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**Where do history teachers come from?
Professional knowing among early
career history teachers**

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Submitted for Professional Doctorate in Education

**University of Sussex
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Understanding professional knowing has only been possible thanks to the twelve teachers who agreed to participate in my doctoral research. All of them appear as someone else in this study but behind the pseudonyms are valued colleagues who despite the complex demands of being successful history teachers gave up their time to work with me.

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University of Sussex

Professional Doctorate in Education

Where do history teachers come from? Professional knowing among early career history teachers

Summary

The Training and Development Agency for Schools continue to set an official agenda for what constitutes professional knowledge for teachers in England. The Professional Standards for Teachers (TDA, 2007) set out expectations regarding attributes, knowledge and understanding and skills for teachers at different stages in their careers. Such prescriptions have been the subject of critique by the academic community (Furlong, 2001, Phillips, 2002, Ellis, 2007) for their implicit reductionist assumptions about professional knowledge. History teacher educators (John, 1991, Husbands et al, 2003) have long recognised the need to focus on what history teachers do know, rather than what they should know. However whilst scholarship offers us rich understandings of those considered experts (Turner-Bisset, 1999) or engaged in initial teacher education (Pendry, Husbands, Arthur and Davison, 1998), little is known about the professional knowledge of early career history teachers.

This study explores professional knowing of early career history teachers working in secondary schools in South East England. Through presenting twelve case studies of teachers at the end of initial teacher education, induction, experiencing the first two to three years of teaching and more experienced practitioners the study analyses the nature of professional knowing as well as its interrelations, origins and development. Two research questions are addressed:

- What do beginning history teachers know? How does this relate to existing models of professional knowledge?
- Where does their professional knowledge come from? What are its origins? What factors influence its development?

The study draws upon a constructivist interpretation of professional knowing (Cochran et al, 1993) rejecting the static nature of knowledge and instead presents knowing as a dynamic entity. The study also draws upon Eraut's (1996, 2007) epistemology of practice, specifically the interplay between context, time and modes of cognition and reflection as well as conceptions of teaching as a craft (Cooper and McIntyre, 1996). In addition, the study acknowledges the nature of situated learning and identifies how early career teachers develop within different communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

Inspired by life history research, a mixed methodology is used to examine how childhood experiences, schooling and pre-professional education combine with formal and situated learning. Interviews exploring "critical incidents" (Tripp, 1994) are used to encourage participants to reflect and associated narratives are analysed using a constructivist conceptualisation of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2005), to reveal the

temporal and spacial dimensions (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000) of professional knowing as well as broader “genealogies of context” (Goodson and Sykes, 2001) telling of changes in history education over the last three decades.

The findings illustrate how early career history teachers draw upon their knowing of history, pedagogy, resources, learners and context as well as their beliefs and values. Whilst it will be shown that these areas of knowing can be described and illustrated discretely, they work in complex ways with each other and decisions, actions or reflections often necessarily draw upon complex inter- relationships. Whether intuitively or deliberately, these ways of knowing are developed through interactions between personal historical forces, learning situations and shifting professional contexts.

Drawing on these findings the thesis makes an original contribution in presenting a new model of professional knowing connecting historical, pedagogical, curriculum knowing, knowing about learners, the context, and ideological knowing with teacher reflectivity; all situated in an envelope that recognises the roots, complexity and fluidity of what history teachers know including personal histories, formal and informal learning experiences and their environments.

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Professional knowing among early career history teachers**

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Prelude: A Tale of Two History Teachers

“Mr. B”

I remember Mr B as a stocky man, boasting a full facial beard, who always gave the impression of being larger than life. At the time, my peers and I thought he looked like Henry VIII (or what I came to know as his image from one of Holbien's later portraits¹). On reflection he looked nothing like the Tudor monarch - he was younger, dark haired and a lot thinner - but to a young teenager those things obviously didn't matter. He was my favourite history teacher, indeed my favourite teacher. He seemed to know absolutely everything about the past: he could recall in detail every inter war challenge faced by the League of Nations; describe all of Bismarck's qualities as a statesman and his personal vanities as a Prussian Junker, and he could bring them all to life through grand narratives, gripping storytelling and quirky anecdotes.

These stories would be shared in lessons as a matter of course, but for the enthusiastic and interested (and at my school there seemed pretty few), they would continue into lunch breaks or after school during which we were never given the impression he needed to be anywhere else. So entrenched in history was Mr B. that he believed, or made us believe he believed, he was the reincarnated spirit of George, a fallen colonel from the charge of the light brigade. Beyond his historical yarns he taught using a regular diet of board work, note taking from textbooks, essay practice and quizzes on key dates, Acts of Parliament or conditions of treaties.

Outside of the classroom Mr B was equally inspiring. He was head of a pastoral “house” and was regularly in consultation with pupils and parents in trying to support them through a challenging comprehensive school environment. He seemed to give his time to everyone and his informality - Mr. B is not a pseudonym - made many children feel at ease.

Mr Hansen (or Richard in the Sixth Form)

In the 1980s Mr Hansen seemed to epitomise the archetypal image of a trendy teacher. He dominated his classroom in a flecked jacket with sleeves rolled up and a

¹ Portrait of Henry VIII aged 49 painted in 1540 by Hans Holbein (1497 - 1543)
currently located: Palazzo Barberini, Rome, Italy

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loose knitted silk tie half masking the undone top button of his shirt. His approach to history teaching matched his then fashionable appearance.

In Mr Hansen's history lessons you didn't rote learn Disraeli's reforms, you were asked to sort through their causes and consequences and consider their merits. You didn't just read about them in a textbook either, you often looked at facsimiles of the real legislation along with many other primary source documents. Moreover, you rarely referred to David Thompson's (1957) *Europe Since Napoleon*. Instead you were given photocopies of articles critiquing 19th Century history from a Marxist perspective or challenged to consider alternative interpretations. There was very little time for a good story because we were too busy holding debates with each other and arguing with him. Mr Hansen wasn't as interested in telling us about his favourite slice of the past, he wanted us to find out for ourselves, through our own personal investigation, what made us interested in history. Thanks to him I began a lifelong fascination with Chartism and other forms of working class political consciousness.

Five years later as a potential history teacher I observed Mr Hansen teach history to 12 year old pupils. He continued to be inspirational - drawing pupils into an enquiry about the course of the Great Plague in Stuart London using higher order questions, photocopied woodcuts of burials and 34 Pritt Sticks.

Mr B. and Richard Hansen are very important to me. As my history teachers they help tell the story of how I came to develop a fascination with the past, to embark on undergraduate and higher degree study of the discipline and, perhaps most importantly, I know they helped shape my thinking about my chosen profession and how I taught history. From Mr B comes my enthusiasm for the subject and the recognition that narrative remains central to good history teaching. He also presented me with a model of teaching that extended beyond the subject; privileging the ready display of humour and recognising that pupils were young people with as many talents and interests as problems and challenges. For many years, and certainly up to the start of my own initial teacher education, I wanted to be another Mr. B.

It was not until I went into my first teaching placement that I realised being Mr. B would not work. Or rather it would not work with the vast majority of pupils I'd be teaching. Knowing that Hitler hid in a wardrobe after the failed Munich Putsch might amuse and

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inspire some, but it was not going to motivate the majority of my Year 9s! Indeed, it soon became clear as I struggled to make history accessible, that Mr B's model of teaching - board work, textbooks and lots of me talking, would not get me or my learners very far. It was then that I searched for other influences and recalled the pupil centred techniques favoured by a teacher I'd experienced in my final years at school. I had never considered Mr Hansen a likely role model at the time, but the more I reflect, the clearer I am that nobody taught me more about history teaching than he did. As I shifted my focus from my performance to the pupils in the class, history became a subject we could all enjoy and learn from; I never needed to look backwards again.

Introduction

1.1 - The politics of history teaching

Clearly Mr B and Richard Hansen were very influential in the formation of my identity and practice as an early career teacher (and beyond) but the importance of their inclusion at the start of this thesis extends beyond providing some personal or professional context to this study or presaging later analysis of life history as a preferred methodological approach. These vignettes reveal a great deal about the focus of my research: the development of professional knowing among history teachers.

Specifically their different strengths and approaches illustrate the contentious history of the curriculum at the end of the 20th Century and the nature of history as a knowledge base in schools. Mr. B could be identified as an exponent of the “great tradition” (Sylvester, 1994) or as Slater (1989) described it “an inherited consensus”. This history, taught for the majority of this century, focused on the deeds of great leaders and was delivered through a transmission model of teaching. Mr Hansen on the other hand, seems an advocate of “new history” (Phillips, 1998) which, influenced by Bruner, emphasised pupils’ capacity for active learning and the acquisition of skills rather than just content knowledge.

In schools today, many effective classroom practitioners have long moved away from teaching either traditional or new history and look for synergies between the two in meeting the challenges of a centrally prescribed though regularly evolving history curriculum (QCA, 2007). Reports on their progress and practice are regularly shared in the pages of *Teaching History*, a professional journal of practitioner research. However, although respected academics (Counsell, 2003) have argued for an end to this dichotomy, and professional teacher educators and reflective practitioners work hard to reconcile differences, conflict between policy makers, interest groups, academics and teachers about how best to teach the past continue to resurface.

It is a regular occurrence that a new “expert” with a view on history teaching will reopen the wounds with a new critique of what has gone wrong with history teaching. Dr David Starkey, one of the UK’s most high profile historians, recently launched into an unfounded critique (in that it was not based on a single visit to a classroom) of modern

history teaching. After recalling the poverty of his childhood experiences of learning history at the hands of school masters, Starkey went on to assert that:

the way we[sic] teach history is fundamentally wrong ... The skills-based approach to the teaching of history is a catastrophe. ... which prioritises the historian over history and method over content, leading to an utterly vulgar notion of relativism. ... It is also profoundly wasteful of time. A skills-based approach consumes endless time.

(2005)

Instead of focusing on nurturing critical analysis, Starkey has called for the delivery of a curriculum that is celebratory of English history - the Civil War, the Glorious Revolution, Individualism and the work of great reformers like William Wilberforce or Lord Shaftesbury. Elsewhere, after another autobiographical preamble, Professor Keith Jenkins, another historian as discrete from Starkey's "great tradition" as you could get, criticised history teachers for their reluctance to reflect upon the "metaphysical, ontological, methodological aesthetic" of their chosen subject (2005). The disparagements of history teachers by well known academics are not restricted to the echoing halls of lecture theatres, indeed because some of them enjoy large television or reading audiences, their controversial views make attractive and compelling headlines:

Trendy teaching is producing a generation of history numbskulls by Professor Derek Matthews

(Clark, 2nd July 2009)

Niall Ferguson: 'Rid our schools of junk history'

(Asantha, 21st March, 2010)

If criticisms of schools' history were restricted to a few "celebrity" historians, history teachers could shrug off annoying and often misguided publicity and focus on their pupils. But the British education system does not work that way. Schools, the curriculum and the teachers who deliver it, operate in a highly political environment. Policy makers sensitive to opinion writers and the targeted electorate, respond with regularity in trying to shape the content and nature of schools' history. Phillips (1998) has carefully examined the ways in which historical and political forces shaped and reshaped the position and substance of history in the National Curriculum. Yet the establishment of what is more or less a prescribed Programme of Study, moderated slightly through four versions of the National Curriculum (DfES, 1991, DfE, 1995, DfEE, 1999, QCA, 2007), have not deterred politicians from seeking to influence the nature of

history teaching. For example, in 2004, under direct guidance from the outgoing Education Secretary, Charles Clarke, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority published an online report instructing teachers on securing pupils' knowledge of key dates in British history and chronological understanding (QCA, 2004).

Historic forces within the UK have thrown into relief further debates about the role of schools' history. Mass murder in London by British born Islamist suicide bombers on the 7th July 2005 prompted many questions over the development of national identity among young people. Concerned with fostering a sense of Britishness, both dominant political parties in the UK called for history to be strengthened as a vehicle for developing national identity. Yet, if studying what it means to be British is a shared goal, how that Britishness is taught and the nature of the knowledge required is viewed differently by both left and right. Labour MP Gordon Marsden, who led an informal advisory group on history teaching has been one of the most vocal on the left arguing that a topic based "Yo! Sushi experience of historical understanding", must end in favour of long term narratives which identify the historic contributions made by Britain's multi-ethnic population (Marsden, 2006). However on the right there is an appetite for more patriotic history that focuses on identifying the cornerstones of British achievements in history. To the Conservatives so fundamental is history in shaping Britishness, that the party who removed compulsion for history to be taught to 16 have considered the reverse (Smith, 2006). These enduring disputes between different political forces about national identity and history teaching are not isolated to the UK and as such academics have identified how the nature of history teaching is contested globally, impacting upon teachers in the United States, Canada and Australia (Nash et al, 2000, Seixas, 2000 and Clark, 2006).

Such debates, which often blame the teachers who deliver the curriculum, actually focus on a notion of received knowledge; power over which currently rests with the government. As John (1991) has summarised, questions like: "what body of historical knowledge should be taught in schools and how should that knowledge be assessed?" dominate the discourse. Instead of focusing on a deficit model which seeks to identify and castigate gaps in the historical understanding of pupils and their teachers, lines of enquiry could be focused differently. Arguably more important for the success of any curricula, regardless of its content, as well as the achievement and well being of pupils in history classrooms, is an understanding of what it is that history teachers actually

know. For it is the knowledge of history teachers which is used to navigate, interpret and deliver required programmes of study. Many argue that understanding this knowledge should not be restricted to how much is known about the past (what Shulman, 1987, among others has described as subject matter knowledge), but crucially must also include awareness of how to teach, how to moderate teaching in response to different learner needs and what beliefs and values influence the process. This more inclusive definition would be broadly recognised by many as teachers' professional knowledge (Eraut, 1994, John, 1996, Cooper and McIntyre, 1996).

1.2 - Professional knowledge and knowing

The nature of professional knowledge remains a central concern for all those involved in initial teacher education and the continuing professional development of established teachers. Historically, the profession itself in partnership with higher education institutions has taken responsibility in defining, shaping and promoting this professional knowledge. However as Furlong (2005) has explained, through centralisation of the sector, the introduction of market competition and the use of inspectorates, successive Conservative and Labour governments have intervened in initial teacher education on an unprecedented scale, externally defining and managing teacher professionalism. Within England, the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) became the lead regulatory body with statutory responsibility for the preparation and development of the school workforce and as such, by setting official expectations and requirements, legally controls the professional knowledge that must be demonstrated at the end of the preparation period. In recent years this has been achieved through the establishment and revision of professional standards (TTA, 1998, TTA 2002, TDA, 2007) as well as guidance on how teachers of all disciplines should draw upon their subject knowledge in teaching (TDA, 2007). During these developments Furlong has concluded that in England "teacher education has now become narrowly functional; an entirely 'technical rationalist' enterprise" (2005: 127).

While officially charged with working within centralised boundaries, many teacher educators encourage new teachers to think about their own particular professional 'chemistry' (Cooper and McIntyre, 1996) and look elsewhere for more nuanced understandings of the knowledge bases involved in learning to teach. Professional knowledge continues to be a significant focus for researchers and many have sought to

explain the significance of teachers' thinking and the knowledge that guides their practice. Subsequently, 'craft knowledge' (Brown and McIntyre, 1988), 'professional knowledge' (Eraut, 1994, 1996.), 'pedagogical subject knowledge' (Shulman, 1987), and 'reflection' (Schon, 1983) have all emerged as conceptual frameworks to analyse how teachers think and apply their knowledge.

Although offering powerful theoretical models, one of the limitations identified with such scholarship is the way in which knowledge is often presented as static phenomena (Cochran et al, 1993). Informed by constructivist perspectives (Von Glaserfeld, 1995) I have been interested in how professional knowledge might be reconsidered to recognise the relationships between what is known and how it is known. As this study will make explicit, focusing on the dynamic nature of knowing rather than its unachievable conclusion, offers a more authentic understanding of what and how teachers learn. For the purposes of this study, the term knowledge is initially used in exploring the research discourse, especially when describing the conclusions of others, however as I explain my methodology, analyse my findings and offer alternative theories, "knowing" is preferred as a guiding critical concept.

Moving beyond generic models, some have gone further in presenting specific theoretical representations for history teachers. John (1991) has identified different but complementary complex knowledge bases (of history, of history pedagogy, of institution, etc) as well as the ideological influence of beliefs, values and attitudes. Although untested, this has been influential as a way of helping teacher educators and students to think about the varying types of knowledge that could effectively be used to guide practice. More recently Husbands et al (2003) have offered a more comprehensive and empirically grounded analysis of history teaching, identifying effective classroom practice and making links between aims and intentions as well as professional and institutional contexts.

Whilst highly significant in opening the lid on what established history teachers know, there continues to be a need for more empirical investigations into what constitutes this professional knowledge and what factors impact upon its development, especially among newer teachers. Indeed how and why this professional knowledge develops is less clearly charted and although some research has isolated the importance of school mentoring (Furlong and Maynard, 1995), educational theory - both history specific and

general (Pendry and Husbands, 2000), higher education teacher educators (John, 1996) and pre initial teacher education experiences (Virta, 2002), no extensive review of how these different factors inter-relate has been conducted within the specific field of history teacher education.

This study is therefore positioned at the intersection between national policy developments in teacher education and the ways in which researchers have sought to understand the nature of professional knowledge. It seeks to challenge the ‘technical rationalist’ misconception that learning to be a teacher is “akin to jumping through hoops or driving a car” (Phillips, 2002: 3) and aims to make explicit that teaching (history) cannot and should not be reduced to the application of some acquired skills or techniques. Recognising the progress made by many in opening up such understandings my research seeks to explore the ongoing dialogue between what and how knowing is constructed with a particular focus on early career history teachers. Consequently through the analysis of my own data and in comparison with existing theory, this thesis presents an original model of professional knowing connecting historical, pedagogical, curriculum, contextual, ideological knowing and knowing about learners with teacher reflectivity; all situated in an envelope that brings to the fore teachers’ own histories, formal and informal learning experiences, and the environments and contexts in which they learn and develop.

1.3 – Life histories: listening and talking to teachers

A central methodological stance of this study is that an effective means to understanding professional knowing is through listening to teachers themselves. Getting to “know” any teacher requires the adoption of an appropriate and effective methodology. Through a previous critical analytical study, (Thompson, 2003) I had explored the potential of life history concepts and methods in trying to discover more about teachers’ lives. Influenced by Goodson’s argument that

... to understand teacher development and curriculum development and to tailor it accordingly we ... need in short to know more about teacher’s lives ...
(1991: 36).

I have sought to work with teachers to explore their understandings and perceptions of professional knowledge and its origins. For the purposes of this study life history is

understood as an attempt by an individual or in collaboration with others to use accounts of a person's life in conjunction with other material to set that life story in an immediate and wider social and historical context. Life stories therefore are (some of) the stuff which life histories are made of (Goodson and Sikes, 2001).

Such distinctions are fundamental since some research has tended to focus only on personal stories or the teachers' practice (Bell, 1995). The former whilst illuminating the individual, ignores the wider context and reduces its wider applicability and effectiveness. As Hargreaves has argued, the challenge to educational researchers in the postmodern era is:

to connect the localized narratives of students, teachers and parents within their own schools, to the big pictures or grand narratives of educational and social change that are taking place 'out there' beyond their classroom walls, in ways that directly affect their lives.

(1999: 341)

It is this which makes life history a powerful approach in studying teachers' lives rather than life stories. Equally life history is opposed to studies which focus exclusively on teachers' practice at the expense of recognizing that teaching is socially and politically constructed. Such practice based studies run the risk of reducing teachers to technicians or as Goodson and Numan have described "routinised and trivialized deliverers of pre-designed packages" (2002: 272). Therefore this study brings together a focus on what participants know about their practice with an associated exploration of what temporal, contextual and individual factors (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000) they think have helped shape them as history teachers.

Through my experience of being a teacher and my current role as a teacher educator, I know what it is to be a classroom teacher on the receiving end of new policy initiatives and curriculum changes and I have at different stages in my own career thought critically about my professional image and my desire to continue teaching. I am now involved in supporting and encouraging beginning teachers and on a day to day basis I am in contact with teachers at different stages in their own career cycles. Talking with teachers about their experiences, perceptions and attitudes has become part of my own life history. Inspired by others (Bage, 1999, Day et al, 2006) my own view is that there is so much we can learn about education if we talk and listen to those involved. Some policy makers past and present seem to take the view that the education system can be improved from beyond the classroom – if teachers are told what to teach, how

to teach and offered rewards for doing so, positive improvements should follow. This technocratic approach ignores the strong evidence that teaching is a human experience (Higgs and Titchen, 2001) – teachers have their own cultures, belief systems and approaches that can't be overturned or dismissed by a new national strategy. Through listening to teachers we are likely to have a stronger understanding of teaching itself.

1.4 - The research context in three dimensions

In response to these criticisms, challenges and influences, this thesis seeks to draw upon life history methodology in exploring the nature of professional knowing among early career history teachers. My study is guided by the following two key research questions which have emerged out of my own experiences of being taught and teaching history as well as my research and practice as a teacher educator over the last eight years:

1. What do beginning history teachers know? How does this relate to existing models of professional knowledge?
2. Where does their professional knowledge come from? What are its origins? What factors influence its development?

Responding to these, I have worked with twelve early career history teachers, to examine what constitutes their professional knowing and what factors they themselves draw upon to explain its development. Given that the research focuses upon their understandings of themselves and their experiences, this enquiry has largely been based upon in-depth interviews and the analysis of different life history documents. As such, their reflections and narratives are used to both describe and interpret what they do in history classrooms and why they have chosen to teach history in the ways they do.

Like all research this thesis has boundaries, some of which are more clearly delineated than others. This study was conducted as part of a professional doctorate programme at the University of Sussex. The investigation began with a pilot interview in the summer of 2004 and the thesis itself was written six years later. During this period of research I was employed full time as faculty at the Sussex School of Education. A core responsibility during this time has been to convene and teach on the history

Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) and, in doing so, work alongside many different school teachers. The teachers who participated in the study were all connected in some way with the PGCE; as students, ex- students or as school based mentors their experience of teaching ranged between pre-qualification to five years. All were working in partnership schools when the research began. Using life history method we reflected upon the relationships between their individual practice and the contexts they worked in. In many ways this description clarifies the scope of the study.

However drawing upon Clandinin and Connelly's (2000) conceptualisation of a three-dimensional narrative inquiry space, the boundaries setting out relationships between the personal and the social, time and place can be viewed as more complex. For as much as this study links the individual accounts of beginning teachers to broader narratives surrounding the nature of professional knowing, the thesis also tells the story of a novice researcher responding to the twin demands of pressures in teacher education and debates within educational research. Equally, whilst Sussex looms large as both a regional site for different history classrooms and an institutional nexus for teacher education and research, Scottish playgrounds in the 1970s, front rooms in family homes and trips to Norman castles all feature as alternative research spaces.

Finally, temporality also follows different timelines; for at the same time as participants remember their earliest memories of engaging with the past and focus upon the extent of their professional journeys, my own reflections involve revisiting my experiences of studying history as a teenager as well as how I have coped as a mature student with growing professional responsibilities during protracted doctoral research (see Appendix A for details). Indeed given the time delay between starting the research and completion, the study explores not only who early career teachers thought they were in 2005, but also how follow up interviews allowed us to explore where they are now and the changing contexts in which they work.

