procedure designed to develop a student's moral imagination.

Instructors who develop a student's moral imagination make different assumptions about the student role in learning. Students are no longer responsible for applying instructor supplied moral knowledge and making decisions based on that knowledge alone.

An instructor encouraging students to exercise their moral imagination in case analysis still advocates rationally defensible procedures inspired by a body of knowledge although that knowledge ranges beyond ethical theory alone. In addition the instructor engages the students' emotions in the case problem. Through repeated case analysis the instructor develops professional intuitions that come from experience that is superior to unreflective first reactions.

The students' learning task at this end of the continuum is to see case analysis as an opportunity to practice what has become known in the practical ethics field as wide reflective equilibrium. This equilibrium idea originated with Rawls (1971) and starts with paradigm cases describing actions that clearly are either morally right or wrong. Students formulate principles that are consistent with paradigm cases

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and are consistent with each other. Then students apply these principles in cases that contain difficult moral problems to test whether they suggest counter-intuitive results. If the student decides the principle yields counter-intuitive or troubling results that principle undergoes readjustment or it is abandoned and a new principle formulated. Rawls uses "principle" in a very different way from a Kantian philosopher who claims "principles" must be universal rules that transcend any situation.

The wide reflective equilibrium process has three broad elements. First, there are two principles of justice justified in Rawl's book *The Theory of Justice* (1971). However, in that early work he does admit the possibility that other principles are possible. It is the wide reflective process that has been developed for use in practical ethics separate from the two justice principles and their justification. The first element in wide reflective equilibrium is to consider principles beyond those related to justice that Rawls argued for.

The second element in wide reflection is the considered moral intuitions we all have when confronted with a case. Practical ethics wants to distance these considered intuitions from an automatic reflexive intuition such as flinching when scared. Considered intuitions take into account past experience and a professional's expertise.

The third and final element in wide reflection is to get the students to think about the assumptions, both social and human, that influence the

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way they see the case. This last element directs the thinker's attention to the social reality in which they live. Reflective thinkers formulating decisions let their views on human nature and the environment in which they live influence those decisions.

Wide reflective equilibrium is a broad category under which philosophers and practical ethics instructors can place a variety of analytic procedures. Rawls (1993) argues that wide reflective equilibrium is based on tolerant and overlapping agreement between different ways to realize moral good.

The specific analytic procedures or maxims vary depending on instructor preference just as it varied at the applying moral theory end of the continuum. I will present three analytic procedures or maxims in an order that reflects the three constituent parts in wide reflective equilibrium. The Rawlsian inspired Original Position maxim emphasizes principles. A Heidegger maxim involves an exercise designed to develop a student's considered intuitions. The Rorty inspired maxim directs the student's attention to the background assumptions that may lie behind case study resolutions.

I revisit the Los Angeles gang member case (Lorne medical ethics, Chapter 6) and contrast three maxims influenced by Rawls, Heidegger, and Rorty that could fall under the category of wide reflective equilibrium. Three possible maxims capture the spirit of what Rawls means when he claims democratic, pluralist societies maintain a consensus about

reasonable comprehensive doctrines. The consensus Rawls now sees is an area of overlap between competing explanations rather than the Original Position thought experiment that laid the foundation in his *A Theory of Justice* (1971).

The Original Position maxim.

In the first case the ethics instructor decides that the students should use Rawl's Original Position idea. The original position was a thought experiment where people went behind a veil of ignorance. Behind this veil people decided what principles and actions they could accept without knowing which position they would occupy when they returned to their role.

An instructor uses this original position idea to inspire student case analysis in practical ethics and not to teach Rawls' theory. Rawls has denied that the Original Position thought experiment is anything but a justification for the justice theory and is not a model of how people make moral judgments. This does not mean that ethics instructors cannot find inspiration for analysis procedures from abstract theory and thought experiments. Lorne (Chapter 6) who examined this Los Angeles gang member case also claimed he analyzed this case from a Rawlsian position. However, other advocates of wide reflective equilibrium might raise objections to Lorne's interpretation of Rawls which Lorne called creating a mid-level rule maxim.

Our imaginary instructor using the original position maxim in class might suggest that the sister, brother, and doctor are placed behind the veil of ignorance. An interesting aspect of using this maxim is that it forces the students to think about the background assumptions that the individuals in the case might shed as they go behind the veil for their discussion.

Students imagine the conversation between the three case participants behind the ignorance veil as they consider which principle holds in this case. The students would probably decide that the sister is the person whose liberty is restricted due to her brother's request for confidentiality. The sister has limited access to information that would help her make an informed choice and save her life. The instructor asks the students to formulate a principle which justified this liberty restriction. This is a difficult task and so the instructor could introduce another case that has some relevance.

The Tarasoff case³⁷ provides important background information for the students. A patient tells his psychologist that he will kill a third party. The patient carries out the threat and when the relatives find out that the psychologist knew they bring legal action against the psychologist. In court the psychologist defends his action based on his duty to maintain patient confidentiality. As a result of this case the

³⁷This case comes from a counselling and psychology ethics text. Steininger, M., Newell, J. D., & Garcia, L. T. (1984). *Ethical issues in psychology*. Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press. It is a landmark case in psychological ethics and law.

American Psychological Association Code of Ethics states that the psychologist should inform authorities if they feel that the threat is a real one and therefore break patient confidentiality. The sister's life in the Los Angeles case is undoubtedly threatened if the doctor does not tell her the risks. Based on this case the students could decide that Tarasoff justifies the Los Angeles doctor breaking confidentiality if the brother insists on going to his sister's house.

The students and instructor may explore another line of reasoning based on the paramount principle of protecting the sister. That line of thought is that the doctor consider the other options for this patient. The doctor could tell the patient that he needs to stay where the doctor can tell the person dressing the wound that the patient has AIDS. Alternatively the doctor could arrange for a nurse to visit the sister's house and dress the wound observing the proper precautions.

The instructor or students might explore the possibility that as this gang member is indigent the doctor should negotiate with the hospital to keep him in until the wound no longer needs dressing. This possibility opens a conversation on the general social conditions that created the problem. It is the for-profit hospital and health care system that created the need to discharge the patient for purely economic reasons. Rawls would probably be the first to point out that economic reasons produce actions and judgments under duress and that is morally questionable. It seems too difficult to claim that patients lose their

right to confidentiality simply because it is financially inconvenient to the hospital administration.