Despite the complexities inherent in exploring the different dimensions of this research, the thesis itself follows a traditional structure. The chapter which follows: *Ways of Knowing What Teachers Know* surveys and critiques the different ways in which various scholars have explained and conceptualised professional knowledge. Beginning with broader and established models of teacher knowledge the chapter ends by positioning my research within studies of history specialists. Chapter three: A

History of the Research explains my methodological approach, recognising the influence of life history methods as well as others, it evaluates data gathering, the ethical challenges I encountered and how I grounded theory in my findings. Chapters four: *The dynamics of teaching the past: what does professional knowing look like?* and five: *History teachers' histories: what are the origins of professional knowing?* follow the logic of my research questions and offer an analysis of these findings. The thesis concludes with an analysis of my emerging theoretical model of professional knowing and considers its limitations and potential implications.

Chapter 2 – Ways of Knowing What Teachers Know: Unpacking Concepts and Approaches

This chapter engages with two central questions which have preoccupied researchers for the last quarter century: what is it that teachers' know and how do we come to understand this? Exploring these questions offers opportunities to analyse established models of professional knowledge and ensures that my own emerging theoretical representations recognise their heritage and establish their distinctiveness.

Defining what is meant by teachers' professional knowledge opens up a challenge in itself. A review by Verloop et al, provides a helpful summary:

The most commonly used labels are “personal knowledge” ..., indicating that this knowledge is unique; “the wisdom of practice” ... and in more recent publications, “professional craft knowledge”, ... referring to a specific component of knowledge that is mainly the product of the teacher's practical experience; ... and knowledge that is based on reflection on experiences.

(2001: 446)

Away from this extensive range of nomenclature, Eraut's pragmatic definition of professional knowledge as that: “possessed by professionals which enables them to perform professional tasks, roles and duties with quality” (1994:2) is attractively straightforward. His definition focuses on the purposes and nature of professional action rather than pre-specified areas of content and acknowledges potential overlap between professional knowledge, academic disciplines and everyday knowledge. This conceptualisation provides ample flexibility for this study to narrow its focus towards the professional action of teaching, as well as, acknowledge the potential influence of knowledge constructs from beyond the classroom (life history, subject discipline, etc). In addition, I borrow from Verloop et al's own inclusive definition of knowledge summarising:

... cognitions, from conscious and well-balanced opinions to unconscious and unreflected intuitions ... in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions and intuitions are inextricably intertwined.

(2001:446)

With definitions in place, this chapter moves to focus on the changing nature of research on teacher knowledge concentrating on the polarities, the interplay between formal and practical constructs and the associated arguments surrounding how such understandings of teacher knowledge are achieved. It critically surveys different knowledge paradigms which have come to dominate the discourse and identifies associated challenges in ways of knowing. Later sections of the chapter focus on the

relationship between subject matter and pedagogy with an overt exploration of knowing what history teaching is.

2.1 - What Teachers *Should* Know or What Teachers *Do* Know: Formal versus Alternative Paradigms of Teacher Knowledge

Developing a knowledge base of teaching has always been a central focus for educational researchers but as Connelly et al (1997) note, its earliest manifestations virtually ignored teachers themselves. Instead work tended to describe the purposes and outcomes of associated research and much subsequent research prefers to examine effective teacher strategies, behaviours and actions which result in successful pupil outcomes. In his comprehensive review of teacher knowledge, Fenstermacher attributes this conceptualisation as 'formal' and prescribes the oft-quoted description: "*knowledge for teachers*" (1994: 7).

Hagger and McIntyre (2000) identify the work of Gage (1978) as archetypical of this 'process - product' kind, which seeks to discover teaching and learning practices (processes) which reliably lead to achievement(s) (products). A citation from Gage's *The Scientific Basis of the Art of Teaching*, testifies to its epistemic foundations: "good teaching ... [is] ... attainable by closely following rigorous laws that yield high predictability and control" (Gage, 1978: 17). Gage's work is clearly recognisable for its science-orientated approach, including preoccupations with validity and generalisability.

Hoyle and John (1995) agree that rationalist conceptions of knowledge have dominated the discourse but also attribute early and continued dominance to an enduring campaign to establish teaching as a recognisable profession. Using comparisons with the classical conception of professionalism in medicine, they illustrate how some academics (Reynolds, 1989) have remained convinced that teaching requires a codified body of knowledge drawing upon "universal laws of educational activity based on research ... in ... human science" (1995: 49). However they argue, alongside Eraut (1994), that assumptions that such research validated knowledge would be transferred into practice, have never really materialised.

Chapter 2 – Ways of Knowing What Teachers Know: Unpacking Concepts and Approaches

Critics have argued that despite failings in knowledge transfer, ideological forces have sought to maintain the importance of formal teacher knowledge. Eraut (1994) is alert to the danger of accepting the knowledge claims of the teaching profession itself at face value, arguing that formal knowledge underpins:

... claims for status, territory and expertise which could be contested; and they aim to create a favourable public opinion of the profession. Consider for example the doctor's habit of translating a symptom into Latin and presenting it back as a diagnosis, - an effective technique for sustaining an aura of both mystery and certainty - and the illusion of precision created by a numerical score on an achievement test.

(1994: 8)

Beyond such ideological origins, formal teacher knowledge research has been rejected by critical research perspectives. Haggard and McIntyre rebuff efforts by some to generate a 'technology of teaching' and question the value of their probabilistic generalisations which are often abstract in nature and heavily context specific (2000). Equally, Verloop et al point to its failure to recognise the complex and inter-related nature of the teachers involved, both in the generation of knowledge and in its reception by classroom users (2001). Indeed, it is the practitioners themselves which have led the way in rejecting rationalist conceptions. Beginning teachers have long been highly vocal in identifying a mismatch between "theory" and the knowledge bases they encounter in school classrooms (Eraut, 1994). More powerful opposition has occurred when academics and teachers have co-operated in exploring the significance of teachers' thinking and their actions through the dramatic rise of the action -research movement (Stenhouse, 1975; Cochran-Smith, 1999) which encourages and supports practitioners to examine their own practice.

Despite critiques and the emergence of alternative paradigms, formal teacher knowledge continues to exert considerable influence. Within the academy, *knowledge for teachers* remains a popular focus and approach. For example, *Effective Teaching: Evidence and Practice* (Muijs and Reynolds, 2005), has established itself as a core text for many teacher education courses and new teachers across the country are encouraged to draw upon its presentation of teacher effectiveness research. Yet despite its opening chapter bemoaning the neglect of the teacher in educational research, its evidence base and approach

focuses on the complexity of technical classroom skills. Husbands et al, (2003) have also identified the way in which the knowledge which underpins the ways teachers behave is ignored, including the importance of that which pertains to the subject matter. Moreover, the models presented portray the teacher operating in some moral vacuum without any interplay with a teacher's own value system.

With arguably more power and authority, the English government has established its own body of formal knowledge concerned with what makes teachers effective. In contrast to the academic traditions outlined above, this material ranges from research informed policy (drawing inspiration from process-product models), to official performance criteria. Most obviously, in 1999 the government commissioned management consultants Hay McBer to investigate the characteristics of effective teaching. Using large scale interviews, questionnaires, observations and focus-group discussions Hay McBer (2000) identified three main factors within teachers' control that they asserted significantly influenced pupils' progress: professional characteristics, teaching skills and classroom climate. Despite focusing on observed behaviours rather than associated knowledge, these "tips of the iceberg" (Turner-Bisset, 2001: 7) were subsequently used to establish standards for threshold assessment in teachers' pay scales. The findings and methodology of the report were severely criticised by the research community. A British Educational Research Association (BERA) research seminar in 2001 questioned the narrow definition of teaching as exclusively outcomes focused and challenged the stated correlation between observed ideal behaviours in teachers and positive pupil outcomes. More importantly, the seminar exposed several methodological limitations and raised concerns about any government driven research which did not place its data within the public domain to be tested and critiqued by other researchers (Bassey, 2001: 9).

Further directives aimed at shaping teachers' behaviours came from the National Strategies (www.nationalstrategies.standards.dcsf.gov.uk) which have become a powerful force in a drive to raise standards of pupil achievement by establishing what constitutes good practice in teaching across the curriculum and key stages. However, as critics have identified, whilst clearly drawing upon research, the strategies have

... placed more emphasis on drawing politically acceptable conclusions than on delineating careful arguments to support - and particularly qualify - these

conclusions. In particular, although annotated bibliographies were eventually published, no serious attempt was made to indicate how specific proposals had been derived from, influenced by, or tested against particular bodies of research.
(Ruthven, 2005: 408)

Taking this approach to an extreme and in direct contrast to the forms of teacher knowledge already discussed, the current standards for Qualified Teacher Status in England (TDA, 2007) outlining the professional competences which all aspiring teachers must meet, have no direct research base and appear to have no explicit relationship with academic teacher knowledge. Given that these establish a national baseline for what teachers should know and be able to do, the significance of their powerful and enduring influence cannot be understated. This competency-based approach has been regularly critiqued as instrumentalist, which reduces teachers to little more than technicians. Whilst the particular nature of Standards for QTS have been subject to thorough criticism (Turner-Bisset, 1999) it is the recognition that any list of standards or competences can only provide a very partial representation of what being a teacher is about. The failure of these standards to accommodate the knowledge which a teacher brings to any given situation, ultimately limits their effectiveness.

In direct contrast, research asking: “What do teachers know?” (Fenstermacher, 1994:7) fundamentally shifts both enquiry and methodological approach to a focus on teachers. According to Connelly et al, looking at what teachers know and how their knowing is expressed,

affects every aspect of the teaching act ... teachers’ relationships with students; teachers’ interpretations of subject matter and its importance in students’ lives; teachers’ treatments of ideas ...; teachers’ curriculum planning and evaluation of student progress; and so on
(1997: 666)

Although such research looking at “knowledge of teachers” is sometimes described as practical or personal (Fenstermacher, 1994:8) many different methodologies, concepts or ways of knowing are nested under such headings.

The work of Elbaz (1983) is cited (Hoyle and John, 1995) as a pioneer in such work. Focusing initially on one teacher, “Sarah”, Elbaz (1983) used observations and

interviews to explore how her understanding of teaching developed out of personal and practical interpretations and perceptions of experiences within the classroom. Unlike many of her predecessors, Elbaz was unconcerned with gauging what (if anything) made Sarah effective nor was she interested in her use of codified knowledge. Instead, the two year study looked at the relationships between Sarah's self perceptions and her lived experience in the classroom. Conceptualising findings, Elbaz identified the self, classroom/school milieu, subject matter, curriculum development and instruction as central areas of professional knowledge. Reflecting on this examination of teaching "from the inside", Elbaz argued that narrative which was used to both elicit and present the story of Sarah was more than just a methodology but the very purpose of her work, arguing that it became: "an epistemological claim that teachers' knowledge in its own terms is ordered by story and can best be explained in this way" (1991:3).

The centrality of story and the conceptual evolution of personal practical knowledge has been comprehensively promoted through the work of Clandinin and Connelly (1997, 2000). They explain their understanding of teacher knowledge, as a rejection of something objective and independent, learned and transmitted, but rather the sum total of an individual teacher's experience. To them personal practical knowledge:

... capture[s] the idea of experience in a way that allows us to talk about teachers as knowledgeable and knowing persons. [It] ... is in the teacher's past experience, in the teacher's present mind and body, and in the future plans and actions. Personal practical knowledge is found in the teacher's practice. It is, for any one teacher, a particular way of reconstructing the past and the intentions of the future to deal with exigencies of a present situation

(Connelly, et al, 1997: 666).

In seeking a synergy between an individual's personal knowledge and the contexts in which they teach, Clandinin and Connelly (2000) adopt the metaphor of "professional knowledge landscapes", encouraging discussions about time, place, diverse peoples and the intellectual and moral relationships between them all.

At the heart of their work, is a drive to place teachers themselves at the centre of any understanding of teacher knowledge and to give them credit for what they know. This is not only the goal of their endeavors but permeates into their methodology which also privileges the use of story. The research approach is genuinely participatory and

collaborative with negotiated purposes and interpretations and the co-authorship of field texts including amongst others, interviews/conversations, journals and autobiographical writing. Throughout the process of investigating personal practical knowledge and exploring the nature of revealed images, the researchers emphasise the need to recognise the full and complete experience of each teacher, arguing for the central importance of narrative unity.

Primarily concerned with the epistemological nature of concepts of knowledge, Fenstermacher (1994) is quick to question the foundations of personal practical knowledge. He is critical of the extent to which such research accepts and grants the status of knowledge to any teacher's insights regarding what happens in a classroom, instead preferring to accord such statements the status of knowledge only after "a categorical standard" is agreed. However this criticism seems to totally miss the complexity of the analysis that follows teacher narratives and seems to belie Fenstermacher's own preoccupations. Those who make use of narrative often eschew positivist rules of validity and generalisability anyway preferring to establish their own measures of quality through concepts like authenticity and transferability (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000). However reading some narrative studies it is easier to agree with Fenstermacher that levels of abstraction and metaphor sometimes obscure the practical nature of the knowledge itself.

2.2 Professional Knowledge in Action: Reflective Practice, Situated Learning and Craft Knowledge

A more concrete treatment of practical knowledge is offered by Schon (1983; 1987) and those he has inspired (e.g. Russell and Munby, 1989; Clarke, 1995). Like others focusing on practice, Schon rejects the dominant technical rationality where: "professional activity consists in instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique" as misguided, irrelevant and misleading (1983: 21). Influenced by Schon, Clarke illustrates how this approach might play out in a classroom: "Simply put: if this is problem A; apply technique A; if this is problem B, apply technique B, and so forth" (1995: 245) arguing that such a view misconceives problems of practice as routine, knowable in advance, and applicable across multiple settings. Schon points out that the "swampy lowland" of practice is not like this. Instead, professional situations are often confused and

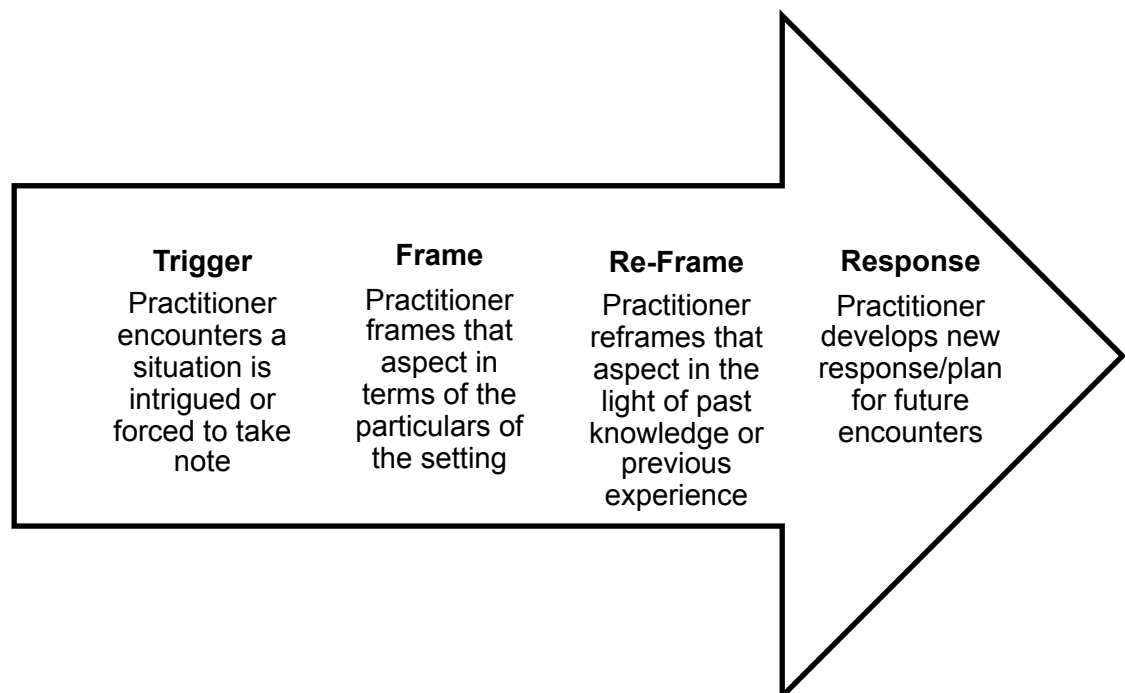
complex where practitioners often encounter non-routine problems which don't fit the labels of A, B or even Z. Moreover, as Schon explains:

Often we cannot say what it is that we know. When we try to describe it, we find ourselves at a loss, or we produce descriptions that are obviously inappropriate. Our knowing is ordinarily tacit, implicit in our pattern of action and in our feel for the stuff with which we are dealing. It seems right to say our knowing is in our action.

(Schon, 1983: 490)

Schon has encouraged others to shift focus on knowing-in-action. Central to this process is the conception of reflective practice, displayed by effective professionals as they engage with challenges. By “reflecting in action”, practitioners engage in a process of problem setting and framing, whereby: “we name the things to which we attend and frame the context in which we will attend to them” (Schon, 1983: 39). If the problems are relatively new or perceived solutions fail (or succeed) a continuing process of setting, framing and reframing can be undertaken (see figure 1 below). Schon argued that genuinely reflective practitioners take this further by seeking out different puzzles thereby avoiding repetitive practice and “overlearning”.

Figure 1: Schon's Definition of Reflective Practice after Clarke (1995: 246)



Munby and Russell's (1989) review of Schon's work raises important questions about the limitations of Schon's theories and the ways in which they might be developed. Although never the stated or original intended focus, Munby and Russell (1989) and others (Convery, 1998) take Schon to task for his failure to address school teaching as the central focus in his work. Although considered in *Educating the Reflective Practitioner* (1987), Schon's "over simplified examples" (Convery, 1998: 200) examining the practice of jazz musicians or baseball pitchers, do not approximate the complexities of teaching in a classroom, where goals and outcomes are arguably more multifaceted and complex. Eraut's (1994) observations are more grounded and help explain the bias of Schon's selection, pointing out that most of the examples tend towards illustrating professional creativity and artistry rather than everyday general professional tasks. Although some of these criticisms seem to assail Schon for not fulfilling *their* desires, critics' concerns do raise an important question about how far his theories can relate to teacher knowledge.

Those who quarrel with his work raise questions about the value of reflection in action to teachers. Focusing on the rhetoric of Schon's work, Convery (1998) identifies the nature of his broad appeal, arguing that being "knowledgeable in a special way ... offers teachers the opportunity to rediscover their professionalism, emancipated from the dominance of expert outsider theorists" (1998: 200). However, whilst this may explain its (perceived) popularity, it does not account for a change of approach in many teacher education departments, where the the intrinsic benefits of getting new teachers to think about what they are doing rather than focus on pure educational theory has been recognised. More powerfully, Convery notes the difficulties encountered when reflection-in or on action takes place in isolation, identifying an observed persistence in many practitioners for self-protective individualism or a failure in close proximity to notice what is happening beyond immediate practice issues. Similarly, Eraut (2002) warns that because many beginning teachers necessarily focus on classroom management before addressing pupils' learning, the latter can be rejected (regardless of its potential) because it does not sit within their established schemata at that time.

More fundamentally, drawing upon Michael Huberman's characterization of classrooms as "busy kitchens", Eraut questions whether reflection-in-action is truly possible within schools:

While Schon referred to 'hot action' situations ... he reverted to cooler situations with plenty of time to think when developing the concept more fully. Yet, once one moves to cool action, the distinction between reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action breaks down

(2002: 374)

Eraut recognises the distinctive impact of temporality within school contexts, accurately noting the absence of quiet periods especially during teaching, so that any explicit reflection is more likely to be an intuitive response rather than acknowledged reflection. Moreover, Eraut's recognition of the profession's intensive nature means that even time outside of teaching is more likely to be focused on marking or administration than self conscious reflection-on-action.

Eraut's own research (e.g. 1994; 1996; 2000; 2007) has explored the construction of knowledge in action across a significant range of different professions (including accountants, midwives and engineers). In doing so, he problematises the entrenched challenge of accessing the tacit nature of what they know and the complexity of how professional knowledge is mobilised. Eraut (2000) recognizes the interplay between the use of propositional knowledge, (through its origins and epistemological status), and the cognitive resource of personal knowledge, through procedures, experience and episodic memories. Of central importance is the way in which the interplay between them is used in a specific context, time frame and manner. In a specific paper on teachers, Eraut examines the importance of context in professional knowledge development:

Classroom knowledge is built into the actual process of teaching and incorporates much of what is sometimes described as "practical know-how". ... Classroom related knowledge, on the other hand is knowledge used not during classroom action but when talking and thinking about classroom action. It includes much educational theory ... Such knowledge has to be interpreted, transformed and integrated with classroom knowledge before it can be said to be genuinely useful.

(1996:2).

This wider impact of context on knowledge development has gained greater emphasis in Eraut's (2007) more recent work into early career learning as well as that of Griffiths et al (2006). Here the challenging circumstances of induction periods are highlighted in forcing new professionals to make difficult choices of prioritization and routinisation as they struggle to survive in crowded and demanding environments.