Heidegger maxim.

Heidegger's philosophy³ advocates the idea that a person's being is captured in the term "Dasein." Heidegger invented this name to mark the distinction between his complex ideas of what it is to be human and other philosophers' definitions of self. Dasein is a being who strives toward fulfillment of potential through dialogue. It is the dialogue with "the Other" that could produce another version of the wide reflective equilibrium process.

An instructor that uses a Heidegger inspired maxim sets up a dialogue that aims to disclose to all the Daseins in the class. Disclosure in the Heidegger sense of the word enhances Dasein's authenticity, moral well-being, and contributes to realizing the potential for becoming a better person. The instructor uses "the Other" with pairs of students who consider the Los Angeles gang case. The student acting as the Other provides care, support, and questioning to the student who is thinking through the analysis and constructing the argument for a particular

³I acknowledge the influence of a paper by Potter, E. A *Heideggerian analysis of the role of "the Other" in the Fenstermacher and Richardson strategy for eliciting teachers' practical arguments*. A paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual General Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia, April, 1993. In this presentation Potter argued that Fenstermacher and Richardson's "researcher" represents "the Other" and had an agenda of his own as he elicits and reconstructs the teacher's practice arguments.

action. It is important to see that the Other in this pairing is not somebody whom Dasien has to convince or persuade. On the contrary this Other is a backboard who provides feedback improving the case analyst's understanding of their thought processes and action planning.

In a medical ethics class that used the Heidegger maxim one member of the pair is the doctor faced with the decision. The "doctor" reads the case and then rehearses his/her argument in front of the Other. The dialogue that the pair engage in could look very like any of those already described. For example perhaps the "doctor" identifies as a key consideration in this case that they maintain the patient's right to confidentiality. Also, the "doctor" draws significance from the fact that the hospital forced the gang member to leave the hospital early. The Other asks how these two things are related and the "doctor" reflects that the patient's secrets would be safe if the hospital had not pressured the young man to leave.

The instructor using the Heidegger maxim is not setting up a role play situation in the traditional sense. Neither is the dialogue between the pair simply one person persuading the other. The Other in this dialogue is not the one who needs convincing it is the person who played "doctor" who has to convince themselves. Setting up these pairs in the classroom and explaining how the Other guides the "doctor" toward personal discovery I would claim is consistent with wide reflective equilibrium as Rawls and others envision it.

A Rorty maxim.

An instructor that used a Rorty influenced maxim could take all of the case analysis formed from the different perspectives and use that as a basis for wide reflective equilibrium. Rorty argues that it is the dialogue itself that occurs in a practical ethics class that creates insight and understanding.

The instructor gives the students the case description and several responses generated from important moral perspectives. Readers will recall Charles (Chapter 6) got students to generate two or more responses to cases based on different moral perspectives. Under the Kantian perspective the students might decide, as Lorne's students did, that the duty to protect the sister and maintain patient confidentiality are universal principles. The doctor does not have a compelling duty to telling the sister about her brother's condition. The action taken where the doctor teaches the sister barrier dressing without disclosing why he is doing so is therefore consistent with the two important duties.

The students could then work through the case and produce an analysis from the Utilitarian perspective. The instructor would direct the students to consider possible outcomes and their risk-benefit. In the first action-outcome the hospital faces more than a financial loss if the gang member is kept in the hospital. It is possible that there is a shortage of beds. If the doctor persuades the hospital to keep the man

when he should be discharged another patient with a greater need is denied.

In a second action-outcome the student could easily reject that the doctor break patient confidentiality because this would undermine other patient's trust in that doctor. Another undesirable effect of breaking that confidence is that the sister may refuse to treat her brother when she knows the truth about his condition.

After the students generate different perspectives the instructor asks the students for their "considered moral intuitions" to judge which actions are most helpful in this particular case. As an overall understanding I would claim that Rorty would approve of students understanding that not telling the sister and giving her barrier wound training involves paternalism. The doctor is making a decision where he/she interprets what is in the best interests of the brother and sister. Instructors could use this case in a sequence that builds student understandings about paternalism. The Rorty inspired maxim is for the instructor to encourage a rich dialogue about cases that over time generates student understanding

The Maxim Continuum Considered Overall

This discussion about maxims the instructors used presents a continuum of what I feel are defensible alternatives. It is not the intention to portray either extreme as a choice between alternatives. At the

"applying theory in practice" end of the continuum the instructors emphasize subject matter content they judge important. The genetic and behavioral learning theories support the teaching of that important content.

In contrast, instructors at the "wide reflective equilibrium" end of the continuum emphasize the process and point to constructivist learning theories to support their pedagogy. I do not see teachers transmitting moral knowledge and students practicing moral imagination as incompatible alternatives.

The researcher described a progression in what counted as a good case study in two medical schools. In early ethics programs a good case was a paradigm that represented clearly a moral principle and theory. These early classes clearly corresponded to "applying the moral theory" end of the maxim continuum. Later medical ethics classes moved along that maxim continuum to a midpoint area where several cases tested the moral margins. Instructors exposed students to the possibility that several principles might apply derived from different moral theories. In the students' last medical ethics experience the instructor has shifted to the other end of the maxim continuum. Students used wide reflection procedures to apply to cases that they encountered. In the medical ethics developmental ethics curriculum both ends and points in between on the maxim continuum are represented.

Practical ethics instructors may individually or as a group be criticized for bad pedagogical practices. The critics charge that in the rush to apply theory to practice instructors indulge in "principalism" is not without support in these data. The individuals I saw who might be guilty of principalism favored outdated moral theories that arguably do not represent "the state of the art" in moral philosophy. I see principalism as poor teaching not a criticism of practical ethics classes. Poor teaching also existed in wide reflection where the instructor used cases that accommodated so many principles, considered intuitions, and background assumptions that the students left confused and unenlightened.