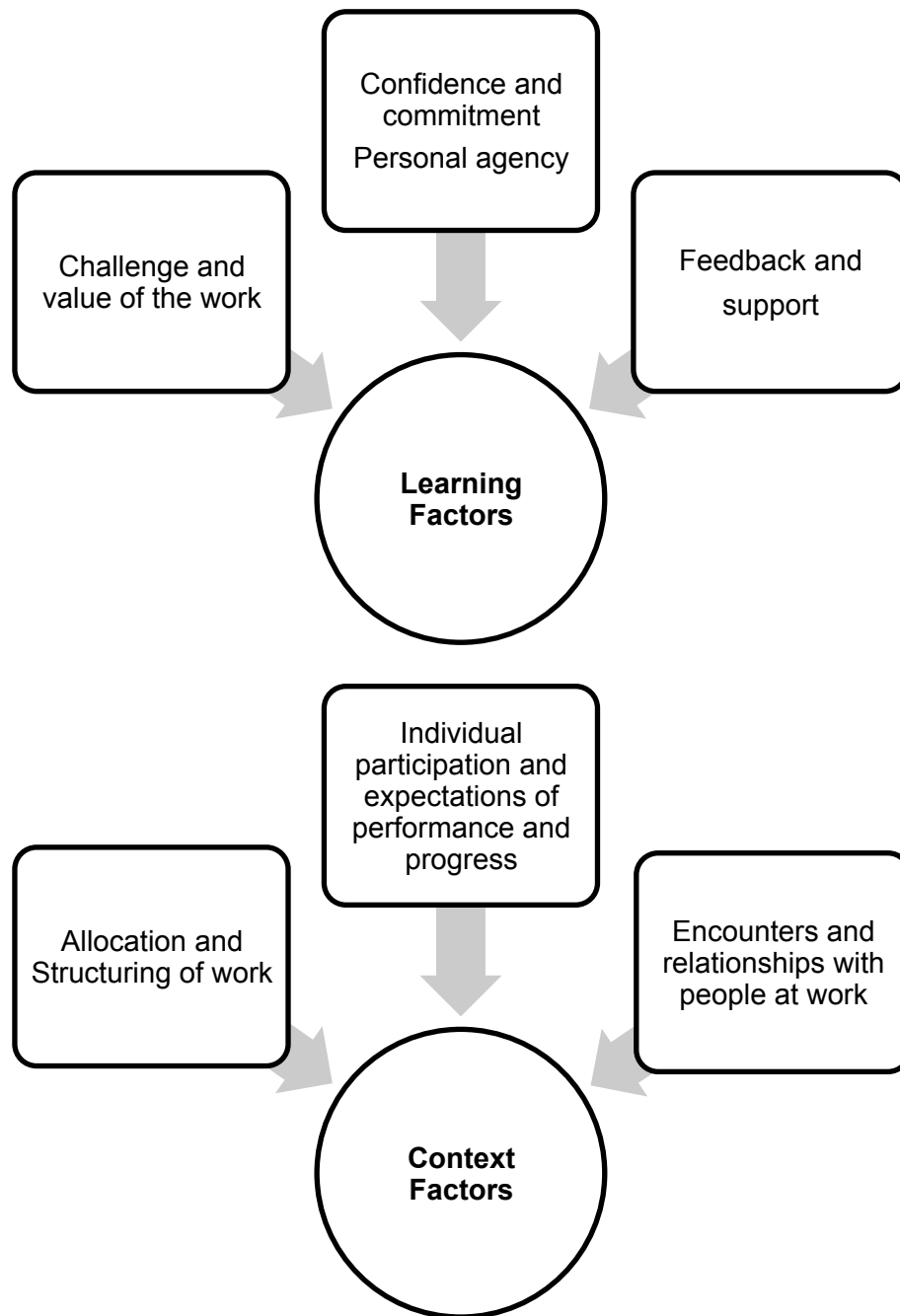
One of Eraut's (1994) most significant contributions is his recognition of the challenges accessing tacit knowledge and illuminating non-formal learning presents to professionals and researchers. As Eraut explains, "People do not know what they know, and it can be very difficult to elicit it from them. People are not fully aware of ... the constructs through which they construe the world" (1996:10). Using an iceberg metaphor Eraut (1994) gives clarity to the challenge of getting beyond the explicit and recognising the tacit nature of teacher knowledge. Much of what is "publicly" known is propositional in nature (e.g. theories of learning). This could be viewed as the tip of the iceberg which is viewed above the surface of water. How this knowledge might be used, interpreted to impact on practice is represented by the unseen bulk below sea level.

During 'hot action' – the daily pressurized classroom environment, Eraut notes that most of what is said and done develops out of personalized routines which require little thought to enact. Again Eraut (2000) clarifies this using an analogy of riding a bicycle in heavy traffic. For comparison, little thought goes into the habit of riding on an empty cycle lane, however this becomes far from routine on a busy road during rush hour. In addition to the routine of riding and keeping one's balance, there is a succession of reflex actions caused by traffic; and there may also be more deliberative thinking about the route, especially if avoiding traffic is possible. However, Eraut emphasises that whilst teachers work under constant demands for attention and whilst they draw rapid readings, they don't often resort to an autopilot of stock responses. Instead guided by moral responsibility for their actions, they switch between modes of cognition (instant and reflexive to deliberative and analytical) as they need to keep practice under "critical control" (1996: 20) by monitoring and evaluating the consequences for pupils.

Eraut's research has culminated in a sophisticated epistemology of practice addressing the dynamic and tacit nature of knowledge formation and use, where forms of practice and modes of cognition interplay with time and context. Most recently Eraut (2007) has shifted to exploring situated learning factors which affect the development of professional knowledge. Examining the experiences of early and mid career professionals, learning factors and context factors have been identified.

Figure 2 below illustrates how relationships between confidence, challenge and feedback combine with work structures, performance expectations and relationships.

Figure 2: Learning Factors and Context Factors in Early Career Professionals



Eraut (2007:419)

For example in his study, early career nurses' confidence wavered as they felt over-challenged physically, mentally and emotionally by increased responsibility post qualification and in response to the relentless pressure of ward environments. However the perceived value of their work motivated them as did their inclusion in supportive teams of co-workers. These learning factors were in turn affected by the different contextual factors e.g. a lack of autonomy over work allocation could limit commitment whereas a supportive ward manager could provide a successful learning environment. These examples and the model itself present a useful scaffold with which to consider the experiences of beginning teachers.

Eraut provides a strong theoretical basis for exploring professional knowledge in teaching, but with the exception of his research into the work of headteachers (1994), regular teachers' professional knowledge has not yet benefited from his empirical attention. This indicates a certain limitation in Eraut's work on professional knowledge for whilst he has successfully unlocked its tacit nature within a broader professional context, he has left it to others to research classroom "practical know how".

A distinct focus on this occupational "savvy" of school professionals has helped encourage a distinctive body of research on teachers' craft knowledge. Brown and McIntyre's definition is extensively referenced and provides a useful focus for elaboration, for them craft knowledge is:

... that part of their professional knowledge which teachers acquire primarily through their practical experience in the classroom ... which guides their day-to-day actions in classrooms.

(1989: 5)

However, engaging with such research is complicated by the nature of some studies (Winch, 2007) which literally equates teaching with craft work. Difficulties surrounding the "craft paradigm" are introduced by Jarvis:

Teaching, like skilled artisanship, combines the qualities of an art and a science ... Yet when used politically to diminish the status of teachers, the term 'craft' can be used to compare teaching to something anyone can do with a few simple rules, thus 'expertise' in teaching becomes linked in discourse to the content of a DIY leaflet.

(2005:14)

'Craft' therefore is seen by some as politically loaded or demeaning and the metaphorical impression it conjures can be seen to present a threat to the professional status of teachers.

Often driven by a desire to explore the potential for the advancement of teacher education, exponents of craft knowledge share a common assumption that this knowledge resides within expert teachers. For example, Leinhardt (1990:18) argues that it is very skilled teachers who possess what is sometimes described as a "wisdom of practice", encompassing a wealth of teaching information. Indeed, it is the historic and cultural metaphor of craft knowledge which helps evoke the impression of a craft guild, overseeing a hierarchy of skill, held by masters and shared with apprentices. Equally, more recent studies have argued that craft knowledge resides within experienced practitioners who identify themselves as successful experts (Day, 2006). The difficulty here is that if craft knowledge is the preserve of expert teachers – what is it that beginning teachers draw upon in their day to day practice? Craft knowledge is either distinguishable within the entire teaching profession and has a role to play in all day to day scenarios, or it exists as a specialist form of knowledge secured after considerable experience only in effective practitioners.

Initial writing on teachers' craft knowledge (Grimmet and MacKinnon, 1992) focus on the discourse of definitions and the establishment of theoretical perspectives and surveys of small case studies. Brown and McIntyre (1993) and Cooper and McIntyre (1996) are distinguishable from these by a drive to empirically identify, describe and analyse teaching in action. Using craft knowledge as the central theoretical model, both studies focused on teachers' and pupils' perceptions of what makes effective teaching and learning. Building on Brown and McIntyre's (1993) study of teaching in late 1980s Scotland, Cooper and McIntyre (1996) grappled with the often tacit and unarticulated common sense theories of teachers following the introduction of the National Curriculum in England. Cooper and McIntyre's study compared teachers' responses with the perceptions of Year 7 pupils. Their inventive methodology using informant style interviews and participant observations helped map different dimensions of teachers' craft knowledge including:

- *Long term aims, short term objectives and professional commitments.*

Chapter 2 – Ways of Knowing What Teachers Know: Unpacking Concepts and Approaches

- *Teacher performance – management, presentation and teaching methods*
- *Preferred teacher image*

They also advocated a model for effective teaching which privileged the need to seek successful “bidirectionality” (where teachers’ strategies and behaviours influenced their pupils, and pupils’ strategies and behaviours influenced their teachers) in classroom scenarios. With a specific focus on the different dimensions of craft knowledge, Cooper and McIntyre identified the interplay of two particular strands:

... technical and affective considerations represent particular concerns for teachers. Affective considerations deal with the establishment of a particular social climate in the classroom. Technical considerations tend to focus on aspects of the formal curricula.

(1995: 196)

In different manifestations, they argued these concerns dominated teacher practice and provided a focus for securing “normal desirable states of pupil activity” such as pupil engagement with the curricular content or the quality of social interaction.

In reflecting immediately after lessons, the teachers articulated on the ways in which they presented themselves to pupils and the origins of the “metaphoric” images which shaped their teaching approach and interactions with pupils. These images tended to function as a framework for teacher behaviour and helped them process classroom experiences. These images had an emotional and moral character and revealed how a broader field of personal experience and reflections upon self, curriculum subjects and pupil relationships drive and shape a teacher’s craft knowledge.

Highlighting the distinctive quality of their research into the everyday thinking of teachers, Cooper and McIntyre concluded that their study offered hypotheses, grounded in the perceptions of those in the classroom, which underpinned the importance of teachers’ craft knowledge. Few other studies have had such a considerable impact in helping to reveal the tacit nature of teachers’ craft knowledge and the success of their methodology helped shape the direction of subsequent studies into teaching (Husbands et al, 2003, Day et al, 2006).

Significant insights into both the craft elements and situated nature of knowledge-in-action are offered by Lave and Wenger’s (1991) work, which have theorised upon the

learning processes of varied apprenticeships from Mexican midwives to recovering alcoholics. Emphasising the collective and social nature of situated learning, they argue that apprentices develop “knowledge in practice” through taking on multiple roles (subordinate, aspiring and then expert) within a specific culture of practice. Moving from “legitimate peripheral participation”, ‘new-comers’ interact with ‘old-timers’ and come to belong to a “community of practice” (1991: 35-6). As such these relationships, activities and settings within and between different communities of practice provide both ‘new-comers’ and ‘old-timers’ with dynamic identities and provide:

an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge, not least because it provides the interpretive support necessary for making sense of its heritage. ... The social structure of this practice, its power relations and its conditions for legitimacy define possibilities for learning.

(1991: 98)

Lave and Wenger’s scholarship offers a more dynamic appreciation of how novices contribute to learning. Rather than merely learning existing knowledge from more experienced practitioners, the involvement of new-comers in the working practices of old-timers creates tensions surrounding potential generational replacement. This “continuity-displacement contradiction” challenges power relations and helps foster new knowledge. As Lave and Wenger explain:

Shared participation is the stage on which ... the established and the hopeful, act out their differences and discover their commonalities, manifest their fear of one another, and come to terms with their need for one another. ... Granting legitimate participation to newcomers with their own viewpoints introduces into any community of practice all the tensions of the continuity-displacement contradiction ... [This] ... is a reciprocal relation between persons and practice ... Since ... their perspectives are mutually constitutive, change is a fundamental property of communities of practice.

(1991: 116-7)

However, Lave and Wenger (1991) emphasise that access to a community of practice is always problematic. They exemplify this by considering the importance and availability of “artefacts” – language, procedures, documents, etc. which embody both utility and cultural significance. Artefacts offer, both ways to connect with the heritage of the community of practice, as well as the tools to participate practically. Some artefacts are made more or less “transparent” than others by allowing or restricting

new-comers' opportunities to participate and have access to their inner workings. As a result some learners find themselves "sequestered" and their membership to a community of practice, marginalised.

The promise of applying such concepts to initial teacher education and continuing professional development are recognised by others. Leach and Moon (2000) have considered how knowledge concepts which emphasise the social and contextual features of situated learning help teachers rethink pedagogy, both as teachers and learners themselves, especially when faced with new policy initiatives. Their findings suggested that in such cases, knowledge is:

distributed – 'stretched over' the individual, other persons, activities and tools ... [within a] ... pedagogic arena (i.e. the broad context in which learning takes place) and the pedagogic setting (i.e. the actual practice of teaching and learning within such an arena).

(2000: 394).

Specifically focusing on history teaching Letman (2005) has examined the ways in which a particular department operated as an effective community of practice. Acknowledging the importance of the right "habitat", the physical location and layout of a departmental office, Letman identified the impact of different interactions between teachers within this environment. These operated as "nodes of exchange and interpretation" and ranged from interactions which were clearly planned and strategic (e.g. departmental meetings) to those which were spontaneous in character (where 'bumping into each other' provided opportunities for problem solving). In whichever form, Letman has argued that such interactions present valuable learning opportunities, where 'beginner' teachers gain advice from those with more experience and where 'expert' teachers benefit from new approaches offered by beginning teachers (2005: 3).

A more critical reading of Lave and Wenger's work has been undertaken by Alder (1998) in her analysis of mathematics education. Alder acknowledges how understanding teaching and developing as a teacher are nested within the practice itself, and that learning is primarily underpinned by direct participation rather than instructional programmes. She relates Lave and Wenger's (1991) establishment of

legitimate peripheral participation and associated concepts of transparency and significance of artefacts, to the nature and use of textbooks. She analyses how a new teacher's access to participation was compromised by an inability to make the most of an approved textbook,

... the inner workings of which revealed mathematics as single methods and answers to problems. Her goals, in contrast, were to enable access to participation in wider conception of mathematical practice. Effective teaching (becoming a full participant) then depends not only on the availability and use of a textbook, but also knowledge of, and insight into its history and inner workings, its possibilities and limits.

(1998: 6)

However, whilst recognizing the value of Lave and Wenger's work, she challenges their reticence to engage in the specific context of secondary education. Alder problematises the issue of who is an old-timer - older pupils, established students in mathematics or mathematically schooled adults/teachers?; and what do new-comers become (mathematicians, mathematically schooled adults)? These issues have direct relevance for the identity formation of beginning teachers – for, however strong they are, as say historians, they are not in the context of classrooms practising historians and the work they undertake with pupils is not to replicate the academy, but to scaffold their understandings in a particular discourse of schools' history. In some ways, it seems harsh to take issue with Lave and Wenger about a context which they have explicitly avoided, nevertheless, Alder's critique raises some specific challenges to any simplistic application of their social learning theory to the practice of teaching.

Grossman et al's (2001) reflections on a professional development project which sought to establish a teacher learning community, offers further evidence of how situated learning impacts on the formation of professional knowledge. They emphasise that situated learning must not only focus on improving practice but also attend to the intellectual development of teachers by essentially promoting and engaging in their own subject knowledge interests. They argue that whilst educational reforms may come and go – teachers need to stay engaged in developments within their substantive area, especially when undergraduate study often remains their sole resource.

Teachers' loyalties to subjects were also identified by Grossman et al as challenges to any generic application of teacher community. In their accounts of often tortuous

tensions within and between subject areas during their two year project, it is clear that subject cultures provide significant influence on how teachers interact (or otherwise), and help them recognise that “in community as in clothing, one size does not fit all” (2001: 962). This they argue is particularly apparent in the humanities, where interpretative frameworks are contested, emotional engagement is provoked and issues of identity – gender, race, class - dominate both subject matter and individual perceptions. Therefore Grossman et al offer a compelling further axis to the polarity between ‘new-comer’ and ‘old-timer’; where the importance of subject sub-cultures can’t be underestimated.

2.3 – Relating Pedagogy to Content and Other Domains of Knowing

Recognising the centrality of subject knowledge and its relationship with a wider range of teacher knowledge domains, is regularly attributed to the influential work of Lee Shulman (1987). Initially operating within a climate of criticism of teacher education Shulman oversaw research programmes into postgraduate beginning and expert teachers which sought to identify an “elaborate knowledge base for teaching” (Shulman, 1987: 8) and establish a working typology of categories (see Figure 3 below).

Figure 3: Shulman’s Typology of Teacher Knowledge

- *content knowledge*
- *general pedagogical knowledge*
- *curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as “tools of the trade” for teachers*
- *pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding*
- *knowledge of learners and their characteristics*
- *knowledge of educational contexts*
- *knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds*

and assuming significance in interaction with learners.

Referring to the ways in which educational research had swung between content knowledge and pedagogy, Shulman identified pedagogical content knowledge as a blind spot between the two, “a missing paradigm” which included:

... the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations-in a word, the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others. ... some of which derive from research whereas others originate in the wisdom of practice

(Shulman, 1986: 9).

Shulman’s models developed out of theoretical discussions rather than his own empirical work, but he inspired others to test out the qualities of his categories and their applicability. Subsequently, his typology, and pedagogical content knowledge in particular, have established themselves as enduring concepts. Some of the subtleties of Shulman’s work are often obscured by dominating interest in this “missing paradigm”. The actual importance of the subject knowledge itself is extensively emphasised and Shulman (1986) is explicit in arguing that teachers need to be able to justify their subject’s place in the curriculum, the significance of selected content and what warrants such claims. Equally Shulman was quick to recognise a deficit in knowledge about curricular programmes, resources and textbooks. Comparing teachers to medical professionals, he argued that it was essential for teachers to have sufficient knowledge of their own “pharmacopeia of tools” (1986: 10) which could exemplify content or help frame pupil progress.

Shulman’s work has generated critics as well as advocates. An immediate response by Sockett (1987) focused on Shulman’s failure to acknowledge the importance of context. Drawing upon an elaborate golfing analogy, Sockett argued that:

Context, personality, temperament, and style are not merely adjuncts to the knowledge base [of golf]; they are the stuff of practice ... Teaching is more complex than golf. For the teacher, the unique, variable, and unpredictable elements are the human beings who are learning, individually and in groups, in hugely varying contexts and social climates

(1987: 209).

However, whilst it is true that Shulman barely acknowledges context, his work certainly does not ignore variability in learners. A closer reading of his earliest scholarship

reveals that he implicitly recognised the need for teachers to develop knowledge of the different ages and backgrounds of learners. Specifically discussing ways of tackling misconceptions, Shulman advocated that teachers need knowledge of strategies: “most likely to be fruitful in reorganising the understanding of learners, because those learners are unlikely to appear before them as blank slates” (1986: 9-10). Bullough (2001) also identifies the significance of context, arguing that:

beginning teachers may be taught a set of strategies, stories, and forms of representation for a content area that may or may not resonate with the context within which they eventually teach. The danger, then, is that the ideas become inert ... and courses that presumably focus on pedagogical content knowledge fall victim to ... charges of irrelevancy

(2001: 664)

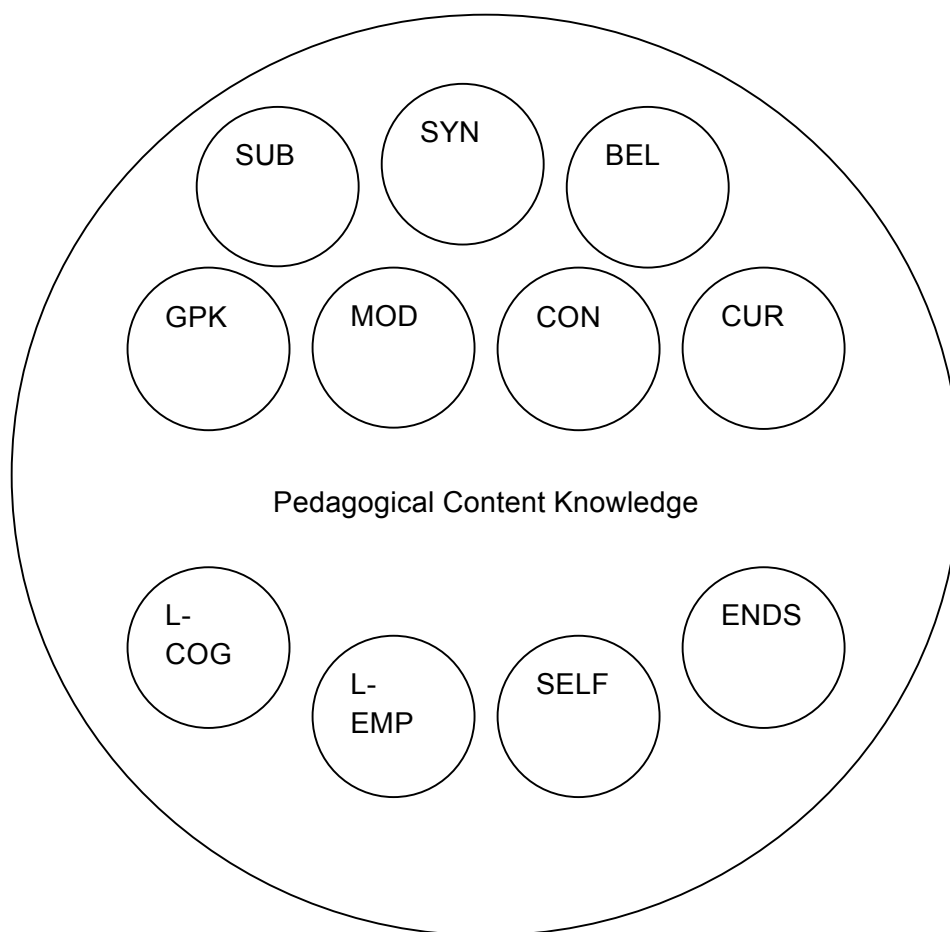
Certainly getting beginning teachers to apply the latest research on their subject can be a challenge if school settings insist on maintaining the historic norms of the department.

Despite these reservations many researchers took on case study projects exploring pedagogical content knowledge. Gudmundsdottir (1987; 1991) is one such example in the humanities. Comparing the responses of a beginning and an expert teacher in social studies, Gudmundsdottir (1987) identified the importance of subject matter specialisation (history or anthropology) within the discipline and how this interacted with curricular choices and dealing with pupil misconceptions. Unsurprisingly, pedagogical content knowledge became richer with more experience. The expert teacher was able to make use of a textbook beyond its stated aims, anticipate pupils’ misconceptions regarding monocausal explanations of the American civil war and enjoyed a broader vision to see opportunities for different themes across the history curriculum. The beginning teacher, in contrast, displayed a more limited expertise, employing textbook directed exercises, planning lessons in isolation and expressing frustration with an imposed curriculum.

Shulman has also found advocates within the UK. Turner-Bisset’s (1999a; 1999b) work not only applies his typology within a different context (history teaching in primary schools), but expands knowledge categories and reconceptualises pedagogical content knowledge. Concerned with establishing a model of experts (see figure 4 below),

Turner-Bisset (1999a) assumes Shulman's categorisation whilst sub-dividing the substantive and syntactical nature of subject knowledge, as well as the cognitive and empirical knowledge of learners. Significantly she also includes beliefs about subjects and knowledge of self, the latter essentially exemplifying reflectivity in practice.

Figure 4: Turner-Bisset's Knowledge Bases for Teaching



Key to Codes:

Substantive subject knowledge SUB
Syntactic subject knowledge SYN
Beliefs about the subject BEL
Curriculum knowledge CUR
General pedagogical knowledge GPK
Knowledge/models of teaching MOD

Knowledge of learners: cognitive L-COG
Knowledge of learners: empirical L-EMP
Knowledge of self SELF
Knowledge of educational contexts CON
Knowledge of educational ends ENDS
Pedagogical content knowledge PCK

(Turner-Bisset, 1999b: 18)

Another distinguishing feature of Turner-Bisset's model, is that pedagogical content knowledge is presented as an overarching set within this amalgam, which encompasses all other knowledge categories indicating that these knowledge domains, particularly pedagogical content knowledge, intersect through the process of teaching (though interestingly this is not illustrated above). Drawing upon different case studies, Turner-Bisset (1999b) illustrates how the more "expert" the teacher, the more these domains can be readily combined. She herself acknowledges that the model developed could be seen as a "static view of teaching" (1999a: 52) and though it is richly elucidated through examples, it would be helpful to get a sense of dynamism inherent in the process. Ellis's (2007) review of teacher knowledge literature questions the value of a more comprehensive model, arguing that the additions and subdivisions suggest fragmentation rather than complexity. It is also worth noting that Turner-Bisset's model draws upon the experience of subject specialists in the primary sector, where strengths in content knowledge vary and the focus on knowledge of learners is often more intense.

Cochran et al (1993) have developed a constructivist re-interpretation of Pedagogical Content Knowledge seeking to address concerns regarding the static nature of knowledge and simplify the range of knowledge bases. Coining the concept pedagogical content *knowing*, they establish a definition which rightly recognises knowledge as a dynamic entity. They argue that:

A teacher's integrated understanding [has] four components of pedagogy, subject matter content, student characteristics, and the environmental context of learning ...development is continual ... [this] enables teachers to use their understandings to create teaching strategies for teaching specific content in a discipline in a way that enables specific students to construct useful understandings in a given context.

(1993: 266).

This constructivist response addresses some of the initial criticisms of Shulman's work, emphasising that subject and pedagogical knowledge develop in response to the context of different learners (abilities, ages, attitudes, motivations and prior learning) and the context within which they teach (including the social, political, cultural and physical environment). Pedagogical content knowing is at the centre of four categories, highlighting overlap, fusion and movement. Their theoretical model is a

compelling one, though it is weakened by the absence of application to any empirical evidence.

Recent work by Shulman and Shulman (2004) has resulted in the refinement of their own concepts and models as they try to explain how and why teachers either excelled in, or rejected, a multi-disciplinary curriculum initiative in US schools. Subsequently they have broadened their vision of teacher knowledge and emphasised how it is constructed within the specific contexts of communities of practice. Through analysing the engagement of different individuals, they expand on a number of constructs which helped explain the development and features of accomplished teaching. Interestingly, these dimensions include dispositions and beliefs as well as recognisable knowledge domains. In summary, they argued that: “An accomplished teacher is a member of a professional community who is ready, willing, and able to teach and learn from his or her teaching experiences (2004: 259). As such, the possession of a vision (for subject and/or learner) and motivation (prepared to develop, learn or change) are just as important as understanding and practice (including both knowing how and being able to). Within the construct of “able” they redeploy their domains of teacher knowledge to include established categories, (e.g. curriculum and pedagogical content knowledge), but also emphasise context (community) and characteristics of the learner. There is also recognition that knowledge development is ongoing, rather than static and fixed. This is illustrated by the inclusion of reflection as a central dimension, whereby teachers critically engage in learning through experience and become more conscious of their understandings, performances and beliefs.

The importance of vision, values and beliefs has been identified by a range of other researchers who argue for their consideration in teacher knowledge research. Drawing on case study interviews and observations with four novice social studies teachers in America, Wineburg and Wilson (2001) demonstrate how prior experiences within disciplines played a powerful force in shaping how they viewed what they taught, its syntactical foundations, the teaching strategies they employed and goals for pupils. For example, for two teachers with strong history backgrounds, chronology was viewed as a way to draw out themes across topics and relate history to the present; in contrast non-historians could not view chronology as anything other than a string of dates to be

memorised. Even comparing the two historians illustrated how beliefs about the nature of history shaped curriculum design, with one teacher emphasising the political narrative of the New Deal whilst the other searched for ways to explore the social impact of the Depression.

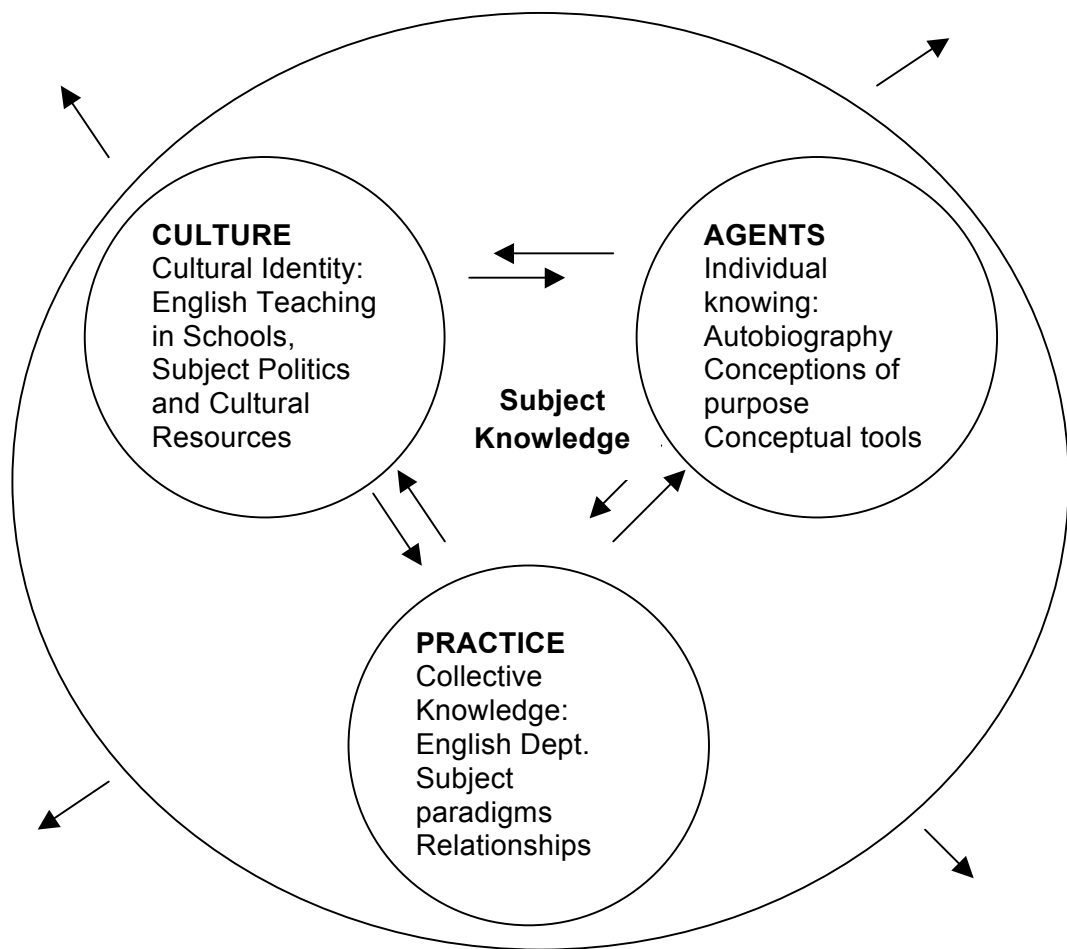
Webb and Blond (1995) have also emphasised the importance of value systems by extending the relationship between professional knowledge and personally held beliefs and values to include the esoteric nature of “caring” in teaching. They argue that caring or rather “relational knowing” (1995: 612) is often ignored in the discourse of teacher knowledge or dismissed as “fuzzy”, yet concern for pupils well being and understanding the foundations of these relationships, are often at the heart of teacher choices in preparation and actions. Banks et al (1999) go further by privileging the status of values and attitudes and develop “personal subject construct” as a central concept. Arguing that each teacher brings “a complex amalgam of past knowledge, experiences of learning, a personal view of what constitutes ‘good’ teaching and belief in the purposes of the subject” (1999:95) into their teaching. The addition of this category which emphasises personal values and beliefs is an important development in research into professional knowledge.

Ellis’s (2007) longitudinal research into the developing professional knowledge of English teachers, also draws upon the ‘personal subject construct’ and moves to situate knowledge, emphasising its collective and dynamic nature. Within the context of the introduction of government standards for initial teacher education in the late 1990s, and in particular a statutory requirement for all beginning secondary teachers to audit their subject knowledge, Ellis (2007) unpicks how teachers responded, engaged with their own subject knowledge development and learnt from experience in University and schools. Significantly Ellis argues that subject biographies (subject beliefs generated through personal learning) are not static influences but active and fluid. As such while teachers move between professional settings, either different school placements or first appointments, biographies are remade, “worked on”, as teachers re-evaluate what is important or significant in their development (2007: 151-2).

Establishing his own concept of “personal trajectories of participation”, Ellis rejects fixed knowledge domains and instead emphasises how beliefs formed through learning

experiences shift in importance and influence, especially in response to the cultural contexts of different schools as well as national priorities. His model (see Figure 5 below) illustrates how knowledge emerges from within a temporal social system of interdependent dimensions of 'Culture', 'Practice' and 'Agents'.

Figure 5: Professional Knowledge as a Social System (after Ellis (2007))



Ellis (2007: 56)

Through this model, Ellis argues that subject knowledge should not be seen as personally held but as distributed expertise among and within professional communities. Rejecting previously held conceptualisations which view academic knowledge as somehow discrete and detached, Ellis presents subject knowledge as negotiated and changeable. Ellis' research owes as much to the work of Wenger and

Lave as it does to scholarship on subject knowledge and associated pedagogy. His focus on personal narrative journeys provides a refreshing, though not entirely practical, alternative to fixed typologies and moves us closer to understanding how knowledge develops. However by rejecting typologies and focusing on how knowledge is shared, Ellis avoids defining what actually constitutes teachers' knowledge. It is ambiguous whether subject knowledge is discrete or another term to describe a broader professional knowledge. As the final section of this literature review will demonstrate, specific scholarship on history teachers' professional knowledge regard such distinctions as crucial.

2.4 - History Teaching and Teachers – How, What and Who?

What sort of qualities do we look for in our teacher of history? ... in all humility we would offer three suggestions. First, he should be a man of vigorous and lucid intellect, imaginative as well as analytical; ... Secondly, his culture should be wide, He will do well if he writes or acts, paints or plays a musical instrument – but very ill if he lets his artistic interests carry him into the cloud-cuckoo-land of mere aestheticism. ... Thirdly, he should be widely travelled, in his own country and overseas.

Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools (1950: 9)

Fortunately, advice to aspiring history teachers has developed considerably since a select group of schools identified preferred characteristics for history masters. Today, history teachers can draw upon a range of excellent practitioner research, in particular, the Historical Association's *Teaching History* provides a nexus for classroom focused practice, advising on enquiry questions, interpretative frameworks and local history (Counsell, 2003). Similarly, Haydn et al (1997), Phillips (2002) and Phillips (2008) are established texts for those undertaking initial teacher education and offer valuable insights into pupil learning, teaching strategies and frameworks for reflection. Applying Fenstermacher's (1994) categorisation, this expanding knowledge base, illustrates "knowledge for teachers" and in some respects, "knowledge generated by teachers" (1994: 4).

Husbands et al's review of history teaching literature rightly praises such guidance, which strengthens "the busy teachers' professional armoury" (2003: 23). Indeed its value is demonstrated by Pendry and Husbands' (2000) research into the ways

teachers readily draw upon or adapt recommended strategies from propositional literature. However, they question its overtly prescriptive nature, which offers interventions akin to medical prescriptions: “focused ... to address specific symptoms rather than ... attempts to describe difficulties and strategies in the context of professional complexity” (2000: 23). Furthermore some literature lacks a clear evidence base and too often ‘tips for teachers’ remain under analysed or context neutral. As Bain and Mirel recognise such recipes, “... typically fail beginning teachers because they never show the result of following the recipe (i.e. students’ learning) or the mess the “chef” made in the kitchen” (2006: 216). Clearly it is just as important to understand how, why and on what basis recommendations are made. Unfortunately many knowledge sources for history teachers rarely achieve this.

Despite these weaknesses, history teachers welcome guidance on strategies for teaching the past. However, what constitutes knowledge of the past in schools is far more controversial. As explored earlier (Section 1.2), national and local political contexts provide disputed arenas in which teachers have to select historical content and respond to different cultural concerns regarding identity (Phillips, 1998; Barker, 2002; Counsell, 2003). In particular, how far schools’ history should reflect the foundations of the discipline itself have dominated debates. This contested arena continues and impacts considerably upon the nature of teachers’ history subject knowledge.

Attempts to understand the nature of subject knowledge are informed by Ryle’s (1949) distinction between “knowing that” or “knowing how”. The application of this duality in history teaching has been clearly explained by Lee and Ashby who distinguish between,

substantive history on the one hand, and second order or procedural ideas about history on the other. Substantive history is the content of history, what history is 'about'. Concepts like peasant...or president, particulars like the Battle of Hastings... or The Civil Rights Movement, and individuals like Abraham Lincoln ...or Mahatma Gandhi, are part of the substance of history. Concepts like historical evidence, ... change, and accounts, are ideas that provide our understanding of history as a discipline They are not what history is 'about', but they shape the way we go about doing history.
(2000: 199)

These two types of knowledge are well established in England and have underpinned the national curriculum for history since its messy creation. The centrality of substantive and procedural knowledge can sometimes seem taken for granted, but reflections across the Atlantic remind us how important they are. Seixas explains how a focus on “how to know history” remains in its infancy in North America and how vital it is for teachers to lead students through “learning to do the discipline” (1999: 333). Understanding how historians warrant their claims, illustrates that schools’ history is as much about understanding knowledge construction as it is about recalling factual details. Without engagement in this active process, students remain credulous in response to different interpretations of events and as Seixas warns us, “they will encounter a lot more accounts of the past outside of their history classrooms than they will in them” (1999: 332).

Addressing the interests of history teachers, Husbands (1996) explores this developing relationship between the processes of academic history and how they have influenced schools’ history. Like others (e.g. Lee and Ashby, 2000; Shemilt, 1987), he focuses on the challenges pupils encounter in applying procedural knowledge and unpicks misconceptions regarding the use of historical evidence, narrative thinking and historical imagination. Perhaps most significantly he looks at how historical language – specialist terminology (e.g. beadle or monarchy), historical processes (e.g. chronology, cause, similarity) and descriptive concepts (e.g. revolution, democracy) – is fundamental in constructing understandings of the past. In all of these areas, Husbands emphasises the prevalence of pupils’ “mini theories”, the ways in which children bring preconceived ideas from their own experiences about how the world works and human motivation, and recommends that teachers provide opportunities for “new ways of thinking based upon new ways of seeing issues and, importantly, new ways of talking about them” (1996: 85). Husbands work therefore provides a rich source of teacher knowledge. However, like others there is a sense he takes for granted the confidence of history teachers in their own knowledge of how history works. It is arguably just as important to understand teachers’ mini theories as it is to understand those of pupils’.

Wineburg’s (2001) *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts* begins to address this deficit. His work addresses the ways in which history is counter-intuitive and subject to

the mind-sets of those who seek to know the past. He is interested in: “the way stations of skilled historical practice, the false starts, the half baked ideas ...that are edited out of historians’ monographs, as well as ... books for novices” (2001: xi). As such, he extends his investigations to include the historical cognition of academic historians and teachers and illustrates how entrenched presentism, misguided notions of objectivity and a narcissistic reliance on our own lived experience, disrupts attempts by novice and established historians to learn from, and about history. In conclusion, he argues that for most of us:

historical thinking ... is neither a natural process nor something that springs automatically from psychological development. Its achievement ... actually goes against the grain of how we ordinarily think... [and is] ... one of the reasons why it is much easier to learn names, dates, and stories than it is to change the basic mental structures we use to grasp the meaning of the past

(2001: 7).

This wider appreciation that as well as children, adults with an established history education can also find the past confusing, moves us closer to realising the complexity of history teachers’ knowledge.

Booth (2003) also reveals the potential extent of substantive and procedural knowledge which teachers might hold by exploring the nature of student and lecturer representations of historical understanding in Universities. Booth presents historical understanding, “as both a state (a deep grasp of events and actions) and a process (the skilful application of knowledge as information, concepts and procedures to historical problems)” (2003: 20). Since a majority of history teachers are likely to have engaged in historical study at degree level, it is worth reflecting upon the characteristics he identifies. According to Booth, historical understanding is conceptualised in three ways which implicitly blend substantive and procedural knowledge:

1. Mental representations of events and societies in the past (recognising relationships between social structures ... along with organisational concepts such as ... change and continuity).

2. Representations of the nature and significance of peoples’ lives in the past (examining the role of specific individuals ..., their ... motivations and actions in context along with significance and interpretation as organisational concepts).

3. Facility with disciplinary techniques, procedures and concepts

(2003: 20)

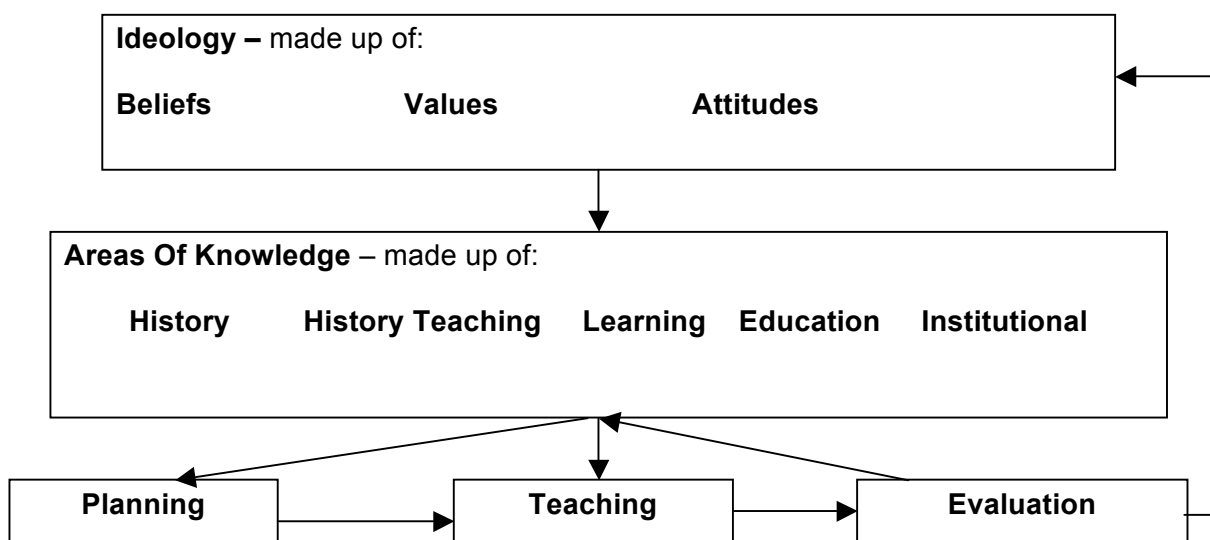
Booth argues that with learner motivation and expert guidance it is anticipated that undergraduates can move from a unistructural understanding (history is about getting facts and putting them down in an orderly fashion) through a multistructural one (history is about seeing what historians there are and how they differ) to a relational and abstract perspective (seeing history as a whole and contrasting different perspectives, including self reflection) (2003: 21-2). This model of mastery is a useful one and provides some suggestion of how teachers may have developed as graduate historians. However, although arguably recognisable and developed from knowledge sources, there is no indication of how or how far this model has been applied.

Such early empirical research on history teachers presents a somewhat gloomy picture. Booth's (1969) investigations into English history teaching during the 1960s revealed that whilst history was popular and successful, its teaching was traditional in subject content and pedagogy and was therefore stagnating. In a revealing chapter: *The Teachers Speak*, he presents teachers whose concerns are familiar – a desire to foster the ability to see and understand “different points of view and different sides to any question” (1969: 59) as well as dissatisfaction with the limits of an unimaginative assessment regime (GCE O level examinations). Although Booth does not theorise about their knowledge, interviews indicate how teachers were aware of how to select and make the most of different classroom resources and knew which teaching techniques would engage pupils and promote progress in historical understanding.

John (1991) provides a more optimistic and enduring conceptualisation of history teachers' knowledge. Influenced by Shulman (1986) and Schon (1983) as well as notions of teaching as a craft, John developed a model (figure 6 below) which recognised that,

history teachers' thinking is knowledge driven; ... organised and structured in large measure by the tasks within ... the ... school environment, and ... the knowledge is semi-permanent and is influenced by the beliefs, values and attitudes of the teacher
(1991: 11).

Figure 6: History Teachers' Professional Craft Knowledge



In John's typology, knowledge of history includes both substantive and procedural knowledge. History teaching he argues is sub-divided into pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum knowledge and organisational knowledge (from seating arrangements to classroom management). The learning category captures an understanding of how pupils learn and the misconceptions they encounter. The other two categories broaden the range of knowledge, incorporating general awareness of educational issues with a specific contextual focus on the institution – from school ethos to details of specific pupils. Although predating many, John's model corroborates other research findings. Similar to Banks et al (1999), John recognises that knowledge does not develop within a moral vacuum but is shaped and developed by interplay with a teacher's ideology. Here a web of beliefs, values and attitudes about the purpose of education, philosophies of history and self confidence in teaching history interact both overtly and sub-consciously. Equally, John's recognition that knowledge is constantly constructed and re-constructed through the processes of planning, teaching and evaluation and filtered through a shifting belief system, in some ways anticipates Cochran et al's (1993) constructivist critique of Schulman's work. The simplicity and accuracy of his model has endured and continues to impress others in their attempts to

induct beginning teachers into history teaching (Phillips 2008). However, as compelling as John's early framework seems, it remains a theoretical model, awaiting application, evaluation and refinement based on field work with teachers.

Whilst John theorised about professional knowledge, Wineburg and Wilson (1991) embarked on case-study research which aimed to offer models of wisdom, explicitly focusing on expert practitioners to inspire others. Drawing on two contrasting cases working in challenging multi-cultural and inclusive contexts they compared *the invisible teacher*, who orchestrated a complex historical debate on British colonial rule from "behind the scenes" and *the visible teacher*, leading from the front, offering analogies, directing questions and providing pupils with reproductions of historic documents. Although demonstrating contrasting approaches in the classroom, Wineburg and Wilson emphasised their core knowledge which shaped their success, especially the comprehensive command of their subject, including specific detail, historiography, and how history works. Likewise, they recognised that experts approach textbooks with imagination, rejecting their readymade interpretations (and instead they are critiqued, compared and supplemented). Wineburg and Wilson argued that such teachers look inward to "comprehend and ponder the key ideas, events, concepts, and interpretations of their discipline" and outward "to think themselves into the minds of their students" to create either an epistemological model, exemplifying procedural concepts beyond the specific content of the lesson, or contextual ones, rooted in time and space to the substantive focus (1991: 409).

Although unrelated to John (1991), in many ways these case studies exemplify elements of his model and bring us closer to realising what history teachers know. However, like so much research into professional knowledge, it looks at the exceptional expert rather than the novice. Counsell (1999) offers a contrasting investigation, focusing on beginning teachers' knowledge. She begins by problematising the place of subject knowledge within the context of imposed government standards for QTS. In her reflections upon the progress of her own cohort of student teachers, she reveals how their "subject knowledge changes as it interacts with increasingly articulate reflections upon pupils' learning" and the ways in which they develop confidence in employing a complex professional language (drawing from published research on the use of national curriculum terminology) (1999: 50). Counsell identifies how new teachers

began to use their own experiences of classroom practice to reconceptualise “that rag bag of second-order concepts and substantive concepts, methodology and other issues in the Key Elements” (1999: 58) thus rethinking approaches to assessment and lesson objectives. Counsell therefore recognises a process of appropriation whereby new teachers use their experiences to gain familiarity with, critique and then replace the imposed artefacts of government policy. Like other constructivists (e.g. Cochran et al, 1993), Counsell reframes professional knowledge as professional knowing.