I would also urge caution in concluding that wide reflective equilibrium and constructivist thought must be the better alternative because of the ethics teaching observations I made. I saw bad, good and indifferent teaching performances, based on my experience, sometimes with the same instructor giving the abysmal and brilliant performance. Poor teaching performance did not restrict itself to instructors who shunned wide reflective equilibrium. Modern philosophy, represented by Rawls himself, would preach toleration for both process and subject matter and a more sophisticated appreciation for the pedagogical problems involved in teaching practical ethics.

The Scope and Content of Ethical Case Studies

Instructors in these data showed strong empirical support for the philosophers' enthusiasm with wide reflective equilibrium. There is a growing recognition among these instructors that simply teaching an agreed upon body of knowledge represented in traditional moral theory and supplying a few cases for illustration is not enough. This was the basis for remarks that claimed Kantian and Utilitarian theory was irrelevant. It was not a claim that modern philosophy had nothing to offer simply that the older "grand moral theory" attempts no longer held sway in practical ethics classes. These data show that to get students to exercise moral imagination requires more than urging the students to fit a principle derived from the "grand theories" onto a particular case.

Moral theory is no longer characterized by monolithic "grand theories" that at some indefinite point in the future will drive alternatives from the field. Ethical case analysis shows that detail is important not simply inconvenient in its fit with theoretical expectations. Ideas like casuistry and Herbert Ross's prima facie duties now enjoy a revival in moral theory possibly prompted by case analysis in practical ethics over the past twenty years.

The process of wide reflective equilibrium does gain strong empirical support from these data. The scope of what counts as moral content in the process of wide reflective equilibrium is in transition.

Furthermore the data support the contention that practical ethics is a field in transition just as moral philosophy is changing. Ethics instructors used a wide variety of theoretical influences and adapted those influences in what may prove exciting ways. As I later suggest, evaluating student learning in new studies will show how effective these innovations are.

The alternative data interpretation is that practical ethics instructors do not understand moral philosophy and its theories. This leads to the conclusion that practical ethics is an atheoretical activity in a pejorative sense. In individual cases that conclusion might be supported but collective stupidity by practical ethics instructors strikes me as unwarranted. Chapter 7 showed that many instructors had philosophical backgrounds and the majority were veterans teachers which makes the charge that they do not appreciate the new movements in moral philosophy suspect at best.

These remarks prepare the way for what I want to present as contrasts between the different professional schools. These contrasts are not comparisons that imply the writer or reader choose one school's response as the better one. A contrast increases the understanding and intellectual tolerance necessary in a world where a single moral foundation is not only unlikely but also undesirable.

Details

The case analysis observations across the different professions showed the importance of details. Previously practical ethics instructors applied rigorous procedures from Kantian or Utilitarian theory and this meant that the case particulars or details played a negative role. Practical ethics instructors emphasized the general and when called upon instructors sacrificed the case details to teach the universal ideas promoted by the latest version of a "grand moral theory." The shift to wide reflective equilibrium, new ideas about what constitutes moral subject matter, and the emphasis on process means that detail now plays a positive role in case analysis.

When case detail either added empirical evidence to a moral theory or could be ignored there was little point discussing particulars. The vigorous variation between schools and between practical ethics instructors in those schools about detail signals evidence for its changed role. Medical and business schools used different versions of the enough-detail standard. The education schools struggled with a dialectic between including too little and too much detail.

Each school highlights a general case teaching problem. Instructors want to stop students from making inferences not supported by the case study description. In all schools case detail constrained students and stopped them from making unjustified inferential leaps that if followed could make a serious situation worse. Although instructors want

students to develop moral imagination it was not to encourage students to exercise unrestricted intuition. A student with a highly developed but undisciplined moral imagination is not likely to decide anything. This situation is as bad as the student who applied Kantian principles in a mechanical fashion regardless of the case details. Therefore a case's details kept the students focused and limited the students' possible intuitions they should consider.

In concert with medicine generally medical ethics instructors used the case study as the appropriate vehicle to represent medical knowledge. Likewise, education instructors recently recognized that cases represent educational knowledge. However, except for special education case reports, educators do not use the case study as an integral part in daily practice as it does in medicine. Furthermore, the case study in business ethics remains a pedagogical vehicle that instructors used throughout the business school but the case study had no utility beyond the school.

In medical ethics the case detail plays an important part in analysis just as it plays an important part in the professional repertoire for the doctor. The detail selected must be the right one that allows the doctor to make the crucial decision. The doctor has to sift through a plethora of details and settle on the few crucial ones that in the doctor's expert opinion should inform the judgment. Factual knowledge and following rational procedures are important to doctors but so are intuitions borne from experience.

Medical ethics cases and classes have a double benefit to the medical school. They allow students to practice at picking out the key details and they provide training to resolve seemingly intractable problems created by advances in medical science. Which details are important in a medical case? Those details that allow the doctor to make better medical decisions and medical schools recognized early on in medical ethics that philosophers and moral philosophy provided valuable tools that deserved the school's sponsorship.

In business the case study represents a well-tried teaching device which is very different from what the medical case represents. Details in a business case show a chronology for events and reveal the underlying values that actors in the case may have. A key disagreement among business instructors was over exactly which details should be included. The dispute was over whether financial details should or should not be included in an ethics case for example.

Medicine and business restrict detail through the enough-detail standard. However, medical schools can summon the criteria used in the workplace case studies that determine enough-detail to make the best decision available. Business cannot look at business practice and see which details in workplace cases are crucial. Case details made an important contribution toward the doctor's professional preparation. When it is disputed as it was in business ethics exactly which details should be included then the business ethics program's contribution to the professional preparation of business people is also less certain.

It is extremely difficult from the education school data to form a conclusion about case detail's significance. If Hegel is believed, then the "too much too little detail" dialectic should eventually result in a synthesis or greater understanding. However, this seems problematic when coupled with the claim that everything in education potentially has a moral implication. Medicine and business schools have a longer history in case study teaching and at least a thirty year experience trying to define what practical ethics instruction looks like. This practical ethics tradition stands in sharp contrast to the brief ten year history for education ethics.

Restrictions on the Scope of the Case

Business and education case studies were not restricted in scope in the sense that they dealt with ethical issues at every conceivable level. In both schools ethics instructors introduced their students to cases that ranged from individual decision making, through organization level cases, to cases that emphasized how the business and education systems performed.