Research by Virta (2002) provides evidence of how important personal orientations are in shaping professional knowledge. In her research with beginning teachers in Finland, she identifies ways in which very early childhood experiences have a lasting impact on how novices engage with history teaching. Like John (1996), the teachers she interviewed revealed that family inspiration, travel, fiction, museums and most commonly, their own experiences of learning history in schools, were often the source of implicit theories about how history should be taught. Virta was surprised by the mixed views of their early history education, for whilst some were clearly inspired by their teachers and experiences, others were overtly critical. Interviewed at the beginning of their teacher education programme, many of Virta’s teachers praised transmission approaches to teaching which they themselves had experienced. Paradoxically, it seems many of her beginning teachers were critical of their own experiences of learning history, but valued the same traditional teaching as a model for adoption in their own teaching.

Recent work by Burn (2007) into the ways in which new teachers develop professional knowledge in the exigent areas of teaching historical interpretations and evidential understanding, in many ways corroborates Virta’s findings. Burn (2007) investigated her students’ inclination to critique primary sources, rather than tentatively build accounts of the past from evidence. Responses revealed the intransigence of prior academic study in the face of a sophisticated curriculum programme which Burn had developed. In these cases, the post modern content of degree courses, their own experiences of more radical teaching strategies in schools and a general attitude of cynicism, were all cited as influences in rejecting a constructive handling of primary sources. In one example, a student teacher’s archaeological degree study and her prior

occupation as a museum educator, severely restricted her capacity to view historical interpretations as conscious reflections on the past, instead persisting that artefacts from the period studied should be included in a broader definition. The combined work of Burn (2007) and Virta (2002) suggest that prior experiences, emergent preconceptions and value orientations all combine to make significant contributions to the professional knowledge of history teachers.

Taken together, it is clear that a rich understanding of history teachers' professional knowledge can be gathered from different literature sources. Yet individually, such research provides only glimpses into practice and fails to capture a holistic understanding. Pendry, Husbands, Arthur and Davison (1998) attempt to realise this ambitious goal by identifying how teachers, at different stages in their careers, develop professional knowledge and expertise. Drawing upon vignettes of lesson observations, Pendry, Husbands, Arthur and Davison exemplify how complexity of context, individual values, content choice, goals for pupils, awareness of potential misconceptions and planned interactions and activities, all feature in a developing knowledge base (1998, 7-9). Equally, they identify the role played by the standard mechanisms of teacher education - mentoring, observation and assessment – in shaping progression from novice to established practitioner. Unfortunately, professional development is presented in places as a series of unconnected episodes and the empirical base and theoretical foundations are only partially revealed in certain chapters. Subsequent work by Husbands et al provides a more formidable analysis of professional knowledge among established history teachers, drawing upon “research resources and a research perspective to illuminate classroom practice” (2003: 24). Its empirical foundations are explicitly shared, revealing how rich and fully contextualised case study data were generated through analysis of existing documentation, lesson observations as “windows into practice” and interviews. Their extensive findings illustrate the intricacy of history teachers' thinking, where competing goals for pupil learning (affective, moral or historical) and contextual influences (examination pressures or pupil behaviour) impact upon classroom choices (resource selection, teaching strategies and assessment methods).

Given the depth and complexity of the thinking which their history teachers reveal, Husbands et al's (2003) theoretical model of professional knowledge is surprisingly simple and openly acknowledged as such. Attending to their twin research questions of "what do teachers know in order to do the things they do?" and "what sorts of knowledge seem to be embedded in their thinking and their practice?", they propose that "Knowledge about their subject; ... their pupils [and] ... of the sorts of resources and activities that they could use to bring about the goals in their lessons" (2003: 68) offer an accessible summary of professional knowledge. Employing this typology acknowledges both the depth and breadth in substantive and procedural conceptualisations of the past. Pupils' perceived needs are also privileged, illustrating how engagement and enjoyment are key considerations in subsequently seeking to secure confidence, historical understanding and progression. Fusing subject knowledge with pupil interests is achieved through the final dimension of task and resource selection. Despite rejecting Shulman's (1987) concept of pedagogical content knowledge, this category captures the tacit nature of how diversity in classroom tasks, subverting textbook activities or locating an original resource, transfers knowledge from the teacher to the pupil. As such, Husbands et al's teachers illustrate success in achieving a "best fit" in meeting the potentially competing and complex demands "of the needs, abilities and interests of their pupils, the ideas of history, their own interests and preferences, the time of day and what is available" (2003: 81).

Although unexpectedly omitted from their typological model, Husbands et al (2003) also acknowledge the importance of teacher beliefs in professional knowledge. Outside of their analysis of lessons observed, teachers were encouraged to reflect upon the purposes of school history. With regard to content, teachers recoiled against prescription but also emphasised the importance of choice in responding to pupil interests and variety in promoting engagement (2003: 120). Where their teachers did differ, was in identifying the broader concepts and skills which underpinned the subject, for whilst the lessons observed nearly always developed historical understanding beyond "knowing that", the discourse of the teachers they interviewed varied in explaining the concepts and skills they valued. For example, the term skills was widely and differentially singled out as having central importance – some emphasising primacy of historical methodology, whilst others preferred to favour generic "life skills" (2003: 130-1). Of equal importance in the mind set of their teachers, Husbands et al

identified how “enjoyment”, “inclusion” and “accessibility” were powerful motifs in explaining purposes. Acknowledging a broader school context, some of the teachers revealed how these core beliefs, were sometimes undermined by “a preoccupation with outcome-led management” and the pressures of meeting “levels” and fulfilling examination expectations (2003: 135-6).

Husbands et al (2003) offer the most comprehensive account of British history teachers’ professional knowledge published so far. Unlike most of the other studies reviewed, its empirical foundations are explicit and the theory it generates is grounded, authentic and credible. However, it could be argued that one of its limitations is a failure to fully acknowledge the seniority of the teachers who contributed. The authors are rigorous in defining the boundaries of the schools they selected but it is not the same with the teachers they included (2003: 46). In most cases, it seems we are again learning from those with more experience (the emphasis being on the head of department’s practice), the expert rather than the novice. Equally, whilst beliefs and values are considered significant and thoroughly evaluated, it is not always clear how these have emerged and what personal and professional experiences have shaped them. By acknowledging concerns for securing anonymity, the stories of the history teachers are sometimes lost in the process of reporting findings.

The study which follows attempts to build on the complexity of the research reviewed. It values many of the various concepts explored and in places draws upon the success of existing theoretical models (e.g. John, 1991) and successful methodological approaches (e.g. Husbands et al, 2003). However, its distinct contribution to the established literature is a concern to make the experience of the individual history teacher central to the analysis and to recognise the dynamism inherent in their professional knowing. As such, the focus is not just on what the teacher knows but also, how they have come to know. In doing so, teachers’ stories are explored and the importance of time and place as key contexts are emphasised. Finally, although not unique to this thesis, the findings report explicitly on the professional knowledge of early career teachers, rather than the understandings, experiences and practices of experts.

Chapter 3 – Methodology – A History of the Research

Dunne, Pryor and Yates suggest the process of research “... begins with a concept and ends with a text. The space in between is normally given shape and coherence by decisions we make about how to proceed” (2005: 11). This methodological chapter attempts to capture the nature of the “space in between” my initial research questions and this completed thesis into the professional knowing of history teachers. In sharing reflections on my choices, I’m attracted to Pryor and Ampiah’s conceptualisation of methodology as an “elastic plane” (2004: 162) constantly reshaping as it is stretched by concerns associated with epistemological and ontological issues, the practicalities of methods and ethical and political considerations. As such the following reflexive account identifies the ways in which these factors shaped how my research was carried out and the challenges I faced.

Drake (2006) discusses how doctoral investigations into her own professional practice encouraged her to adopt a ‘grounded methodology’ whereby decisions and choices were influenced by her professional context and position as a Mathematics teacher educator researching her own workplace rather than by grand research narratives. In many ways my own methodological journey is similar and I use this chapter to explain how I have come to seek inspiration and position myself amongst sometimes contrasting research approaches in my quest to understand new history teachers’ professional knowing.

3.1 – Finding a voice

In social or professional situations we are regularly called upon to introduce ourselves. In most cases, a name (Simon), a job title (History PGCE Tutor), a social/familial relationship (Husband, father, son, colleague, friend or friend of a friend) or loyalty to an educational institution (Sussex University), geographic region (Brighton) or football team (Arsenal) will often suffice. Introducing myself as an educational researcher however is different. Unlike my previous experiences of postgraduate research in American history, I’m obligated to explain how I see the world, what I believe constitutes knowledge of this world and how I would go about collecting more. I recall my first encounter with these questions: sitting in a soulless seminar room late on a Friday evening being challenged to justify my ontological and epistemological

assumptions by intimidating professors. Although I couldn't immediately answer their questions (not initially knowing what the words meant made this difficult), at the end of my doctoral journey, I now feel secure in explaining the conceptual frameworks which underpin my research.

Having since engaged in other studies (Thompson, 2003) I have come to understand how I approach research within a constructivist/interpretive paradigm. Through my own academic encounters with history I have long recognized that the past is recorded in diverse ways at different times, by different people, holding many contrasting views. Compare for example, the reflections of the Lancashire Magistrate, William Hulton, that the "16th August 1819 was the proudest day in my life", to those of Samuel Bamford, a parliamentary reformer, recalling how "Women and tender youths were indiscriminately sabred or trampled" by Hulton's yeomanry during political protests at St Peter's Fields in Manchester (Bush, 2005). Historical documents and historians' writings are by their nature different ways of understanding the past. Similarly my coming to understand the views of various history teachers in assorted school contexts leads me to perceive realities as multiple and epistemology as subjective. Therefore, alongside others, sheltered under the constructivist/interpretivist umbrella, I:

... share the goal of understanding the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it. This goal is variously spoken of as an abiding concern for the ... emic point of view, for understanding meaning... The world of lived reality and situation-specific meanings that constitute the general object of investigation is ... constructed by social actors

(Schwandt, 1994: 118).

Similarly my own professional experiences as a former teacher and now teacher educator – guiding, supporting and observing learning - draws me towards a constructivist interpretation of how learners come to understand their world. I have learnt from fidgety Year 8s in unsuccessful history lessons and through glazed expressions in poorly received lectures, that knowledge is rarely passively imparted, transferred or received. Instead, real understanding thrives when learners are actively engaged in shaping their own knowledge and teachers are often more successful if they themselves recognise how pupils create their own understandings.

Other researchers have also applied these basic tenets of constructivism to teacher education. Such an approach has already been identified (Chapter 2) as a powerful

way of understanding how teachers relate their understandings of subject and pedagogy. Cochran et al, drawing upon Piaget's concept of equilibrium, explains how teachers continuously integrate new learning so that "whatever a teacher knows about teaching has an important wholeness and new experiences affect all of understanding" (1993: 265). Recognising this constantly shifting sum of continuous learning motivates constructivists (von Glasersfeld, 1995) to privilege the act and vocabulary of "knowing" over the end product of "knowledge" – a term associated with a fixed objective entity. Therefore, informed by both my own understandings and the theoretical writings of other constructivists, the phrase: *professional knowing* is now established throughout this thesis as a preferred and more compelling concept to describe how teachers regularly create dynamic understandings of their history, pedagogy, learners and professional environments.

Telling and listening along with writing and reading stories offers universal and collective ways in which we can come to know these constructed understandings of others. I have argued elsewhere (Thompson, 2003) that research informed by narrative inquiry, and in particular, life history, provides illuminating ways to explore teachers' reflections upon their lived experiences, understandings of their curriculum and other professional concepts. As Goodson has identified, such life history research seeks to meet the challenges of three programmatic claims:

1. *that the teacher's previous career and life experience shape her/his view of teaching and the way he or she sets about it;*
2. *that the teacher's life outside school, his/her latent identities and cultures, may have an important impact on his/her work as a teacher ...*
3. *that ...[researchers] must seek to locate the life history of the individual within 'the history of his/her time ... life histories of schools, subjects and the teaching profession provide vital contextual information.*

(Ball and Goodson, 1985: 13)

Defining what is actually meant by the term life history is problematic. This is not helped by the fact that researchers working in such a very diverse field adopt a range of terminology – life history, life story, autobiography, personal documents, human documents, life records, case histories, etc – often interchangeably and each term can seem to mean something very different to different researchers (Bertaux, 1981: 7-8). As explored in Chapter 1, life history is employed as the preferred concept, relating individual recollections with wider structural or institutional narratives. However, it

should also be noted that life history need not be a full contextualised account of a person's entire life, indeed many effective life histories can focus upon the recounting and subsequent analysis of a single critical incident which "reveal, like a flashbulb, the major choice and change times in teachers' lives" (Sikes et al, 1985: 61).

Whether investigating a whole life lived or comparing the foundations of many different critical incidents, life histories are strengthened by considering the nature of: the personal and social (interaction); past, present and future (continuity); and the notion of place (situation). By employing these specific terms it is self evident but fundamental to recognise that all life histories will involve temporality, the balance between internal dispositions and existential conditions and occur in specific places or sequences of places. In the case of this study, critical incidents and wider narratives are explored within timeframes which stretch between the final research activities completed last year to recollections by participants' upon their early childhoods; whilst the contrasting settings of history classrooms of both the past and present map out the boundaries of what Clandinin and Connelly describe as "three dimensional narrative inquiry spaces" (2000: 50).

With these shared aims and definitions in place, life history is therefore introduced as the broad methodological framework, accounting for the ways in which teachers' voices in this study were gathered, explored, respected and interpreted.

3.2 – Gathering voices

Revisiting my thesis proposal it is easy to be seduced by the perceived order and logic of my initial research design. Yet reflecting upon the timing and nature of the decisions I made, a more complex and honest explanation acknowledges the impact of false starts and frustrating interruptions as personal and professional responsibilities conflicted with academic study (see Appendix A). This section seeks to tell the full story of the practicalities involved in setting up the study, encouraging colleagues to participate, eliciting their voices and establishing "field texts" (Connelly and Clandinin, 2000:73).

This study was designed to explore what constitutes the professional knowing of early career history teachers and the factors they identify as significant in shaping their

development. Twelve teachers participated in the study and the research focused upon their understandings of themselves and their experiences. Since this enquiry was conceived to draw upon in-depth interviews and the analysis of different life history documents for each teacher, case study (Yin, 2009) was identified as the most appropriate strategy to help facilitate and organise the enquiry process.

In many ways this study may seem at odds with other case study research - it is not concerned with a single institution or department and is limited to multiple sources of evidence (biographical profiles, lesson observations, interviews and personal narratives see Appendix B) provided by the actors alone. However as Stake (1994: 236) has argued, what distinguishes a case study is principally the object to be explored. In this respect my study focuses on twelve related (in that they are all associated in their early career status as teaching professionals specialising in history) but distinct cases and I am interested in them for both their “uniqueness and commonality” (Stake, 1995: 1). Employing Hitchcock and Hughes’ (1995) characteristics for defining cases - each is distinguished by the rich and vivid descriptions of their own experiences and beliefs, the chronological narratives shared and developed, the internal debate between description of events and their analysis, a focus upon the actors’ perceptions and my own integral involvement in working alongside each case.

My concern has been to investigate, describe and interpret the experiences of these twelve different individuals and develop a new understanding of what their knowing is and how it is shaped by their beliefs, experiences and contexts. As such, this study broadly meets the classification typology of different authorities on case study research. In line with Yin’s (2009) analysis of outcomes, my study is differentiated from others as “explanatory” in that it seeks to move beyond mere narrative (“descriptive”) but to do this with the intention of developing new understandings. On a similar basis, aiming to illustrate, support or challenge existing assumptions Merriam (1988) uses the overlapping classification of “interpretative”. Whether “explanatory” or “interpretative”, this case study research focusing on professional knowing is clearly defined by its drive to create a rich and coherent understanding of the professional knowing of history teachers as complex social phenomenon.

Critics of such research point to weaknesses since case studies primarily deal with “peculiarities rather than regularities” (Smith, 1991: 375). Like all qualitative research,

it needs to establish its credentials for reliability and validity. It is easy to suggest that this study has limited generalisable potential, lacks accessibility to cross-checking and is prone to problems of researcher subjectivity and selectivity (Nisbet and Watt, 1994). Yet adherence to reflexivity, opportunities for cross case comparisons and the triangulation of evidence (observations, interviews and personal narratives) have all contributed to ensuring that the subsequent findings, interpretations and conclusions have considerable credibility and authenticity.

One of the ways in which this study challenges the charges of peculiarity is in the breadth of the sample cases. Inspired by Huberman's (1993) study on the professional life cycles of teachers, my aim was to locate and work alongside history teachers at different 'micro stages' in their careers. My research sought to focus on early career practitioners, ranging from those engaged in Initial Teacher Education, through practising Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs) to more experienced new professionals assuming for the first time positions of responsibility (mentoring or subject leadership). Therefore in identifying and attracting different cases the over-riding consideration and constraint was the extent of each individual's career as a history teacher. Beyond this, no attempt has been made to make the selection of case studies representative in terms of age, gender, ethnicity or the nature of the contexts in which these teachers work (however a summary of their profiles in Appendix C reveals differences across a range of criteria). Nor indeed was this considered of primary importance, since the intention is not to hold these teachers' experiences up as paragons of all types of history teacher nor make claims to establish universal laws on the nature of professional knowing. Instead I am confident given the transparency of the research process and with recognition of the context, clear inferences can be drawn from likened evidence which will inform my own practice and could inform other teacher educators.

A "purposive approach" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000: 103) ensured that as a researcher I was able to encourage contributions from teachers who I knew would meet the specific needs of my study. Furthermore given the nature and time constraints involved in researching my own professional context - convenience or opportunity sampling was preferable. All twelve of the history teachers who contributed as case studies were known to me through established professional or personal relationships. The three PGCE students were at the time from my own cohort of beginning teachers, and indeed the three NQTs and those who had just completed their induction year,

were all ex-students. The three other teachers who contributed as more experienced early practitioners were either new mentors working alongside me on Sussex's history PGCE or ex-colleagues from my own past as a history teacher. This is not to say, however, that I dictated selection. Initially invitations to contribute (Appendix C) were sent out to over thirty different teachers with whom I had contact. Responses from this wider group was positive, but time constraints and work pressures left several to withdraw support and some minor selection ensured I secured balance in terms of experience.

The benefits of working with students, ex-students, friends and colleagues are compelling. These were all practising history teachers at different stages in their professional lives, established personal relationships were already strong and I had advanced knowledge regarding their backgrounds and the contexts in which they worked. Clearly these relationships presented ethical challenges (see 3.3). However as a self contained and accessible sample, the considerable benefits outweighed limitations, especially since in case study research the "opportunity to learn is of primary importance" (Stake, 1995: 6). The nature of the case studies I selected squarely matched my research interests and I was ready to begin asking questions.

Gathering data was not straightforward and setting out each stage of the research process and the range of methods I adopted is inevitably complex, especially given the extended passage of time between initial data collection and final analysis. *Appendix A: Chronology of EdD Research* offers a timeline of when different research instruments were introduced and *Appendix B: Summary of Case Study Data* reveals the breadth and depth of the research material which informed my conclusions. The following analysis attempts to detail the significant decisions I made and make transparent my response to different dilemmas within a broad chronological framework.

In Spring 2004, I invited an ex PGCE student to contribute to a pilot interview process. I was interested in trialing my questions and establishing a sense of structure for future interviews. Though the pilot helped firm up interview topics, the process clearly taught me that asking teachers to articulate the nature of their practice without a firm context resulted in unspecific statements and little reference to established concepts of understanding teaching. This experience, alongside reading recent studies on accessing the tacit understandings of professionals (Cooper and McIntyre, 1996;

Husbands et al, 2003) in which lesson observations had been used as artefacts to provide a concrete basis for questioning, helped me re-think my process.

At the end of July 2004 teachers were invited to express an interest in taking part in my research. The invitation (Appendix D) made clear my research focus and the anticipated demands it would make upon their time and professional lives. In September 2004 nine teachers were invited to a pre-interview meeting, a kind of focus group discussion, which enabled me to explain in greater depth my research focus, explore understandings of history teaching and professional knowledge and respond to their questions. Without imposing a framework I invited the teachers to work as a group in mapping out different types of knowledge which they possessed as history teachers. These were reviewed collectively and then compared with the work of John (1991). The teachers were quick to make comparisons with their ideas and were able to illustrate how John's model corresponded with real examples from their practice. This experience proved invaluable during later interviews since participants were able to clearly articulate their thinking using familiar concepts and made links between what they did during their lessons and how teacher knowledge had been viewed by others.

At the end of the meeting the teachers were asked to complete individual profile sheets (Appendix E) which served three distinct purposes. Firstly it asked the teachers to provide simple biographical details, facilitating both ease of contact and establishing contextual detail (nature of history degree, length of teaching, etc). Secondly the profile invited teachers to identify possible dates for school visits and interviews to take place. Influenced by research on critical incidents (Tripp, 1994) the profiles also prompted individuals to consider three experiences which they believed had been fundamental or striking in shaping their development. This selection of events which they believed warranted greater focus provided fuel for discussions surrounding the origins and development of their professional knowing and contributed to the sharing of different narratives.

Interviews were scheduled to be completed by February 2005 but due to the pressure of other professional duties they were not completed until May. This delay in completion had one unexpected and positive impact. It was initially envisioned that those who had just completed their PGCE would constitute the group of most novice teachers and that practising students would be inappropriate to observe given that it

might conflict with their own teacher education. However as my PGCE cohort entered their final term of teaching practice and had demonstrated real insights into their knowledge base - three more volunteers were sought from these novices to be interviewed at the end of their PGCE. They had not attended the pre-research meeting, but since their course had consistently focused on professional learning they were more than able to engage with the study.

Learning from the pilot interview my approach changed dramatically. In order to establish a more concrete focus for discussions the teachers selected a lesson which they were happy to be observed. It was made clear that whilst I would make notes during the observations, these would be used as interview prompts and would not be used to judge effectiveness nor directly contribute as data to be analysed. Drawing from Cooper and McIntyre's (1996) work this ensured that interviews were rooted within a shared experience of practice and made it easier for the teachers to access and talk clearly about what they did in the classroom and why.

My approach to the observation was as a non-participant but invariably my own presence had an impact and involvement in the lesson was often encouraged by certain pupils and was difficult to avoid. An observation schedule (Appendix F) was used to simplify the process of note taking and enable all subsequent interviews to be compared against a consistent experience of being observed. The schedule itself combined three key features which helped focus attention on my research, enabled the formulation of questions for interview and introduced a basic level of regularity. The first section enabled the recording of basic classroom details - the number of pupils, the age of the class, etc. The second encouraged the recording of a time framed transcript as the lesson progressed - allowing recollections of actual events to be recalled in position to one another. Finally John's (1991) model was employed to provide a framework for categories by which to pre code the teachers' actions in the lesson. Although the use of this model threatened to be some conceptual "sledge hammer ... knocking social reality into shape" (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995: 303), in actuality the categories helped focus observations upon the knowing which underpinned actions. In any case these pre-determined concepts were soon overtaken by the complexity of responses.