In the discussion about case detail I suggested that medical ethics restricted the scope of cases to be consistent with the aims and aspirations for medical education in general. Medical education along with other goals seeks to improve the aspiring doctor's medical judgment. A distinction needs to be made between what medical ethics instructors expressed an interest in and what was taught in medical

ethics classes. Many medical ethics instructors had scholarly or teaching interests in medical policy, organizational concerns, and other broader topics but in the medical ethics classroom context they confined the case analysis to individual judgment cases.

Medical ethics instructors not only confined the discussion to individual decision making they also focused on three topics. Those three topics birth, death, and patient relations represent crucial decision points for doctors. They are crucial points because the assumption is that the doctor was the central decision maker and not subordinate to others in those three areas.

It is not hard to imagine other potential topics with ethical content where the doctor was subordinate to others notably issues about national health systems or adopting healthy lifestyles. In the former the government and others provide the central decision making whereas in the latter the patient occupies the major decision maker role. Cases in medical ethics did not pay much attention to these other potential topics during case analysis unless the case description put the doctor back as the central decision maker.

Contrasts in Case Study Role Play

A very different contrast is possible in the business schools that stemmed from the movement away from separate business ethics classes to an integrated approach in the business strategy classes. Instructors in

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the business ethics classes sensitized aspiring business people to possible ethical problems and issues. Instructors wanted to stir the students' emotions and that stimulating student emotions formed a direct contrast with medicine where instructors used cases to dampen the aspiring doctor's emotions. Business ethics instructors did not assume that their students were the central decision makers like medical ethics instructors did. Is it possible that we wish superiors to make cool detached decisions and yet subordinates need their passions stirred to commit to their superiors' decisions?

Business strategy classes that included ethical content had the instructor encouraging the students to adopt the central decision maker role. However business students were less like medical ethics students practicing their soon-required professional judgment skills. Instead business ethics students imagined themselves as chief executive officers or their advisors. Therefore, business students shared with prospective teachers the chance to fantasize that they were central decision makers for example superintendents, principals, or school policy makers.

Business and education students adopted their superiors' roles in case analysis to appreciate from a subordinate's perspective what were their superior's concerns. No business or education instructor claimed that getting the students to adopt these important decision making roles was motivated by an immediate need for the students to learn those skills.

The business strategy courses and the education foundations courses shared another interesting similarity besides encouraging the students

to imagine themselves in a superior's role. Both courses represented a final synthesis experience. Business and education schools assumed that the enterprise they prepared the student for was a moral one. For business schools the move away from the separate business ethics course to an integrated view had recently coalesced around these final business strategy classes. A nineteenth century assumption in the literature had reemerged and led to integrating ethical issues throughout the curriculum but especially--or so the business schools claimed--in these strategy classes. Education never abandoned the assumption that teaching was explicitly a moral enterprise. It appears that when this "explicitly moral assumption" is made in a professional school the structural result is to mostly deal with ethical content in a synthesis course that deals with the overall aims and direction for business and educational organizations.

Medical schools might implicitly assume that the profession had a moral purpose but this was not explicit. The medical schools maintained the separate ethics course as did the business schools when a separate ethics course was thought appropriate and any moral purpose in business was implied rather than explicit.

Overall Scope of Ethics Experience

Medical ethics classes and the separate business ethics classes shared a restricted view about what counted as suitable material and where ethical issues should be discussed. Medical and business ethics

instructors dealt with a fairly common set of topics covered in both types of school and reflected in the textbook contents.

Medical ethics instructors in class worked with a restricted topics list that covered three basic areas birth, death, and patient-doctor relations. Medical ethics integrated its aim with the general aim for medical education to improve a doctor's medical judgments. Medical ethics had an important contribution in this aim because it gave resolutions to problems medical technology created. Business ethics instructors worked with a broader topic list that the instructors hoped sensitized students to potential ethical problems in the business world. The overall teaching challenge for ethics instructors is to choose and justify their choice from the list of prescribed topics and principles.

Education foundation and business strategy instructors could potentially deal with any topic and claim that it had ethical content. Instructors in these classes offered role play opportunities that were only distantly related to possible career positions for those students. The overall teaching challenge these instructors faced was how to formalize and make overt the ethical issues that potentially existed in every case study.

Formulating New Questions

I will discuss three hypotheses that merit further investigation based on the study's findings. The three hypotheses represent not only a

suitable conclusion to the study but also a beginning for future study.

Learning Claims Made About Case Studies

Case studies as universal teaching tools.

The following imaginary dialogue summarizes the literature and ethics instructors' "voices." "I do not know if I use case studies as such. I use descriptions of situations to teach something." The key words are in bold print. First, "as such" conveys the uncertainty in the literature and among instructors. Neither the authors or the instructors can name the defining features of a case study. Sometimes, instructors described the Harvard Law and Business school case study methods as the ideal. These teaching models, for some instructors dealt with true case studies. However, these data fail to show the case study use described here was inferior because it failed to conform to a Harvard model.

If one named any possible defining feature, the data showed an instructor with a counter example. For instance, a case is only a case if it is written, on video, two paragraphs, fifty pages, based on real situations, or drawn from the pages of a Dostoyevsky novel.

Consequently when the target (the key feature) showed squarely in the cross-hair of the analytic sights it immediately started to move.

The second key word "use" conveyed the sense of purpose that instructors attached to the third key phrase, "descriptions of situations." The

word "use" refers to case studies as instructors' tools for teaching about situations. The fourth key word, "something" conveyed the idea of a case study as a universal teaching tool. Some authors in the literature tried to distinguish between different "somethings" being recognizable in research as opposed to a teaching case. Ethics instructors, at least in our conversations, did not make this research versus teaching distinction.

The idea that a case study represented a universal tool may mark the discovery of a "pedagogic miracle." However, the case study could equally be an illusion with inflated or illegitimate claims. This universal tool, the case study, apparently taught the equally slippery ideas of ethical content and professional expertise. The case study, ethical content, and expertise share no solid definition. Either everything has ethical content or only certain aspects of the professional environment can have morally significant features.

Professional expertise is difficult to describe. "Expert professionals" can deploy their expertise, but can find it difficult to describe how they do it. The case study, ethical content, and professional expertise are all ideas surrounded with uncertainty. Therefore, we may have mistaken this collective uncertainty for a shared property that fuses them together into an ideal teaching strategy.

Instructors reported that cases motivate students, engage students in spirited discussions, and that cases provide good material for student assignments. Instructors praised the decision making that results from

case analysis. Is it possible that we are confusing movement with progress? The case method makes the students look active, especially when compared with passivity found in a lecture, but student activity is no guarantee of successful learning. It seems reasonable to question the broad claims about student learning from case studies.

The broadest statement for the first hypothesis is whether the case study represents a universal or multipurpose learning tool. This general question has roots in the criticism of another pedagogical technique "discovery learning," that promoted student activity as a positive feature. The discovery learning technique in elementary education claimed to teach almost anything and everything the teacher wanted. Teachers did not dictate knowledge to passive children, instead, students freely explored their environment picking up knowledge the same way they picked up solid objects.

Case study critics draw parallels between case teaching methods and the discovery learning method based on Richard Peter's fallacy of perfect obviousness. The critics contend that case advocates assume students learn discrete subject-matter without direction (almost by osmosis or proximity alone). It was "obvious" in a math discovery lesson that children formed sophisticated ideas about math concepts through "free play" with solid objects. Recent math authorities still advocate using "manipulatives" or solid objects but not the discovery teaching method.

The following example captures Richard Peters' famous critique of discovery learning or more correctly nonlearning using the fallacy of perfect obviousness. It is a fallacy to assume that when children found the horse's jawbone in the canal they learned about the terrible conditions in Britain for working horses. Instead, they could learn that canals represented convenient, if macabre, garbage dumps for Victorians. Or, the kids could simply enjoy getting messy and pulling things out of the mud! Case studies might teach something but the problem is what they teach and in what manner? Cases might be a good way to represent knowledge but it may not be an efficient way to teach that knowledge in professional school settings.

In this study instructors thought a case study is the right tool to explore ethics, business strategy theories, medical decision making, teachers' roles, and functions of education. This is not an exhaustive list of subjects pursued in the three types of professional school. Is it possible that case studies are good for teaching certain subject-matters and not others? What is it about those subject-matters that make them suitable or unsuitable for case study teaching?

Learning claims associated with connection case analysis.

These data suggested three broad case analysis types that might convey certain subject matter. First, case studies showed aspiring professionals practical applications of abstract theories (Connection analysis). Instructors used case studies to connect certain general

understandings and specific principles in a concrete and particular form. Connection analysis was popular among instructors but that may tell more about the instructors' desire to control class conditions and not represent evidence that it was a good purpose for case studies.

Do students through case analysis successfully make the connections that instructors intend? Where do creative connections by students fit into this type of analysis? Is there a match between the instructors' vision of the connections and the sense a student makes of that same description? How many case studies do students need to establish the connection? Would one paradigm example be the desirable way to make that connection? Maybe instructors have to lay out many related cases to show a theory's full range. Alternatively, is it marginal cases that define the boundaries and limits of an understanding? This study described the phenomenon of connection analysis but it does not establish a legitimacy to the learning claims made.

Learning claims associated with therapeutic case analysis.

The second broad function for a case study was therapeutic. Case studies had the power to change, alter, or establish beliefs in aspiring professionals' minds. In education schools instructors confronted student beliefs about teaching and learning being easy and they instilled ideas that reflection was part of an educator's practice.

Medical ethics cases furthered the curriculum's general aim for practicing case analysis and ethics cases emphasize the ethical perspective useful in solving medicine's technical problems. Ethical case studies in business school persuaded the students that the idea of a morally neutral or ethically self-regulating business environment was wrong. Strategy cases showed that ethical values provided worthwhile ways to plan corporate philosophy and goals. Therapeutic case analysis assumed a change in what students believed and it introduced them to certain professionals' habits of mind.

This generates two sets of questions about using case studies for therapeutic purposes. First, there are the claims that case study use alters student beliefs. Do cases provide immediate dramatic change or delayed realization many years later? The concept of inert ideas is not popular but perhaps a case study serves as a good memory aid over time. What was good evidence for instructors that a student altered their beliefs? Do we accept what people say during case discussions at face value? Are diary entries spread over time recording the change better evidence than essays explaining and justifying the students' present attitude?

Should instructors point to tangible if indirect measures for the effectiveness of cases in changing beliefs? Could a decrease in doctors' malpractice suits or business people in jail show the case study's effectiveness in professional ethics programs? Do educators learn from studying cases that ethical considerations are important in

nearly every professional activity? Nobody spent much time in education classes I watched worrying about ethically bad practices by teachers and administrators. What is different about education and business case studies that made education cases describe the good and business concentrated on evil? Is a case depicting evil or good more "effective" in changing a student's belief?

The first set of questions about therapeutic case analysis highlighted the difficulties associated with finding convincing evidence for changed belief. Therapeutic analysis makes existential learning claims where the only change occurred unobserved inside the students. There is no directly corresponding observable transformation in the world we all see. Furthermore, like connection analysis, it can be asked if there is a specific quantity of cases, described behavior, or other case features that forms a critical mass that produces the desired student belief change? For example, if the instructor presented four cases, one paradigm and three marking the outer limits, does this strategy successfully set the desired disposition where two cases would not?

Second, there are questions about the idea that case studies establish habits of mind necessary to become a particular professional. It assumes the ability to understand and identify those professional habits of mind extending beyond case study boundaries. How far do we look beyond any specific case study to find evidence for this learning?

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Only through observing aspiring and novice professionals over time can we record concrete examples that we infer came from a learning process originating from past case analysis. An immediate problem is screening out or assigning weights to subsequent intervening variables, which contributed to a particular habit of mind. For example, how strong and direct is the line of causation between a medical student doing ethical case analysis and that same student solving problems faced as a doctor years later? This becomes an interesting puzzle when the technology, which creates the future ethical dilemma, never existed when the doctor took the medical ethics course in training.

Learning claims associated with action-plan case analysis.

The third function for case studies was to represent problems worth solving. Procedures adopted for these case analyses gave students practice solving problems represented within the case description. One advantage this type of case analysis had over others was that it was easy for instructors to distinguish between successful and poor action-plan analysis. Instructors had concrete evidence of successful decisions that were available immediately. The analytic procedures yield an outcome, a plan, or decisions allowing comparison and evaluation by instructors and other students. However, the success measures are not so clear if the aim was anticipating decision making in future professional practice. If instructors want to anticipate those situations then it introduces a doubt concerning those cases chosen as representing future situations.