Interviews immediately followed observations. Since these were always held within schools the teachers themselves located a room which they felt comfortable in. Equally because of the need to observe and interview together interviews were often conducted after the school day had ended. Most schools quickly deserted and the only occasional interruption was by site staff servicing rooms. When the teachers were ready the interviews began. With two exceptions all the interviews were recorded on tape. In the other two instances, the tapes broke - leaving interview records to be based upon written notes. Though the questions asked were often open-ended and unique in that they were generated from the specific lesson observed, most interviews followed similar questioning patterns (these can be seen in the sample transcript in Appendix G).

Initial questions focused upon the depth, security and origins of substantive historical knowing as well as any second order concepts drawn upon in the lesson. Teachers were then often asked to consider the typicality of these factors in comparison to their wider fund of historical understanding. The second part of the interview prompted teachers to consider pedagogical aspects, such as selected teaching strategies, resources, challenging misconceptions and pupil assessment. These questions often blurred into a third focus which measured their appreciation of the particular contexts in which they worked and the pupils they taught. Moving beyond the lesson, teachers were then asked to explore how their beliefs and values constituted another more ideological way of knowing. In particular they considered their motivations in teaching their subject and their vocation more broadly. Finally learning experiences identified on their teaching profiles were used as a basis to discuss the foundations of their professional knowing and the factors which they considered significant. Often such discussions took the form of more extensive narratives where participants shared stories of influential childhood teachers, episodes in their teacher education or ways in which their current context impacted on their development as history teachers.

Given that all the interviewees were known to me previously and in many cases were colleagues or ex-students, discussions were often conducted in a conversational style. Moreover in some cases, conversations developed which unwittingly drew upon my own opinions and on many occasions reflections upon lessons involved my own recommendations regarding future resource selection or lesson development. This was not unwelcome from the teachers involved and they themselves found ways to share

future resources or teaching ideas. This is partly a response to the nature of the focus on professional knowing as well as an anticipated outcome of such qualitative research. Indeed given my own professional position my inclination to offer guidance was implicitly present and is now explicitly recognised in reflection upon the research process.

When conversations detracted from the research or if my question lacked clarity, presuppositions (Patton, 1990) proved useful in getting the teachers to narrow their responses to the focus of my research. When considering critical incidents or episodes in the lessons observed, teachers were presented with suggestions of which second order concepts were developed or underpinned their actions. From these examples teachers specified their experiences of critical incidents and gave details of their responses to them. At times I felt however that my questioning was too leading or presented my assumptions too powerfully – particularly when I encouraged them to reflect upon different areas of knowing. In one particular instance I made reference to how a decision by one teacher to select a resource was illustrative of secure curriculum knowledge. Fortunately the limitations of such statements were challenged and the teacher was quick to explain that expediency and a colleague's teaching file provided the classroom resource rather than a secure understanding of curriculum documents. This incident reinforces Kvale's (1996, p. 33) guidance to adopt a "deliberate naivete" and avoid reliance upon presupposed realities; certainly with this example in mind, new areas of dialogue opened up and my own preconceptions were revised.

Discussions certainly took on a more fluid nature when interviews moved into how prior life experiences impacted upon their professional knowing. Here the influence of life history methodology was most apparent. It is important to emphasise however that this research did not follow the more demanding expectations of full life history methods; indeed the comparative shortness of the interview and contemporaneous focus on the immediate taught lesson seems at first to be at odds with life history. Yet instead of exploring the full 'life lived', critical incidents selected by participants allowed us to explore key life history episodes within time constraints. Tripp (1994) argues that full life histories can sometimes obscure the wood from the trees. Unlike holistic biographies which only rarely illuminate to teachers how their practice has developed, by focusing attention on key turning points teachers are encouraged to consider things which they would not otherwise be able to recall. In doing so Tripp asserts:

We are not only seeking to recall, document, and explain past events merely for our own interest, we are seeking the presence of the past as a way of illuminating, articulating, understanding, and gaining control over our current professional practice and habits. ... One way to break with the past is to identify practices that have become habits and examine them, revealing what could be changed to achieve different outcomes.

(1994: 69)

Certainly participants valued this focus and discussions allowed us to explore links with their past as well as how far they had moved forward.

Beyond this partial focus on the teachers' pasts and the conversational nature adopted during interviews, life history technique emerged as a more profound influence as my research developed. As these more open-ended discussions encouraged a richer dialogue, I regretted the limits of a modest interview which restricted delving deeper into past experiences. However the revelation that most of the teachers were ex-Sussex students provided me with an unanticipated opportunity to find out more about past influences before their formal initial teacher education began. Since the mid 1980s all Sussex PGCE students have been expected to produce an educational autobiography as a pre-course assignment (Griffiths, 1994). This 2000 word narrative was devised and continues to function as an introduction to Schon's (1983) notion of the "reflective practitioner" in that future teachers are expected to engage with the formative education they have experienced and the critical incidents they remember. For their tutors, these autobiographies also present an effective way of getting to know a little more about each new cohort and a means by which to identify prior understandings and initial needs. These existing educational autobiographies were ready made life history documents, which potentially provided a source for further understanding of early influences on the teachers involved, and a means by which some interview claims might be cross-referenced.

All the teachers were contacted again and I requested whether they would allow me to analyse their autobiographies for my research. Again teachers were reassured that references to these would be anonymised and that they were under no obligation to grant me access. All the teachers offered their past assignments and although some were embarrassed at re-reading their pre-qualifying recollections, they were aware that I had already studied them in my professional capacity. With one exception (a loss during a domestic move) I collected nine autobiographies to complement and

supplement interviews. These life history documents offered additional data and enriched the narratives which teachers shared during their discussions of critical incidents.

One of the most common criticisms levelled at life history focuses on limitations in securing validity. This is an erroneous enterprise. As Hitchcock and Hughes have argued

It would seem a nonsense to ask questions about the reliability of life history work, and the extent to which the end products are simply products of the technique employed because they are exactly that. Life history work produces detailed personal subjective accounts because that is what it precisely aims to do.

(1995: 208)

Clandinin and Connelly (2000) argue that instead of striving and then failing to deliver conventional notions of validity, we should attend to authenticity and credibility as more appropriate criteria in life history research. Beyond the obvious consideration that respondents don't have evident reasons to falsify their own histories, I have regularly focused upon consistency in accounts, the plausibility of responses as well as the sincerity with which the interviewee responds. Moreover, the availability of autobiographies offered an additional data source and a possible opportunity for triangulation.

One further validation strategy was employed as teachers were invited to comment upon the transcripts of their interviews. Once these were completed, an electronic copy was emailed to the teacher and they were asked to comment on whether they still held with their responses and offered the opportunity to correct and clarify (if they could) any omissions or amend their responses if they now disagreed. This process had limitations in that the time gap between interviewing and respondent validation was considerable and it was challenging for teachers to recall even the lesson they taught. Moreover, by asking teachers to clarify responses, I ran the risk of working with three different textual encounters - the interview, the transcript and the corrected transcript - the danger being that I moved further away from the shared reality of that first episode. In the event only one interviewee felt the need to amend a response, and in that instance, the teacher was motivated by their need to sound more authoritative about the subject they taught rather than change the meaning of their answer.

In another unforeseen way further engagement with life history influenced the final stages of this thesis. The attractiveness of a professional doctorate in part reflects the ability to blend further study with professional responsibilities. However balancing the two has been a significant challenge and eventually my own career development undermined the equilibrium and necessitated a break in my research (see Appendix A). Appointment as Director of Initial Teacher Education in 2006 offered me both personal and professional advancement and as well as a broader perspective on different ways of knowing teachers. However leadership also brought with it increased responsibilities, administrative demands and an unfamiliar workload on top of my commitments as PGCE history tutor. Unsurprisingly, it was not long before I requested and received intermission from the doctoral programme. After four years in post, I was granted study leave to resume and complete this thesis.

Returning to research in 2009 was exciting but also daunting. Having lost engagement during intermission, like Drake (2010) I was sceptical about how much could be learnt from an untouched stack of recorded interviews and dated reflections on the literature. I was aware that I was not the same researcher who had begun the study. More importantly, life had not stopped for my participants. None of them could truly be regarded as beginning teachers anymore and whilst I had maintained friendships, I was aware that I had lost contact with some of them. In essence, I felt my thesis lacked any sign of meaningful existence. I kept imagining my research to be an unresponsive patient that needed some kind of radical shock treatment to bring it back to life. Seeking a cure, I opted to re-interview some of the teachers to see if, how and why their professional knowing had changed.

Three teachers, who had formerly contributed as a PGCE student, NQT and a teacher two years into their first post respectively, were invited to be re-interviewed as broadly representative of their peers, whilst one other former student offered extensive written reflections on her journey. All of them, now more established teachers, welcomed the opportunity to be involved again and were keen to share their thoughts on the ways in which their careers had progressed. Once more interviews were recorded (the passing of time also providing access to digital recording!) and transcribed. This time however there were no observations to prompt dialogue, instead previous transcripts and narratives were re-introduced and offered as a stimulus. Moreover, interviews were

totally unstructured, allowing us to pursue issues which we mutually considered significant. Listening and talking again with these colleagues instantly re-engaged me with the research and reassured me that my initial research questions still held currency. A more holistic focus on the passage of their teaching careers gave my research a longitudinal character which others have used so well in life history in educational settings (Day, 2007). Therefore these extensive reflections offered further narratives of how history teachers develop and along with earlier data enabled me to place my understanding of professional knowing within an envelope of different contexts and environments.

3.3 Respecting voices

Qualitative researchers have long recognised the need to develop investigations within an ethical framework to protect people from the impact of their work – “honesty” and “respect for privacy” being widely recognised as crucial (Woods, 1985). Measor and Sikes’ (1992) work on the ethical challenges of life history alert us to the rarely questioned value base upon which research is conducted. Tracing concerns back to the foundations of 19th Century liberal democracy and the work of Kant – they identify ‘respect for persons’, self determination and confidentiality as fundamental. Such values have obvious import for life history research. By its nature it could well be described as “parasitic” and a form of “licensed voyeurism – tapping into our wish to know what goes on behind closed curtains” (Measor and Sikes, 1992: 210) –it is therefore imperative that the rights of those behind the curtains, or in the case of teachers – behind classroom doors, should be respected and protected as individuals. Unsurprisingly therefore in this study ethical concerns were at the forefront of most methodological considerations.

As the preceding account explored, transparency and honesty guided invitations, and communications with all participants. Through informed consent (Piper and Simons, 2005) participants were made aware of the initial demands of my research, emerging expectations and how my thesis was progressing; even if nothing was happening, I kept them conversant of my intentions, actions and outcomes. Respecting privacy presented more tangible difficulties. Initial invitations to participate casually, though earnestly, offered anonymity. This of course was immediately compromised when the concept-sharing event brought most participants together. Although this did not worry

those involved, and participants were eager and happy to meet up with former peers or contemporaries, this conflict between intentions and actions, foreshadowed future challenges, as the same situation emerged when participants were later invited to attend a work in progress seminar at the University. The modest size of Sussex as a teaching community meant that whilst I was keen to restrict knowledge of who was involved to the selection of participants, I was powerless to restrict this information if they told others. More importantly, as time passed (significantly), the teachers involved took on new challenges and moved into new school contexts. In some cases, this drew participants together in new professional hierarchies, and as such potentially compromised relationships. In these situations, the significance of respecting privacy was considerable.

Once interviews were transcribed participants were offered the choice between recorded anonymity, selecting their own pseudonyms or self identification. Most abdicated a decision but mindful of existing, or the potential for new, professional relationships, as well as established guidance (Simons and Usher, 2000) I allocated pseudonyms. In reality, participants who study the data carefully might conceivably identify each other, but I am confident that knowledgeable outsiders would struggle to put real names to quotations.

As this dilemma illustrates and various custodians of life history methodology (Tierney, 1998, Goodson and Sikes, 2000) have argued, at the root of reflexive and ethical concerns are the dynamics of power. Knowledge is power and knowing something about someone puts researchers in potentially powerful positions. In life history research the ever present “hydra-headed” question of who gets to say what, about whom, to whom, and with what impact? (Tripp, 1994: 75) underpins the relationships between the life historian and the life story giver. In this study, beyond how I chose to respect privacy, power differentials also blurred the ways in which I encouraged engagement, elicited contributions and secured privileged access to stories. This is particularly apparent as I reflect upon my status as a former tutor or colleague. I was always aware that an inherent ethical tension existed in my dual roles as a PGCE tutor and researcher. Whilst I acted as an interviewer it must have been difficult, especially for my current student teachers, to divorce me from my position as a representative of the programme that assessed their progress and awarded them

Qualified Teacher Status. This had the potential to undermine the honesty of feedback. However my awareness of my insider status allowed me to anticipate such subjectivity and in actuality their responses seemed untouched by such considerations. Moreover my awareness of their experience and my empathy with their situation did engender a positive rapport with all the teachers. Differentials in familiarity did however impact upon the quality of the interview. My role as a PGCE tutor probably encouraged student teachers past and present to take for granted my contextual knowledge and their answers sometimes lacked complexity and depth (equally this could reflect my assumptions in questioning). My naivety with some more experienced teachers in contrast necessitated them to really explore and explain their experience and subsequently produced richer responses.

Drawing on similar work by Virta (2002) I was also cautious of the ethical tensions involved in using pre-existing narratives. These educational autobiographies were after all designed as a form of pre-ITE assignment and consequently participants may have potentially approached these with preconceptions about their assessment value and wider circulation. Unlike interviews, they were written divorced from any overt relationship with myself, and therefore they may have been guarded about revealing true reflections or exaggerated in order to impress future tutors. Earlier research at the University's Mass Observation archive helped guide my approach as I considered carefully the extent to which these "found objects" were *representative* or *illustrative* (Bloome, Sheridan and Street, 1993). Such conceptions forced me to consider the limits of the documents in isolation, for whilst they framed reflections on their education and emerging interests in history teaching in similar ways (to each other and dozens of others I have read as PGCE tutor) I was mindful that I could make no generalisations regarding representativeness. However, comparing narratives with interviews enabled me to identify congruence and allowed me to draw upon examples as 'illustrative cases', supporting and enhancing reflections on critical incidents.

Power and status emerged again towards the end of interviewing but in a contrasting form. As teachers were asked to comment on how their training had impacted upon their knowledge, in some interviews (especially ex and current students) respondents took this opportunity to raise concerns regarding the structure of the programme and presented critical advice on how the PGCE could operate more effectively. Clearly for the student teachers, the nature of the interview process gave them a sense of

empowerment. Recognising my status as a University representative, the teachers used the interview to present their own agenda and asked searching questions. Colleagues had invested their time in my research and, reinforcing Oakley's (1981) calls for reciprocity in interviews I consequently responded positively to their concerns.

Clearly the balance of power between participant and researcher is fragile and it can swing during research. Aware of how participants might view me as a teacher educator and researcher, I recall being intimidated as I brought potential strangers together and attempted to explain my research strategy in the pre-interview meeting. Away from the substantive focus I worried about what they would say to each other about me as their tutor and/or my attempts at managing doctoral research. On reflection I need not have been as everyone worked hard to make the event successful. However the experience prompted me to recall examples given by Measor and Sikes (1992) of participants who purposely mislead an insensitive researcher and where power graphically shifted.

Going further Convery (1999) raises provocative concerns in: *Listening to Teachers' Stories: Are We Sitting Too Comfortably* he questions whether teachers' narratives are genuine and if life history has a performative function allowing some to present preferred professional images. Convery suggests that contrasting personal attitudes to oppositional forces (other 'bad' teachers) and sublimating agency in the face of deterministic forces (oppressive school values) can enable narratives to become: "re-constructed ... as content is judiciously selected and organized to satisfy the primary therapeutic purpose of self presentation" (1999: 137). Moreover in his view the informant's power is further strengthened by the ways in which the disclosure of private experiences, are not only hard to dispute, but force audiences to respond sympathetically thereby affirming a particular interpretation. As a result, teachers aspire to unrealistic models – not by addressing their values and practice – but by re-jigging their own stories.

Convery raises potent concerns (though his arguments are weakened by a limited evidence base reflecting on his own personal narratives) and for a time I considered carefully whether I was distanced enough. On reflection there were occasions when discussions could be described as 'cosy' or 'relaxed', yet most narrative enquirers (Goodson and Sikes, 2001, Clandinin and Connelly, 2000) would argue that this can be

a strength since dialogue tends to be more open and encourages the exploration of different dimensions of self. Certainly some of my teachers compared themselves favourably with others and identified ways in which – the school, senior management team, etc – undermined their practice as history teachers. However my considerable experience as a relative insider, an experienced teacher educator working on a daily basis within a tight partnership of schools, allowed me to appreciate the substance of their concerns or indeed recognise when relative inexperience as a new teacher impacted on their assessment of school contexts. Far from undermining their validity however, whether reality was different or not, these responses held real value since they told me how that teacher in that school felt about that issue. In order to get such insights you have to be ‘sitting comfortably’.

The nature of the data gathering experience challenged the traditional paradigm of viewing the interview as little more than “a tool of scientific research” (Kerlinger, 1986: 440). Again and again I had found it difficult to live up to the formalistic expectations set out in education books on methodological theory. Instead by acknowledging my subjectivity and the bias of my position, interviews worked best when I acknowledged with the interviewees our shared histories and current relationships as tutors, students, friends rather than just researcher and participant. The teachers seemed to view the process as a very positive experience, and welcomed the opportunity to reflect upon the strengths of their knowing and on how far they had come during their professional journeys. I find myself in close agreement with Kvale’s (1996:4) metaphor which presents the interviewer as a *traveler* on a journey, entering into conversations with people encountered, learning from them new knowledge and uncovering in themselves new ways of seeing. Moreover seeing myself as a *traveler* rather than tourist, I started my journey clearly explaining as best I could where I was going and mindful of the need to value and respect all those I encountered along the way.

3.4 Interpreting voices

Debates between Carr and Elton on the nature of historical enquiry feature significantly in my memories of studying for A level history and continue to resonate with my attempts at interpreting the professional knowing of history teachers. Elton (1967) argued that facts in history existed independently of the historian, and that only through

rigorous methods of inductive inference could the past be revealed. Carr on the other hand believed that “... facts speak only when the historian calls on them ...” (1961:11), and asserted that the historian entered into research with a range of hypotheses and questions. In my historical studies and in working through my doctoral research I found myself alternating between these two viewpoints. Refocusing on more current educational guidance, Huberman and Miles have contrasted “loose inductively orientated designs ... where the intent is exploratory” to “deductively approached ones ... [employing] ... a good bank of applicable, well delineated concepts, and taking a more explanatory and/or confirmatory stance...” (1998: 185). Such differences in qualitative data analysis have often been starkly presented as opposite ends of a continuum (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995) yet this account will explain how trying to resolve tensions between the approaches actually strengthened my analysis and interpretation of participant voices and allowed me to develop a representation of professional knowing acknowledging its nature, origins and development.

During my research journey I have been inspired by Charmaz’s constructivist reading of grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) which adopts associated tools of data analysis but emphasises:

...close attention to empirical realities and our collected renderings of them – and locating oneself in these realities. ... what observers see and hear depends upon their prior interpretative frames, biographies, and interests as well as the research context, their relationships with research participants, concrete field experiences, and modes of generating and recording empirical materials. ... the questions we ask of the empirical world frame what we know of it. In short, we share in constructing what we define as data.

(2005: 509)

Unfortunately my own initial conceptualisation of data analysis was not as lucid and I took a number of wrong turns first before I successfully adopted a similar response to grounded theory. Revisiting Kvale’s traveller metaphor, as I attempted to retrace my steps, I was relieved to discover that someone else had successfully arrived at my destination before.

Clandinin and Connelly warn fellow inquirers from seeing analysis and interpretation as distinct and assuming a straightforward move from “field texts to research texts as a series of steps” (2000: 132). From the moment I started talking to my participants, I was aware that data analysis was also underway. Miles and Huberman (1998) talk of a

cyclical relationship between collection, reduction and display as conclusions are drawn and verified, certainly my decision to request pre-existing autobiographies or engage in interviews four years later could be seen as “theoretical sampling” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 73) as I sought further data to test out initial concepts. Likewise as I moved from one interview to the next I was conscious of implicit comparisons between the responses of the last teacher with the current. Indeed, within the semi-structured interviews themselves, I enjoyed the freedom of following up responses and seeking additional information as discussions developed.

As explored (see 3.2) I had entered into data collection with a clear question, approach and drive to test out John’s (1991) conceptualisation of professional knowledge. Through initial discussions with participants and in the design of my observation schedule, which also informed the nature of most interview questions, I was adopting his categories of knowledge and therefore in some senses precoding my data. Despite my interpretivist inclinations, I was in many ways embarking on a deductive approach. This contrasted with the inductive nature of my other research question which was far more open ended and loose in asking teachers to think about the roots of their knowing through self selected critical incidents. Though aware of the disparity, such a dichotomy did not have a significant impact until I began to analyse and code interview transcriptions.

Preliminary readings of interviews immediately raised concerns about my direction in analysis. Attempting to re-apply John’s (1991) categories as codes seemed clumsy and certainly didn’t capture the dynamism and complexity of the professional knowing which participants had shared. Returning to literature on data analysis (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) I was attracted to the potential of a grounded theory approach and decided to draw on this.

Stepping back from John’s (1991) categories I looked to develop “open codes” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 101) emerging from transcriptions; essentially seeking what specific examples of professional knowing had been shared. Extensive lists were developed which identified: *enquiry*, *visual sources* and *interpretations* as significant categories amongst many others which would be readily recognisable to others interested in history teaching. Alongside these, more generic categories like: *challenges of inclusion*, *pupil grouping* and *levelling* were also identified. These were complemented by various

in-vivo codes (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) such as: *opening minds* or *sense of wonder* which were explicitly borrowed from the language of the teachers and captured a specific moment, mood or way of knowing. As these were applied and new codes were found, I revisited previously coded interviews to see if different categories better captured explanations.

In establishing different codes I was aware of two potential tensions which could undermine the quality of data analysis. Firstly as explored in section 3.3 I was mindful of the ethical tensions involved in interviewing current and ex students. Transcription captured some non-verbal nuances – laughing, pauses, talking over each other – but a coding system which focused on content did not acknowledge the ways in which dialogue had developed. Therefore, although not a primary focus, each interview was recoded to acknowledge shifts in the nature of discourse, such as confusion, leading questions, flattery, etc. Coding also had the unintended consequence of threatening to break up rich dialogue. Given my interests in narrative overall and the significance I attached to context I sought ways to counter fragmentation. Drawing on Clandinin and Connelly (2000: 131-3), I developed “interim texts” which attempted to summarise the flow of each participant’s story and “narratively code” responses by identifying how they interacted within time frames (in their current careers and past experiences) as well as in specific spaces (schools or policy contexts).

Pooling lists of codes together and drawing on interim texts allowed me to identify patterns or tensions. For example, references to “source work” or “empathy” related to each other as second order or procedural concepts in history teaching and therefore their accurate use or even misconceptions could be seen as historical knowing. Once again this process was carried out several times and different groupings were attempted – especially when there seemed to be overlap. These broader “axial” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 133) or thematic categories were indeed grounded in the data but also bore resemblances to existing concepts which others had used to explain teacher knowledge. At this point identifying relationships with other theoretical models was helpful since it helped clarify what seemed similar with and distinct about my findings. Others had attempted to capture relationships between different categories of knowing and I recognised that this was what was emerging from my analysis.