Details in a case description assume great importance in action-plan analysis. This is a direct contrast with a connection analysis where instructors could claim troublesome details reflect the "messiness of the real world." Hence, they could justify a directive to the students to ignore that detail. However, in action-plan analysis detail assumes great importance. Just how well do instructors and students agree on the significance of the detail as described in a case study? The focus on detail could blind students to the broader picture. How portable is any knowledge created by studying a case to either additional cases or when carried out into the workplace?

Special dilemmas are created when students supply and analyze cases from their own experience. This undeniably brings the analytic focus sharply onto the student's immediate environment but also reinforces their sense of insularity. What strategies exist to counter the tendency in these analyses for students to believe either in one best solution or in multiple, equally valid alternatives?

Action-plan analysis was popular in all nine schools. Business strategy classes, medical ethics, and some education classes favored what is pragmatic case analysis. It is difficult based on this limited evidence to know how far that popularity extends.

Representing the relationship among the three analytic types.

Insert Figure 8-1 about here

Figure 8-1 shows a possible visualization of the relationship among the three analysis types. For descriptive purposes I have emphasized the separateness of these case analysis types. The data contained combinations of various analytic types. Therapeutic analysis, which aimed at instilling ways of thinking in students, sometimes was pursued simultaneously with action plan analysis. Instructors could aim at establishing habits of mind and at formulating decisions. The question is whether the students take the ways of thinking about a case and the action plan and then apply them to new cases? Certainly instructors mixed functions but there were more examples of pure connection case analysis particularly when that case analysis was in a lecture.

The Relationship Between Moral Philosophy and Practical Ethics

Professional Ethics Classes are not Moral Philosophy Classes

The second hypothesis is that the practical ethics field represented a separate activity from moral philosophy. Practical ethics is not a direct derivative or an "applied subbranch" of philosophical ethics. Classes I observed and instructors I talked to did not claim to teach moral philosophy to professional school students. Why should a

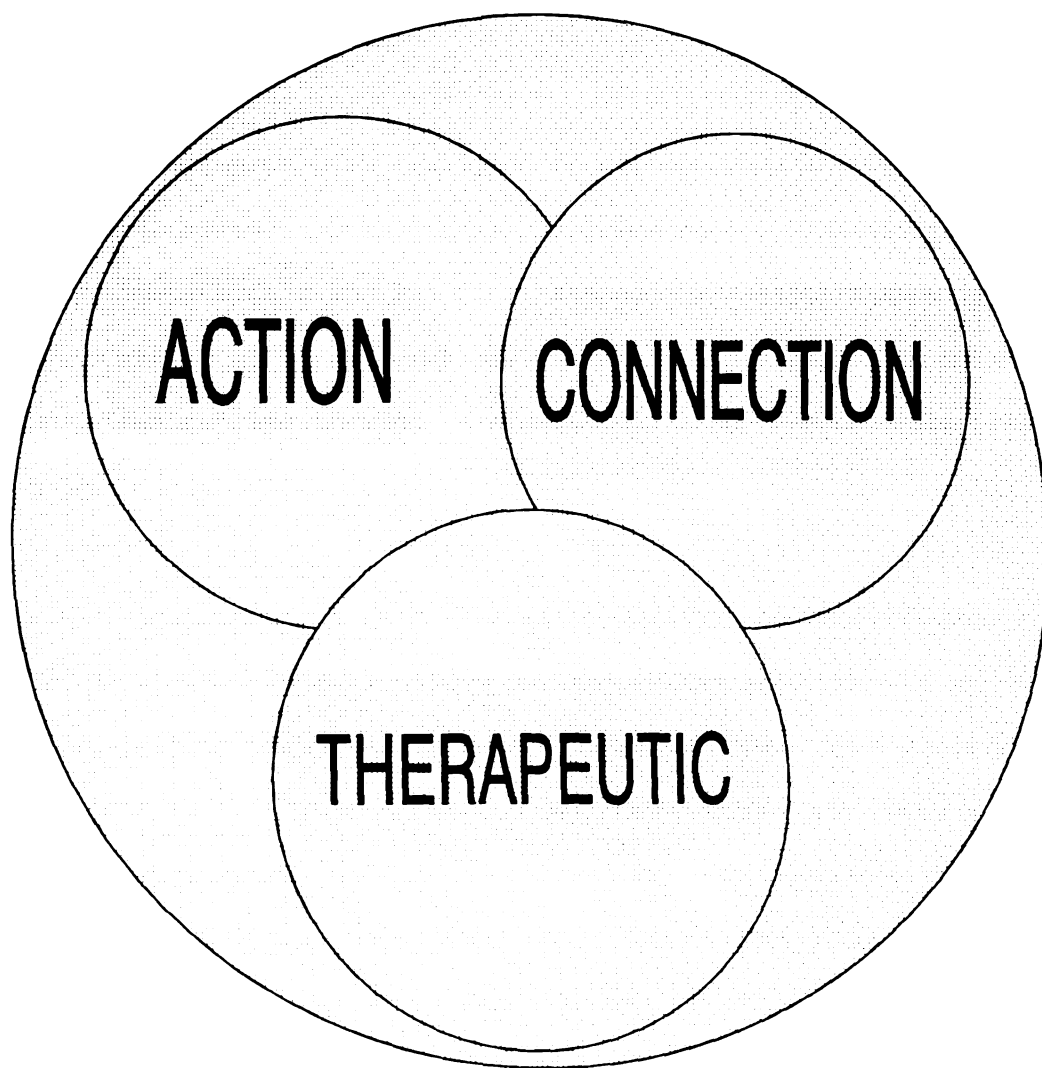


Figure 8-1

Types of Case Analysis

professional school student need to take such a course anywhere but in a philosophy department?

A Two-Nation metaphor.

I offer this metaphor with apologies to Wittgenstein's city story and Plato's cave shadows. Imagine two countries on a multinational continent, Meta-ethics and Practical Ethics. Practical Ethics is a sovereign nation although sometimes confused with a region in Meta-ethics called Applied Ethics. A substantial river flows between the two countries.

There are long but separate histories of thinking about different ethical problems. In Meta-ethics ethical thinking led people to formulate various universal or general explanations. Some explanations were named after their inventors, other explanations get their name from a theory's significant feature. Meta-ethics' people devote their whole lives and derive great satisfaction building ethical propositions and differentiating between each other. Theory building and rich argument is highly valued in Meta-ethics culture and acknowledged throughout the whole continent.

The population of Practical Ethics had a tradition of formulating responses to problems they encountered in different aspects of their lives. There is great social reward for creative but practical problem solvers. For some time the two countries built bridges across the river

that separates them. Wise people skilled in the various arts passed over the bridges and made contributions to the two separate traditions of ethical thinking.

The bridges' building material is as interesting as the people who cross those bridges. Meta-ethics inhabitants constructed some bridges and they used complex moral theories as building material. The Meta-ethics builders constructed other bridges from a single principle derived from those theories. Practical Ethics builders used materials in their bridge building such as generalizations from cases. With a long history of travel between the two countries it is no surprise that the two countries share words if not meanings; appearances can it seems be deceptive. Practical Ethics shares borders with many other countries.

Recently Practical Ethics people encountered some very difficult moral problems that defied their best minds' efforts. An extremist group calling itself the Pragmatists suggest these problems are best solved through Practical Ethics' own resources. This group argues for closed borders to exclude foreigners, especially from Meta-ethics, because they just spread confusion. President Rawls recently appealed for calm and he advocated that the people of Practical Ethics take a wider view of moral reflection that includes contributions from other nations not just Meta-ethics. Pragmatists are claiming victory based on this statement.

In Meta-ethics, the Pure-Theorist terrorist group claimed responsibility for several bomb outrages against bridges built by the people of

Practical Ethics. Violent incidents against Practical Ethics people visiting Meta-ethics are on the rise.

Relations between the two countries over the years have run the whole gamut from peaceful coexistence to outright war. Fundamental differences lay at the bottom of this latest round of hostility. The Meta-ethics people believe moral imagination yields new insights that add strength to the general understandings they value. For Practical Ethics people moral imagination provides creative and humane decisions to practical problems. This difference has caused many problems and misunderstandings between the two nations over the years.

The second hypothesis, suggested by this study, is that practical ethics and moral philosophy are separate countries or enquiries. This is not an idiosyncratic statement of an old problem describing the rift between theory and practice. Instead the hypothesis is that this relationship is not a direct one without denying the important influence the two separate enquiries have on each other. Terms like applied ethics deceive because they imply a direct relationship between not-applied (theoretical) ethics and applied ethics. Why do we have to accept a direct relationship that creates such difficulties and misrepresents moral philosophy's contribution with theories that tried and failed to be universal?

The Use of Maxims as Analytic Procedures

The third and final hypothesis is that a maxim is a procedure commonly found in practical ethics³⁹. Circumstances described in case A, suggest a *Kantian maxim* as a useful analysis procedure. A possible case resolution involves considering the duties the professional depicted in case A should follow. Students use the Kantian maxim that directs their attention to considering "duties" in the case. Other students looking at the same case might follow an analysis procedure that uses a *Consequentialist maxim* that directs their analysis to consider different outcomes and their consequences.

The students analyze the case by spelling out in detail the professional duties in this specific set of circumstances for this particular professional. When the instructor challenges the student's case analysis they justify their response by claiming that duty X formed a reasonable, rule to follow given the circumstances in case A.

Professional school students using the Kantian principle procedure in a difficult case discover as their philosophy counterparts have that when they "apply" the principle to a hard case they have a difficult time distinguishing differences in ideas like duty to country, profession, or parents. Philosophers often refer to "case applications" such as duty

³⁹This final hypothesis owes some of its inspiration to the work of Art Wolfe (1990) cited in chapter 1. He wondered what the effect of telling students to "do justice" would be. The interpretation and conclusions I draw together with their faults are mine not his.

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to parents versus country⁴⁰ as illustrations of the philosophical problem.

Further investigation could explore the utility of maxims in practical ethics. Philosophers recently charged that medical ethics misuses principles from moral theory. Is a maxim simply a distorted and indiscriminate use of principles as those critics charge? A maxim could serve as a "mental template" that students supposedly fit over various case studies. Mechanical template application seems an undesirable goal for ethics instruction. This study cannot offer data to support or to refute what the students take away from case analysis. Instead of templates students could take the maxims together with the whole case analysis experience and exercise their moral imagination to solve future professional problems. A longitudinal evaluation study could begin to explore the students' learning gains that teaching ethical content through case studies promotes.

⁴⁰The clash between duties to parents and one's country is a moral theory classic that originated from Jean Paul Sartre. He wrote the case about a dutiful son torn between a duty to join the Resistance Forces in World War II and look after his aging mother. Sartre initially used this case to attack the views of Kantian philosophers. Moral philosophers spend a long time in books constructing cases to attack the views of their opponents. A case in philosophical argumentation can serve as a weapon not an instance of a problem waiting for solution.

References

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APPENDIX: INSTRUMENTS AND CONSENT FORM

APPENDIX

Chairperson interview

This interview gathers background information (duration 30 minutes). The purpose is to provide general information and history. Question C4 should be regarded as optional depending on time available and what the interviewer gauges is the interest the Chair seems to have in ethical issues. Seen this way the interview should be finished in the scheduled time. If the informant is interested in current ethical issues then by their choice the interview may be extended beyond the advertised 30 minutes.

C1) As chair of --- could you sketch the programs offered in the briefest and broadest terms as professional training to students in your department?

Probes:

Are there any recent changes to the programs offered here in the department?

Is there a common core to how you prepare the professionals in this department?

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Are you providing a preparation for different types of professional?

C2) What part does professional ethics play in that training and how does professional ethics get taught in your department's programs?

Probes:

What part does a student's exposure to ethics as part of their general undergraduate education play in how the school structures ethics teaching?

Are there differences in the way students from different programs get exposure to professional ethics?

Are courses with ethical content voluntary or part of a compulsory set all/some students must take?

Are ethical issues part of courses not labelled as professional ethics?