Returning to the transcripts again, deliberately reading without coding, I was once again struck by the dynamism of the teachers' reflections. Looking over broader categories I began to recognise how teachers held different themes together, how they inter-related and that through the process of reflection, tacit or explicit, a holistic professional knowing was evident. Experimenting with different ways of displaying these relationships I kept returning to transcripts and interim texts to see if my models of understanding authentically related to different teachers' dialogues.

My approach might be unrecognisable to those who subscribe to full grounded theory. Although it seemed at many stages that I was going round in circles, returning to interview tapes again and again and seeking different codes and patterns, I fell short of the exacting iterative expectations and I question whether theoretical saturation is ever possible (since I know I would have continued to benefit from re-interviewing more participants at different stages). Equally I was never fully removed from the established concepts or models I encountered in preparing my thesis or which informed my data gathering. However, my experience illustrates Charmaz's claim that "what we know shapes, but does not necessarily determine, what we *find*" (2005: 510). The process I adopted enabled me to develop a theory of professional knowing which is grounded in my analysis of participants' voices. Therefore the findings and subsequent theoretical models which follow authentically interpret what I have studied, what I saw, what I was told and subsequently what I think.

Chapter 4 – The Dynamics of Teaching the Past: What does Professional Knowing look like?

This initial findings chapter addresses my first research questions:

What do beginning history teachers know? How does this relate to existing models of professional knowledge?

Following the specific analysis of participants' reflections upon the lessons I observed as well as general discussions during subsequent interviews, six substantive themes of knowing were identified: historical, pedagogy, curriculum, learners, context and ideology. In addition, the centrality of reflection was recognised as an overarching concept which drew together these different ways of knowing. The following analysis takes each way of knowing in turn and examines how teachers' responses exemplified them and how far these findings respond to established theory. The chapter ends with my own inclusive and dynamic model of professional knowing which is grounded in the analysis of these findings.

4.1 - Historical Knowing

Unsurprisingly given the commonality of their backgrounds as graduate historians with post-graduate teacher education qualifications, all of the teachers interviewed were able to differentiate between substantive content and the procedural nature of history (Lee and Ashby, 2001).

Although not the focus of the research itself, the lessons observed testified to the breadth and depth of substantive history. The chronological range stretched from the Roman Empire to the outbreak of the Korean War. Lessons examined the role of individuals, such as Titus Salt and the nature of social movements and groupings, such as the anti-saloon league. As well as the impact of local (the Brighton railway), national (the Irish famine) and international events (the British Empire), pupils were also asked to reflect upon themes across history such as the development of medicine.

On an individual basis all demonstrated depth through sophisticated use of substantive concepts. Some used carefully selected anecdotes, while others demonstrated

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confidence in pinpointing specific dates and events. For others reference was made to the contents of specific sources of evidence (e.g. the Truman Doctrine) or specialist historical language (Husbands, 1996) was used to describe the characteristics of a specific period in the past, such as Renaissance, or totalitarianism.

Interestingly given current preoccupations with quality in subject knowledge (Ellis, 2007), a common feature across the interviews was unfamiliarity with the focus of lessons observed. Indeed the specialised nature of undergraduate history meant that even experienced teachers were often learning topics for the first time before teaching them. As one explained,

the nature of my degree has been a specific history, in Jewish history. So, anything that I didn't do for A level ... is largely self-taught really, ... the only thing that I teach really, that I have to degree level is the Holocaust and ... the Crusades. (Rebecca).

Indeed all teachers were able to identify areas of strength from their own education or new specialisms which emerged out of teaching. Most explained how their own history education prepared them to tackle and research new topics with assurance as this interview with one respondent illustrates:

I in terms of learning about the Korean War how are you doing that?
R Start with a textbook. A GCSE textbook and then I use the internet or use [Macmillan] seminar study books a lot ...
I How do you go about doing it that way? What do you hope to get out of it?
R Well I tend to think that the exam board text books are probably pitching at the level it's going to need to be taught at and the areas that I need to really develop, so I start with that and then I go to the specialist books and expand my knowledge with those areas in mind... (Joanne)

There were interesting variations between groups and individuals in historical knowing. In common with Wineburg and Wilson (1991), more experienced teachers demonstrated considerable confidence in exploring substantive history whether employing complex terminology or identifying the diversity of experience. In contrast, NQTs were quick to acknowledge limitations and recognised that in some circumstances they were one textbook page ahead. Interestingly this lack of confidence was not a feature for pre-qualifying teachers, indeed their lessons and responses suggested a security in both breadth and depth contrasting with Gudmundsdottir and Shulman's (1987) novices.

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This unanticipated difference could illustrate how student teachers perceived engagement in research as another assessment of their progress and therefore worked to strengthen this. However the responses they gave were in keeping with previous observations; indeed it was the responses of the NQTs which were distinct from previous classroom encounters. Partial engagement in history content probably reflected competing demands during induction. As later discussions will illustrate it was these teachers which regularly referenced the pastoral needs of learners both in and outside of the classroom. They themselves were quick to concede a struggle with different challenges:

I get by - but I do worry though about higher ability pupils - I worry about doing them a disservice ... I do spend a long time preparing for lessons ... I'm stopped by dearth of time and resources. (Ravi)

This awareness suggests that the NQTs had much in common with Eraut's post qualifying nurses illustrating how new professionals struggle to keep practice under "critical control" (2007) during induction, where new demands force prioritisation of what they consider to be most pressing aspects in their work.

Engagement with how history works and the concepts which organise the discipline were universally secure. Teachers spoke with clarity about historical empathy, recognising significance and identifying change and continuity. Enquiry, evidential understanding and "sourcework" were more commonly referred to than any other procedural knowledge. Again teachers employed specialist language in order to explain the complexities of their craft:

I was trying to develop evaluating sources ... I mean it's not just about evaluation, it's about the nature of reliability. I was trying to look beyond what the source said to consider reliability, bias, utility of evidence as well (Christine)

This confidence in how history is warranted realises Shulman's (1986) encouragement for teachers to understand their subject's distinctive place within the curriculum and brings in to contrast differences with North American history (Siexas, 1999). As such it suggests that their own history education had prepared them successfully for the challenges of "unnatural" historical thinking.

All beginning teachers spoke enthusiastically about how their procedural knowing had developed and recognised its distinctive place in their teaching. One eager PGCE

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student went further than others in identifying ways in which his lesson could have followed a number of different concepts:

[The lesson] was based around enquiry... because the whole thing was about unpeeling layers of enquiry really. I think also there was significance as well. ... There were opportunities for interpretations – Beckett really lends itself to interpretation I considered it but then I thought of the actual enquiry. Because I think to look at interpretations there would need to be a bit more prior knowledge there then there was. (Miles).

This is also interesting because it illustrates how early career teachers begin to rethink concepts in response to how their pupils construct the past rather than just lifting an objective from the national curriculum. Like Counsell (1999), this novice selected enquiry over historical interpretations based on a developed understanding of pupil progression and potential misconceptions. As Husbands et al (2003) found, not all had a deep appreciation of historical methodology and similarly some discussed more generic skills such as “note-taking” or “working together”.

These teachers readily approximated Booth’s (2003) tripartite conceptualisation of historical understanding and as successful history graduates we would hope that they could blend mental representations of the past with associated disciplinary techniques and concepts. However one final consideration on how the quality of historical knowing is sometimes variable is worth exploring. For some teachers self awareness of quality of knowledge was determined by an awareness of pupil progression.

Analysis of data suggested that the more advanced the pupil ‘historians’, the more sophisticated historical knowing needed to be. So whilst one teacher felt her A level history was enough to support Year 8 pupils studying Chartist protests, for her GCSE group she returned to her degree files for lessons on Mussolini. Another faced with teaching a familiar topic to a new A level class felt the need to regularly revisit original secondary literature she had found four years earlier to guide her students through a sophisticated debate on structuralist and intentionalist claims about Hitler’s role in the Nazi state. This suggests a recognition that different groups might benefit from different levels of historical knowing. Such considerations echo Alder’s (1998) critique of peripheral participation within schools, where she questions the kind of situated learning which new teachers encourage amongst pupils. Moreover it recognises a disparity between the history of academics and its school manifestations. For, however strong they are as historians, the work they undertake with pupils is not to replicate the

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history of the academy but to scaffold understandings in a discourse of schools' history. As such, variability in historical knowing, might not necessarily be negative, if other aspects of professional knowing are secure and more urgent.

4.2 - Pedagogical Knowing

The key thing is actually how you package knowledge. What is important is that you have to tailor it for a certain class – This was a Year 7 today but they don't want to know about the constitution of Tarn - they want to know about the dispute between the King and his Archbishop . (Miles)

This account illustrates how a beginning teacher articulates an approximation of pedagogical content knowing (Shulman, 1986, Cochran et al, 1993). Here the teacher reflects upon what they know about a medieval murder in a cathedral and considers how to “package” this for the particular needs of a group of 11 year olds. Such judgements were common place with all the teachers interviewed, although decisions behind choices of interactions (Pendry, Husbands, Arthur and Davison, 1998) were often different, emerging from the demands of learners, the complexity of history, the school context or indeed the time of day. As such these teachers were very different from the settled traditionalists observed by Booth (1969) and in many ways indistinguishable from the innovative practitioners reported by Husbands et al (2003).

John (1991) identified “history teaching” as a specific domain of knowledge, incorporating Shulman’s pedagogical content knowledge as well as how to organise the classroom and its curriculum resources. Security in the classroom environment was regularly reported and questioning revealed that more than anything else confidence had come from learning from prior experience. As one teacher illustrated, reflecting upon their use of timing strategies to keep pupils (and himself) on task:

Regular time checks and targets are important – I learnt that since teaching practice. With no time limits – activities drift. It's important to give pupils a sense of urgency to engage them. For a teacher's sake – it helps me to be organised and avoid drifting. It is a kind of thinking aloud. (Anthony).

Perhaps surprisingly for beginning teachers, explicit concerns with classroom management were limited; instead teachers recognised the importance of selecting appropriate activities to appeal to learners. In the same way as experienced practitioners (Cooper and McIntyre, 1996), most of them were driven by commitments which attended to “affective” considerations. With regularity, interviews revealed a

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desire to “engage”, “settle” and “have some laughs whilst learning”. Sometimes these were driven by practical considerations, such as teaching a challenging year 9 group on a Thursday afternoon, but more often it emerged from their own preferences. However, especially with older learners facing examinations, “technical” concerns were also explicitly pursued. In these situations, teachers identified the need to scaffold learners through coursework, explore examination criteria and “stick to the specification”. These different concerns were not mutually exclusive, and teachers struggled to balance creativity with curriculum demands:

... because it is an exam I feel I have to stick to the scheme of work. ... I have strayed I did a roleplay on the Big Three - they did a Renaissance “Big Brother- they really learnt something and had fun too . But I have to say mainly I stick to exam requirements (Ravi).

A commitment to innovation was particularly marked among those completing their training and those who had more experience. Again probably in response to the demands of induction, NQTs did not always feel they had the space, time or energy. PGCE students were particularly keen to take risks and had clear justifications for their choice of activities. In one lesson, a beginning teacher employed pupil volunteers and mock ingredients (from her kitchen) to recreate Pare’s accidental discovery of antiseptic ointment during the 1537 siege of Turin with very clear motives:

...It was something different for them, it got them involved. It engaged them ... They’ll never forget the ingredients that went into Pare’s ointment and how, because he’d run out of something else, that chance and his own intelligence were factors in causation. (Sue).

Such an approach resembles how Wineburg and Wilson’s (1991) wise teachers drew upon examples to create “contextual” representations accessible to learners.

Equally some recognised that particular procedural concepts required specific strategies to scaffold pupil learning. One example involved an NQT using “layers of inference” (Riley, 1999) to encourage engagement with evidential understanding. Again her rationale was explicitly focused on how scaffolding was needed to given the complexity of the history:

if they could at least describe what was ... [in the picture] then they could make the link to what it means. Rather than going straight - what does it mean? ... You build it up better if you say ‘oh she’s sitting on cases, why is she sitting on cases?’, and ‘why is she looking the way she is?’ So, once they can see what’s in the picture then perhaps they start wondering what it meant to be an immigrant in a foreign land. (Belinda)

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Understanding how best to respond to learners' differentiated needs also helped one teacher select appropriate classroom groupings:

I like to use group work especially when I'm doing anything which is involving sources or texts because I find that if you give it to individuals the weaker pupils will struggle with it, and in group work the others, will help them. (Joanne).

Some selected active teaching strategies as a reaction to what they considered to be traditional practices encountered during placements. This was both an act of rebellion but also emerged from their perception that some learners were “cheated” as they moved from the freedom of Key Stage 3 to the assessment focused context of GCSE. This interview extract illustrates how a PGCE student was most explicit about why she favoured regularly surprising her pupils:

R *Well I think if you come in thinking oh I bet we do a table and a question today and that's pretty much what you do ... So I just want them not to be expecting that lack lustre frame of mind.*

I *Has that come from your own reflections?*

R *It's the way they come into a room almost, it's just they're been beaten and beaten into the ground with this repetitive writing. Questions, drills, levels*

(Sue)

More experienced teachers were prepared to vary their approach. Recognising that their own teaching style was more interactive, one explained how a didactic approach was sometimes necessary when faced with introducing complicated coursework or when groups failed to develop an inclusive dynamic.

As a group, these history teachers illustrated a range of pedagogical knowing and revealed how different considerations shaped their choices of activities and organisation. Differences emerged between cohorts and individuals, but their potential for effective history teaching is a recognisable commonality. Indeed, as a group of early career teachers their practice compares favourably with other studies of novices (Gudmundsdottir, 1987) and suggests that “wisdom of practice” (Leinhardt, 1990) should not necessarily be reserved for experts. However, more important than comparisons, is that an analysis of pedagogical knowing reveals how interlinked professional knowing is. Again and again teachers' reflections linked teaching strategies with learner needs, temporal and institutional contexts as well as the demands of the subject itself. Closely related to this focus on planned activities is the teachers' selection of teaching resources and other curricular materials.

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4.3 - Curriculum Knowing

The strong relationship between choosing resources and selecting activities leads Husbands et al (2003) to conflate them in their model of professional knowledge. However others (John 1991, Turner-Bisset, 1999a) have argued that “curriculum knowledge” is discrete, representing a key driver in helping teachers select materials to support pupil learning. This represents a “pharmacopeia” (Shulman, 1986: 10) of tools of the trade which teachers draw upon both during their planning and in the classroom. It is interesting that the term: “curriculum knowledge” predates the National Curriculum and therefore now takes on a more prescriptive character as teachers need to respond to both statutory and non-statutory guidance. In this discussion, curriculum knowledge is therefore used in this broader sense to include both resource choice and frameworks.

Teachers were well aware of how their lessons fitted within frameworks for pupil learning and related their objectives to longer term programmes of study followed in departments. They used the technical language of awarding bodies as well as that of the National Curriculum. Those working with Key Stage 4 identified how lessons built up pupil understanding to prepare them for examinations. Sometimes lessons focused on developing responses to particular questions or it could focus on drawing pupils’ attention to how they were working towards a “big picture” as this teacher explained:

I just wanted to spend two lessons looking at it [whole topic of impact of World War Two]. I've done this for all my GCSE groups really, providing an idea of where they were heading for because some of them like to know. It's got a nice sort of like aid memoire for them as well, they sort of tick off what we've done ... (Hannah).

Curriculum knowing was illustrated through choices surrounding which teaching resources to use. In most lessons a textbook was used or referenced as a source of information however it was very rare for these to dominate lessons. More often primary sources from a textbook were selected for analysis or teachers allowed pupils to make use of them during research. Significantly most teachers were able to both justify and critique the choice of department textbook. Particularly those with more experience who were able to explain why the book was used and recognised strengths and limitations:

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We use this one because it comes from the exam board. It's pretty thorough as well, which Year 11s need – especially for coursework. It's pupil friendly, the sources are varied, it has good pictures and its broken up quite nicely whereas others have too much text to read. The exercises are a little formulaic – I create my own questions for the sources. (Hannah).

Teachers had more ownership when it came to selecting other pre-existing resources. Videos were regularly used, though in contrast to Gudmundsdottir's (1987) novice, this went beyond classroom management strategies. Instead, extracts from feature films were used for their power to capture a moment or concept. For instance a carefully selected extract from the *Life of Brian* was referenced to help pupils understand the heritage of Latin language and a short section from *Roots* was shown to reveal the experience of runaway slaves. In one case, a portion of *Bugsy Malone* was discussed as a particular interpretation of the problems associated with prohibition.

The most regularly employed type of resource was a visual image, the nature of which ranged from facsimile documents to political cartoons. Again their use indicated depth and complexity in professional knowing which underpinned choices. In one case a staged photograph was used to provoke complex thinking from the pupils and establish focus for the lesson:

I wanted to install a bit of wow... it's not everyday that you get a picture like that. It's clearly a man of god being attacked by knights. It was to build up a sense of wow ... to really get them thinking. You know the first period after lunch they can be a bit slow to engage – you need to get them enquiring... and what better way to do that then a very stark picture. We don't see people beheaded in churches anymore. Fortunately [laughter]. (Miles).

Here the teacher reflects on how the image was used to inspire, explore the nature of the substantive history and encourage enquiry amongst a group of Year 7s attending to their learning states at a particular time of day. In another case the use of a projected map was initially selected in anticipation of potential misconceptions:

... in the Korean War you've got to have a maps to show them where places are show them in this instance where it was on the border with China ... And getting them to put the cards onto the map on their table that can help them to focus how things are changing over time. (Joanne).

The same resource is then used within an activity to move pupils away from just seeing where Korea is to engage them in the procedural understanding of change and continuity as the boundaries of the conflict shifted.

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Most teachers eschewed established resources and created their own often tailoring these to specific pupil needs. Resources were designed to facilitate capturing data (tables, mind maps or question prompts) or offer guidance in writing essays or analysing sources (writing frames or layers of inference diagrams). Others tried to help pupils structure their ideas as they responded to an enquiry:

- I Why did you give them those cards to work with?*
R I think they were much better with the text broken up ... Using cards it looks more appealing.
I The cards are more than just appealing to look at.
R Of course – this is about why the conflict developed and how different events helped lead to others. They are thinking about causation it becomes more concrete as they move ideas around.

For this teacher the physical and concrete ordering of the cards encouraged the pupils to think historically and meet the differentiated needs of her class.

For one novice teacher the potential for some resources to make the past concrete was an opportunity not to be missed. Reflecting upon the success of a hot-seating exercise one teacher explained his thinking:

I always think if you want to be a knight, have a sword, if you want to be a king have a crown. I use hats a lot – you have three hats – you have a crown, you have a top hat, you have a flat cap. And that is it you have the social structure of Britain ... then you can get some difficult ideas across. (Miles).

Such reflections illustrate the potential of beginning teachers to source, create and use different resources to engage pupils with specific contextual or epistemological models (Wineburg and Wilson, 1991).

A final source of curriculum knowing was revealed through discussions on mundane classroom tools and equipment. Overhead Projectors, scissors, coloured pens regularly feature in classrooms and at first seem unremarkable. However teachers shared insights into how these underpinned effective practice. With access to newer technology some were able to explain how and why PowerPoint helped structure learning, whilst one fortunate NQT was realising the potential of an Interactive Whiteboard in getting pupils more involved in peer presentations. With more traditional resources at their disposal most teachers made use of these in creative ways to support pupil learning:

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I use colour pens in order to highlight ideas and to facilitate contrast between different schools of thought and to reinforce some points more than others. ... this gives some kind of visual structure to how it all fits together. (Ella).

One teacher recognised her classroom as a teaching resource. Since arriving at the school she explained how she had used displays to focus on key historical concepts. This had an impact on pupil confidence with spellings as well as reinforcing meanings behind procedural concepts. In addition, an extensive timeline served as a reference point throughout the year and she argued: “made it clear that you were entering a history classroom rather than another tutor group base”.

Perhaps more than any other area of professional knowing, analysis of how teachers used curriculum resources reveals how beginning teachers demonstrate belonging within communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991). As such, curriculum frameworks and textbooks can be seen as artefacts (Alder, 1998) which embody practical and cultural significance both within the local community – the department and a broader community of history teaching. All the teachers in this study had gained access to these curriculum materials and, as they moved from “peripheral participation” to full membership, they gained ownership over how these were used.

Starkly, the experience of one NQT illustrates how restricting the “transparency” of artefacts to newcomers leads to feelings of marginalisation. For this teacher limited input into an inherited scheme of work on the Renaissance raised doubts about her place within the department. To her the selected topic and resources seemed to alienate pupils and turn them off history, yet her colleagues were reluctant to listen or allow her to change. Later discussions revealed the restricted nature of department meetings and, taken together, this reluctance amongst peers to consider her ideas for curriculum development impacted considerably on her confidence.

In contrast when teachers discussed sharing resources with colleagues, these reflections suggested a process of “reification” (Wenger, 1998), where teachers were able to offer their beliefs on how best to support historical thinking in a concrete form. This helped secure their place within a community of practice, especially when discussions with peers allowed them to explain their thinking behind an initiative. This was best illustrated by a teacher who explained how engagement with a gifted and

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talented project had resulted in the development of a sophisticated approach to differentiation shared in a whole school INSET.

Curriculum knowing again illustrates the complexity of professional knowledge formation. It reinforces the interconnected thinking involved as teachers consider curriculum materials in the light of the subject's demands, their teaching preferences and the needs of the specific pupils they teach.

4.4 - Knowing Learners

You can see when they come in, the way they act in the first five minutes how they're going to be for the rest of the lesson. (Celine).

Early knowledge models (Schulman, 1986) initially overlooked how teachers drew upon such understandings. Follow up research (Cochran et al, 1993, Cooper and McIntyre, 1996) have ensured that knowing learners “intellectually, socially, culturally and personally” (Schulman, 2004) is now recognised as central in teachers' thinking. History education research encourages teachers to consider potential misconceptions (Wineburg, 2001) and the challenges associated with “pupils' mini-theories” of how history works (Husbands, 1996). I have already noted how an awareness of pupil responses help re-shape teacher understandings of history specific concepts (Counsell, 1999) and the ways in which pedagogic activity often seeks to foster affective developments in motivation and engagement (Husbands et al, 2003).

Discussions on learners revealed an acute awareness of what their needs were, how they might behave and the challenges they faced both inside and outside the classroom. Teachers spoke with confidence as they identified the characteristics of classes, the organisation of ability groups and the stories of particular pupils. Teachers explained how a particular class compared with another, drawing upon past cohorts or current peers. Typically teachers would move from discussing the behaviour of thirty pupils to the specifics of smaller groups or an individual:

Forms are different. Some can't concentrate – so you need to use sanctions. It's a different experience with this streamed group, that might discourage you from differentiating but there are two students who need specific structure. You always need to re-evaluate for particular pupils. (Anthony).