C3) Could you give me some background how this approach to professional ethics was reached? Is this a recent development or one evolved over many years?

C4) (OPTIONAL) How has the current interest in professional ethics affected what you do at the school with your students?

Probes: Probing based on a selected current issue in different schools -- that is,

Medicine; health professionals as care givers or entrepreneurs.

Business; organizations or individuals having a sense of moral responsibility. Education; the call to professionalize the job; is there a moral component that the program has to address.

What does this mean and how are you responding?

C5) Who could I contact in your department if I wanted to learn more about the teaching of professional ethics.

Instructor interview

Snowball sampling and personal recommendation means that I might get directed to someone who either does not teach ethics or does not use case studies at all to do so. If this happens do Section 1 and ask them why colleagues see them dealing with ethical questions and why they don't use case studies to teach ethics.

Section 1.

Instructor biography --

I-1) How long have you taught professional ethics courses?

Those instructors not teaching a specific course I will rephrase to ask which of the courses they teach contain elements of or discussion of ethical issues?.

What part, large or small, does ethical discussion play in case analysis in you classes? Do you plan specific class sessions (or parts of the lesson) where ethical issues will get raised?

I-2) How did you come to be teaching ethics?

I-3) What experience have you had as a practicing professional in the field?

I-4) What areas do you conduct research and writing on?

I-5) What is the level of contact outside the classroom with practitioners and in what role?

I-6) Give me a brief history of how the approach to ethics at the school was arrived at? Did the design of the course take place at the individual or departmental or school level?

I-7) Is there any relationship between the professional ethics teaching in this professional school and other university departments like philosophy or theology? What is that relationship and characterize the level of contact?

At the end of this section be sure to ask for textbooks, case materials and a syllabus of the course that has ethical content.

Section 2.

Dilemma questions: "I am going to ask you about certain aspects of the course you teach. This is not a test of your personal knowledge of professional ethics or an evaluation of how you teach ethics. My interest is in how case studies and ethics gets structured by different professional schools within their overall programs. I want to hear if

any particular question (or set of questions) seems strange or irrelevant to you."

Question Set 1.

I-8) Generally what makes a good case study for you to use in the classroom?

Probes:

I-9) Where do you find good case studies? Does the format in which the case is presented influence the choice?

I-10) What features of the case attract you (Are these current problems of practice or fundamental practice problems?)

I-11) What do you hope your students learn from Cases X, Y, Z? Give me a couple of typical examples.

I-12) How do you draw links between the case and a moral theory or principle? Take me through a case to show me how the analysis goes.

I-13) Do you think these links are important? If not, then why not? Is linking mostly your responsibility or do you prefer students to make their own?

I-14) Do you draw any links between the case studies and theology? Do you or your students apply religious beliefs to case study analysis? If not then get them to speculate on why (most classes I speculate would have people with religious convictions)?

Question Set 2.

I-15) Do you pick cases that allow many moral perspectives to be used? Is it important that a case study can be looked at from different theory perspectives?

Probes.

I-16) Do you hope students consistently pick one moral perspective, whichever one they choose? Is there a "pop" student philosophy? Is there one major type of theory that students favor to apply to case studies?

I-17) Do students express the wish to know more about different moral theories to reflect better on the cases? If not any ideas why?

I-18) Do students complain they cannot see a link between moral theories and the case studies. How do you respond to this type of student learning problem?

I-19) If someone in your class asked, which ethical perspective (i.e., Rule utilitarian, Kantian, or pragmatic) you favor what would you do?

Question Set 3.

Granting there are at least three levels at which each case study could be approached at; the levels of individual, professional group interest or as a member of a wider society.

Probes.

I-20) How important is it to use case study teaching to allow students to recognize differences between their interests as an individual and as a member of a profession?

I-21) Do the case studies help you to show the ethical responsibility to society these professionals have?

I-22) Do you intend the case studies to introduce students to how professionals act on professional problems? ie Do cases show models of a professional role?

I-23) Is the institutional interest always negative?

Question Set 4.

I-25) What would you say is the most important function for your students of the case analysis you do?

Probes.

I-26) Do you see a direct link between the case studies and what they will or do encounter in professional practice? If yes or no then talk about the nature of the link.

I-27) Especially where cases are used as homework or out of class assignments probe about their function.

Question Set 5.

I-28) Professional school instructors use case studies to teach all sorts of ideas. Do all case studies have an ethical component?

Probes for everybody.

I-29) Do you prefer tailor-made case studies or getting your students to reflect on incidents from their own experience?

Probes for separate course schools.

I-30) What is important about having a separate professional ethics course?

I-31) How would you view a proposal to integrate ethics in other classes in the school?

Probes for schools with no separate course.

I-32) What is important about having an integrated program?

I-33) How would you view a proposal to set up a separate ethics course?

I-34) Would a combined program of separate and integrated ethics be the ideal?

Vignette

Please fill out the following description of a lesson you taught recently. As you know from our conversations I am interested in a lesson where a case study was the focus of the lesson. Please choose a lesson where you felt something unusual or interesting occurred. The headings below provide a guide. Feel free to put any extra comments at the end.

V-1) As you planned the lesson describe what you hoped to achieve.

V-2) What led you to consider using this particular case study at that time? Mention any significant prior events that led you to choose the case study.

V-3) Describe how you started the class. Were there any other discussions or lead in before you initiated the discussion of the case?

V-4) Give a very brief description of how the rest of the lesson went. Make a special note of anything that happened as you discussed the case that caused you to change the way the lesson was planned.

V-5) Speculate on what you think the impact of considering this case study had been on your students.

This is not meant to be a massive writing task a page or two would be more than enough. If I cannot understand something or need further details I will ask. After the vignette is drafted you will be sent a copy for your reaction and comment.

Consent Form

I _____ (Full name) have been informed and allowed to discuss the nature of this research. I understand both the study and my level of participation in it. This is not an evaluation of my teaching of professional ethics but a description of case study teaching. Both the institution and myself will be referred to under pseudonyms in the final report. The geographic location of the institution designated as a Mid-West University will be used. I understand that I may withdraw my consent to participate in the study any time during data collection. I may also refuse to take part or answer questions in various parts of the study should I wish.

Signature

Date

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