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How and when to differentiate according to ability often emerged as a key concern and teachers were anxious to balance the needs and sensitivities of individuals against the majority. Justifications were often set within an awareness of how the school organised learners and discussions revealed how beliefs about education underpinned choices. One more experienced teacher discussed how she physically ordered the classroom according to abilities and her perceptions on how this reflected the mixed ability ethos of the department she worked in as well as her awareness of pupil sensitivities as this discussion illustrates:

- R *If you look at this room there are higher ability on those two tables and two tables at the front so those four tables there require more support*
I *Are all classes mixed ability?*
R *Yeah, I think it's good. I have friends in languages they get stuck with a lot of low ability classes. Even in sets you've still got a range of ability.*

(Rebecca)

Recognising diversity within the classroom featured in several interviews. For example, beginning and experienced teachers identified how a lack of parental support could impact upon pupil progress, whilst others drew upon their own assessments of learning preferences to rationalise their choice of pupil activity, illustrated by one teacher:

There's been a lot of assessment for learning, the importance of modelling. I suppose it all comes down to Kolb and learning styles, moving from the concrete to them doing it themselves, to get a kind of conceptual understanding. (Celine).

Equally a couple of teachers discussed how gender differences had a generalised influence on engagement with certain topics or related to motivation in different activities. Perhaps the most explicit focus on diversity emerged in a discussion of an AS level lesson on inter-war totalitarian regimes in Europe which involved visiting German students:

- I *How do you cope with that – is it sensitive?*
R *In the past having them as students in the class was something that freaked me out a bit ... but I think with a combination of being very open with them and also in many ways they don't seem to associate themselves with the things that are being talked about.*

(Ella)

As with earlier discussions regarding differentiation, an awareness of different pupil needs in this case motivated the teacher to approach discussions with openness. This was coupled with additional support and tailored resources. This not only reflected development through experience but also her beliefs on how to interact with pupils on a personal level.

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The more experience teachers had with a particular class, the more intimate their knowledge was of individuals. This was explicitly illustrated by reflections of the most senior practitioner:

Some of them I have taught since Year 8, they are now Year 11. ... I know what they are capable of and I know how much to push some of them and I know who'll wind up who, which ones annoy others. ... quite a mixture really! (Hannah).

Her full reflections ranged from the perceived impact of parental support to the ways in which seating pupils with peers might help improve examination performance. If I had allowed the interview to continue the teacher would have given me an intimate pen portrait of every pupil in Year 11.

Although lacking the same level of experience and intimate knowledge, the importance of knowing learners dominated the discourse of NQTs more than any other group of beginning teachers. For one teacher nearly every aspect of teaching was framed around the needs of her pupils, where their confidence, well-being and relative academic success seemed paramount. As such knowing pupils seemed to shape many of the decisions she took:

I really didn't want them to be disheartened by their failure to understand what is meant by reliability - that is why I went through it again even though I planned not to. (Ravi).

This same teacher was also able to draw upon this developing knowledge to explore her own understandings of how her pupils should be progressing in history. Examples were given of initial misconceptions in evidential understanding and how these were being addressed – as such she had started to construct her own mental model of how she would prepare future Year 10 pupils for similar exercises.

Other NQTs explained how the needs of specific individuals often preoccupied their thinking. In one case the experience of identifying a child protection issue and the continued support the teacher offered this pupil had pushed him to reassess his priorities for pupils:

... it's not about ... providing kids with detailed knowledge of history or getting them an A - C pass, it's about actually helping kids, help themselves in a way, sort of give them the stability and reassurance and solutions which they can't get elsewhere. (Mike).

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For another teacher the sudden introduction of a disruptive pupil from another class again resulted in a reassessment of beliefs. There was a limited opportunity to get to know the pupil before or during the lesson. All the teacher had to go on was a vague awareness of how the staffroom “went blue when his name was mentioned” and his immediate disruption at the back of her classroom. After the lesson the teacher voiced her disappointment that her initial commitments to inclusion were challenged by her knowledge of how the pupil had been given and rejected chance after chance and the detrimental impact she felt he would have on the learning of others.

Unlike others, PGCE students had little time to get to know particular pupils and as such they had not yet developed the intimate professional relationships which others valued and used. This importance of knowing the pupils was reinforced by the reflections of a more experienced teacher who had recently moved to a different school. She recognised how much she needed to concentrate on building up her knowledge of new classes and individuals as quickly as possible. Without knowing pupils she suggested, her entire practice would be compromised. Such an admission recognises how much knowing is highly context specific.

4.5 - Contextual Knowing

Researchers have used different ways to describe contextual knowing. Eraut (1996) refers to the dual significance of specific situational and a broader societal knowledge and similarly John (1991) identifies the domains of institution and education. Both cases show how teachers draw upon understandings of specific classes, schools and local communities as well as an awareness of how national initiatives and social forces impact upon practice. Although discrete it is clear to see how a teacher might place their departmental approach to curriculum development (GCSE specification choices) within the broader context of national policy changes (such as restrictions on coursework).

Recent research has drawn domains together. Influenced by scholarship by Lave and Wenger (1991), they emphasise the ways in which teachers' learning is situated within different contexts. Moon et al (1999) argue that professional knowledge is shared

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between learners in the national pedagogic arena and the specific pedagogic setting of departments, whilst Ellis (2007) emphasises a social system where knowledge emerges from tensions and synergies between the cultural and political identity of a subject and the particular collective knowledge within a department. Equally accomplishing community on a micro (department), midi (school) and macro level (nationally) are all seen as significant in the development of effective practice (Schulman, 2004). This section illustrates commonalities between these models and privileges contextual knowing, identifying how departmental and school settings provide a specific environment for decision making whilst intersecting with broader issues, especially the perceived impact of an intense assessment culture nationally.

Teachers regularly drew upon their understandings of how their school or department worked. Implicit within most discussions was an awareness of how the type of school they worked in had some impact on the way in which they orientated their practice. Comments like: “this type of school” or “it’s different here” suggested that they made assumptions about how much I knew about the school already. At times this reflected their awareness that I had visited the school several times before or that by spending time in the school I had already assessed the nature of the setting. Some teachers were more explicit, praising supportive departments, helpful colleagues and a “strong leadership team that takes a real interest in the well being of new teachers”. In contrast, another’s response: “I wasn’t aware when I took the job how much this is an exams’ factory! ...You feel under pressure and it changes how you teach”, indicated how the schools’ emphasis on a particular activity impacted negatively.

Teachers were more specific about how school systems influenced classroom approaches. Most teachers referred to the adoption of a policy which they had taken up, these ranged from the use of reward systems to a departmental response to an accelerated learning INSET. Many teachers, especially those in the earliest years of teaching, were able to identify with the positive impact of whole school approaches. One teacher a year after her induction reflected on her active involvement in school improvement:

.... The school set up a working group. Now we are clear so groups know about how to enter and what equipment you need, how to behave in a classroom. “Ready 2 Learn” is something that has influenced my teaching. (Rebecca).

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Another teacher recognised how a national initiative had driven the school to insist upon a particular approach to teaching:

- I *Your lesson had a really, very close structure to it - a starter, a main activity a plenary...*
R *That's the Key Stage 3 strategy it is now becoming part of school policy. I'm doing it more now since the school decided to push for 3 part lessons,, especially plenaries ...*

(Ravi).

Those that had completed their induction and were in the second or third year of teaching were more inclined to see limitations with school policy or approaches. One teacher explained how a well intentioned drive to increase homework submissions had been undermined by the reporting system's complexity and extra paperwork. Similarly another teacher was sceptical about the value of tracking every formal and informal assessment since the process overshadowed opportunities for working with pupils to improve on performance. Even relatively inexperienced teachers were aware of how school policies had a negative impact on their teaching, especially when they were on the sharp end of associated problems. One NQT voiced her frustration with how information was poorly shared in her school:

This is typical and not the first time ... I didn't know [about his behavioural problems] and I now need to find out what is wrong with him. I was only told he was going to be in my group by bumping into his tutor in the corridor. I haven't received any official notification ... You are meant to get a report in advance. (Belinda).

At Shulman's (2004) micro level, the department, teachers were more positive about how the work of fellow professionals affected them. Like Letman's (2005) study, most recognised and drew upon "nodes of interpretation and exchange" through planned meetings and informal learning. Quite often teachers discussed how they might draw upon the expertise of a particular teacher in the department, a specialist on Nazi Germany or a supportive Head of Department, when planning or seeking resources. Equally, the benefits of department meetings were identified, especially when the agenda moved away from routine items to discuss the potential impact of a new teaching strategy. One NQT spoke of the importance of the physical location of the department, based within a network of pre-fabricated huts, the department office provided teachers with a sense of community, away from the distant staffroom. Others spoke in more affective terms recognising how colleagues were a source of friendship and personal support, rather than a professional resource.

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The intersection between national developments and responses within schools were keenly felt by all teachers. One particular issue that teachers identified was the limited time given to history in the curriculum. Most recognised the government's role in introducing new expectations (more time for physical education) or new subjects (citizenship) which undermined time for history. Nonetheless, they were well aware that one or two hours a week was not enough to secure historical understanding for most pupils. Equally, teachers were aware that with every new initiative, the demands on their own time would increase. Therefore opportunities for developing imaginative resources or offering extra support sometimes had to be limited.

Like the teachers interviewed by Husbands et al (2003) or indeed by Booth (1969), disillusionment with assessment systems and the subsequent focus on outcomes affected how teachers behaved. Some were disillusioned by the limited opportunities for weaker but enthusiastic pupils at GCSE:

the difficulties are there's not a foundation paper so there are pupils who really love it that haven't got maybe the literacy skills that some of the other kids have got and ... can't always access the exams. (Hannah).

The need to secure strong examination results was reported by many of the teachers. In some cases this resulted in a change of teaching approach:

Unfortunately, I think my teaching is driven by assessment more ... after [Curriculum 2000] than I would like it to be. I would say fifty percent. And I hope that the other fifty percent is my attempt to kind of hold on to them enjoying history. (Ella).

Although it was often more experienced early career teachers that expressed disillusionment with such contexts, one PGCE student was concerned about the impact on pupils, especially how assessment outcomes dominated the formulaic approach of a placement school:

I You were quite critical of Key Stage 4. What do you think is wrong with it?
R Well not so much here but my last placement felt a bit like Soviet Russia, [laughter] it was just, levels, questions, they were sort of being groomed for something ... no deviation, it was levels all the time. It was First term, Year 10? ... from then on questions, drills, levels!

(Sue)

Interestingly this strongest response came from a PGCE student, for in most other cases, such beginning teachers were relatively quiet in discussing context. However

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this is likely to reflect the fragmentary nature of their exposure to a particular setting rather than their failure to engage in contextual knowing. In this case the distinctness of her placement encouraged reflection on contextual knowing and revealed the development of her distinct beliefs, values and attitudes towards teaching the past.

4.6 - Ideological Knowing

John (1991) was one of the first to emphasise the impact of beliefs, attitudes and values in professional knowledge in history teaching. Using 'Ideology' as a category he argues that beliefs about the nature of the subject and attitudes towards teaching provide a filter for classroom experiences and in turn help guide professional decisions and learning. Others may have used 'beliefs about the subject' (Turner-Bisset, 1999a) or 'personal subject construct' (Banks et al, 1999) or explored similar territory through examining teachers' purposes (Wilson and Wineburg, 2001, Frydaki and Mamoura, 2008,) but all essentially recognise belief systems about the subject significantly shape professional knowing. For teachers, ideological knowing was a central focus for reflection and revealed complex and strongly held beliefs about their own historical perspectives, commitments to pupils and self images as teachers.

Several teachers were explicit about where they placed themselves within historical debates, but viewed these as essentially distant from teaching. For one, "a left-wing perspective" guided their choices in personal study. However they were minded to emphasise that their "interest in history from below" was not an overt feature in their teaching, until Year 10 when pupils had the maturity to recognise that his view was one of many. Two other teachers believed that history could best be understood through feminism. Whilst one felt this was purely a personal matter, the other identified how it informed decisions, especially a commitment to consider different gendered experiences where possible. For these teachers, the impact of their ideological knowing was simple, it was either held in check or recognised in guiding curriculum choices.

For other teachers however, a commitment to 'objectivity' or otherwise was challenging and often left them rethinking responses to pupils. One PGCE student struggled to explain her perspective on how her views shaped lessons:

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I think that I try to take the middle ground and I try to take a balanced approach. But I'm probably still leading them, how can you not? I was putting my viewpoint about Native Americans this morning and I was talking about how ... we should now view them. So I shared it with them. They need to know that in my view Native Americans have been treated badly since we "discovered" them ... (Joanne).

A more experienced teacher, recognised that issues of subjectivity in perspective and content choice were conscious decisions which were sometimes constrained by examinations frameworks:

When I first started teaching I struggled with the idea that some say you should not allow your politics to influence what you teach ... I think that given how history works ... I think my own views on history ought to be shared... Although we are constrained to some extent by the exam board we ... build in elements which look at ... social history as well, like women in the civil rights movement or ordinary kind of peasant existence in Russia.(Ella).

Most teachers illustrated the qualities of "reflexivity" (Phillips, 2002) in practice, arguing that history necessarily had a moral and political dimension which should not be hidden from learners. Such a commitment to "critical pedagogy" (Phillips, 2002) was revealed by many. One PGCE student recognised that teaching history,

... in its greatest sense is making better citizens of us by our understanding of where we come from and where we have been and how society has been shaped by the events of the past. (Sue).

Another teacher argued that history offered opportunities to challenge stereotypes and directly tackle misconceptions about people in the past and in the present:

... I was interested in bringing in a multi-cultural curriculum ...I don't think racism is a problem in this school but there are some inherent attitudes I want challenged ...It's something that I feel is basically a very important element of history. (Rebecca).

One more experienced teacher recognised how history had a role to play in both shaping identity as well as offering pupils the critical facilities to question this:

I think history provides an understanding of identity, ... how they fit into the world and how history helps them to make their own judgements about what's going on now. For example, with the holocaust that we're going to do we can begin to relate that to discussions on refugees. I think the most important thing is that it gives them the skills to be critical and to not accept exactly what they're told. (Ella).

In all these cases the teachers were very aware of the purposes they had assigned to their history teaching and how these would develop pupils beyond providing knowledge of the past.

Others shared the view that history offered critical skills but approached this more pragmatically arguing that it made a distinct contribution to pupils' potential

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employability. For some, history developed hard skills in analysis, evaluation and “putting forward a point of view” which would have value in other subjects, further study and in employment. Others looked to history alongside other subjects, in offering softer skills like inter-personal communication, this was best illustrated by the reflections on one NQT:

I do concentrate on skills more because I can see a purpose and they see it as well and when we do group work and they moan at me, I want to be with my friends, I explain to them that you don't get that choice in the workplace you've just got to get on with others. (Belinda).

Where discussions focused on the vocational value of history, issues of access to the subject were sometimes explored. In essence, some teachers were asked whether they wished to see history established as a compulsory subject in the curriculum. Surprisingly, despite teachers arguing that a good history education was important for all, few wished history to be obligatory beyond 14. A couple of beginning teachers admitted that self interest explained their reluctance, concerned to avoid the experiences of other colleagues who were “doomed to teach pupils who did not want to be there”. One student actually surprised me by revealing a fondness for the exclusivity of GCSE, especially after emphasising how essential history was in understanding the present. The remaining doubters argued that knowing their learners, a significant change in assessment would be needed before they considered extending history education to all.

Some teachers were eager to move beyond history to consider their work more holistically. This was particularly true of those experiencing their induction year. The NQTs in this research regularly reflected upon the pastoral dimension and often refocused discussions on their “relational knowing” (Webb and Blond’s, 1995), emphasising their support for pupils outside the history classroom. Two teachers discussed responsibilities as form tutors and the ways in which this broadened their appreciation of what education could offer young people. One NQT identified a particular scenario which had challenged his vision of teaching as subject driven:

My view has changed, if anything I've sort of realised how much more important education is and how much of a role a school can play in being a stable institution especially for people who don't actually have that in their life. (Mike).

For another, knowing that pupils in her care were “happy, ...safe and healthy” became more important than just their historical understanding. Even when history teaching

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was their sole professional focus, maintaining strong relationships with learners was viewed as central.

Ideological knowing also involved teachers reflecting upon their own performance. In some cases, they used revealing metaphors to describe how they saw themselves. Some descriptions focused on pupil relationships – “a friendly autocrat” or “traditionalist with a mummsie approach” whilst others expressed their mixed attitudes towards practice – “lazy perfectionist”. One developed a more sustained explanation, encapsulating her practice beyond metaphors:

I'm not the sort of teacher who stands and talks for twenty minutes, I'd rather get them involved by them either asking me questions or answering my questions, getting them to think things. (Hannah).

These reflections have much in common with Cooper and McIntyre's (1996) “preferred teacher images”, illustrating how practitioners readily draw upon self descriptions to explain how they perceive their classroom selves.

Shulman and Shulman (2004) emphasise the importance of teachers being “ready, willing and able” and having shared the first and last of these, all were quick to emphasise their professional motivation. Even when interviews took place at the end of a full week or coincided with a challenging teaching day, again and again, they were passionate about their commitment. Perhaps the most enthusiasm came from those at the end of their training. At the threshold of achieving qualification, one teacher explored how prior experience influenced his motivation:

... I mean the only question in my mind is whether I should have done this twenty years ago. ... I just feel so much more energised by it because I'm getting more out of it than the children by the way. I'm coming at it now with a lot of experience from other walks of life which I think is no bad thing. I'm just having a good time. (Miles).

Articulating that ‘buzz’ in many ways encapsulates ideological knowing. It represents a specific motivation that drives teachers forward and implicitly influences professional actions. Not all were aware or possibly willing to explore this perspective but for some a particular vision of teaching was consciously revealed. For one NQT, it was the realisation of the history she would share with pupils which inspired her:

I think it is a privilege to teach. I'm in a position to open minds and get them to tackle what they don't know about. ... they don't know about the Holocaust yet - I'll be the one to open their eyes. I don't take it lightly - look at the bags, the grey hairs [laughter] I take it seriously. (Ravi).

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The anticipated responses of pupils themselves offered another teacher all the encouragement he needed:

I want to send children away with a sense of wonder. ... I wonder how I can go and learn more about this - y'know just give them that sense of that the past is not some dark room with dust covered books - it is alive in everything we see and do today. (Miles).

This was not just a cosy reflection on teaching, but the preceding observation and subsequent interview, illustrated that such a vision had driven nearly every aspect of this teacher's planning and practice.

Overall clarity in ideological knowing was often more marked in those who had more experience. With one exception, those nearing the end of their initial teacher education revealed contradictions in their explanations or found it hard to communicate some of their beliefs. In many ways this reflects the research of others (Burn, 2007, Virta, 2002) who have identified the prevalence of attitudes predating professional experience. As Ellis (2008) has argued, beginning teachers often develop complex and shifting "subject biographies" which become "worked on" as professional experience is extended. Indeed, Chapter 5 explores how this was reflected by teachers interviewed at a later stage in their professional lives.

4.7 - Professional Knowing Through Reflection

In reviewing other forms of professional knowing one feature has consistently emerged in beginning teachers' responses: reflection. Whether reconsidering the learning demonstrated by the pupils in observed lessons or critiquing the approach to source analysis in a textbook, teachers looked back on their knowing and actions and carefully considered the roots of their responses to situations. Typically teachers would reveal their reflection through specific discourse. For example, in this extract a teacher reflects on why they decided to regroup pupils in abilities:

I'd been thinking for a while. I wanted them to decide for themselves but I knew they wouldn't do this. ... you try and influence their choices but in the end I just said to them that this is how I think it will all work better. If they had challenged me I think I would have said, okay, let's wait until maybe half term to finish the topic, let's have a look at it again then. (Christine).

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Here they explain the situation they encountered, the choices they considered and the action they took, in doing so it is easy to identify the distinctive framing and re-framing of reflective practice (Schon, 1983).

It could be argued that since these were interviews, reflection would be a forced consequence of my questioning anyway. It is highly unlikely as Eraut (2002) has identified that professionals would normally find the time to reflect upon practice in such depth. However, given my position as a co-observer of their practice and my informed status as a teacher educator, it did not take long for my prompts to facilitate rich reflection which in turn helped them and I realise the nature of their tacit knowledge. Whilst the situation may have been fabricated, the depth and thoughtfulness of their answers and the ease and sharpness of their responses was not. This suggests that whilst the context was engineered, reflection itself was an authentic, established and central form of their professional knowing.

Indeed it is not just this research which makes such a claim. Beyond the work of Schon (1983) and Eraut (1994) exploring the nature of knowledge in action, other models recognise the distinctive position of reflection. Turner-Bisset's (1999b) model of teaching knowledge bases includes "knowledge of self" as a specific domain, recognising reflection as a significant feature in self knowledge. Shulman and Shulman in revising their concept of pedagogical content knowledge place "a *reflective* cluster that includes evaluating, reviewing, self-criticizing, and learning from experience" (2004: 265) at the centre of their model.

Eraut (2002) however identifies the challenge of differentiating between 'reflection in action' and 'reflection on action', the former being harder to identify during the "hot action" of classrooms. The teachers in this study were more inclined to demonstrate conscious reflection on their teaching after their lessons, although there were glimpses of reflection during the observed lessons themselves. The application of Eraut's (2007) modes of cognition framework illustrates the variety of reflection demonstrated by teachers in this study. The observation of one NQT delivering a lesson on 19th Century emigration through visual sources provided the closest example of reflection in action. Using a powerful photograph as a stimulus the teacher asked the pupils to explain what

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it revealed about what emigration was like. The class failed to respond and stared blankly at the image. Almost instantly, the teacher reframed her questioning and selected a pupil to describe the background in the photo, following a positive response she asked other pupils further specific questions drawing out the distinctive features of the people in the photo, their belongings and their expressions. Within 5 minutes she had returned to her first question and drew upon the majority of the class who raised their arms to answer. The teacher was later encouraged to return to the episode:

R *I couldn't get them to interpret. I then thought if they could start describing what they saw, it would actually set off thoughts, if they could at least describe what was on there then they could make the link to what it actually meant I think it's easier to build it up ...once they can see what's in the picture then they start taking it a bit further and wondering what it was mean to be about.*

I *And were you aware?*

R *Straight away ... as soon as I saw there were sort of blank faces in the room. [laughs]*
(Belinda)

Here the teacher's response was rapid - identifying a problem, thinking about her learners and drawing upon another teaching strategy. If the interview had not followed, the episode could have easily been described as a reflexive reaction, but in this case the retelling also makes it a deliberative process.

There were other examples of rapid cognition and several teachers reflected upon "trial and error" or "gut reactions" as shorthand for the application of instant responses. In one case a teacher discussed her decision not to remove a pupil from the classroom for misconduct. In this instance the pupil was asked to stand up. The teacher admitted that her intuitive behaviour would be to send the boy out, but that she recalled how he had over-reacted to an incident before, and instead reseated him at the back of the class. In this case, intuitive reflex was tempered by the rapid recall and application of pupil knowing.

As the interviews have demonstrated, deliberative and analytical reflection characterised most discussions. The teachers exploited time in the interviews to explore the roots of their perceptions and decisions. In some cases this had allowed them to reach conclusions on which resources were more accessible or which class could be trusted during groupwork at the end of the day. It was never a case that the

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teacher did not know – they were always able to reflect and respond just as they were able to reflect and act in the classroom.

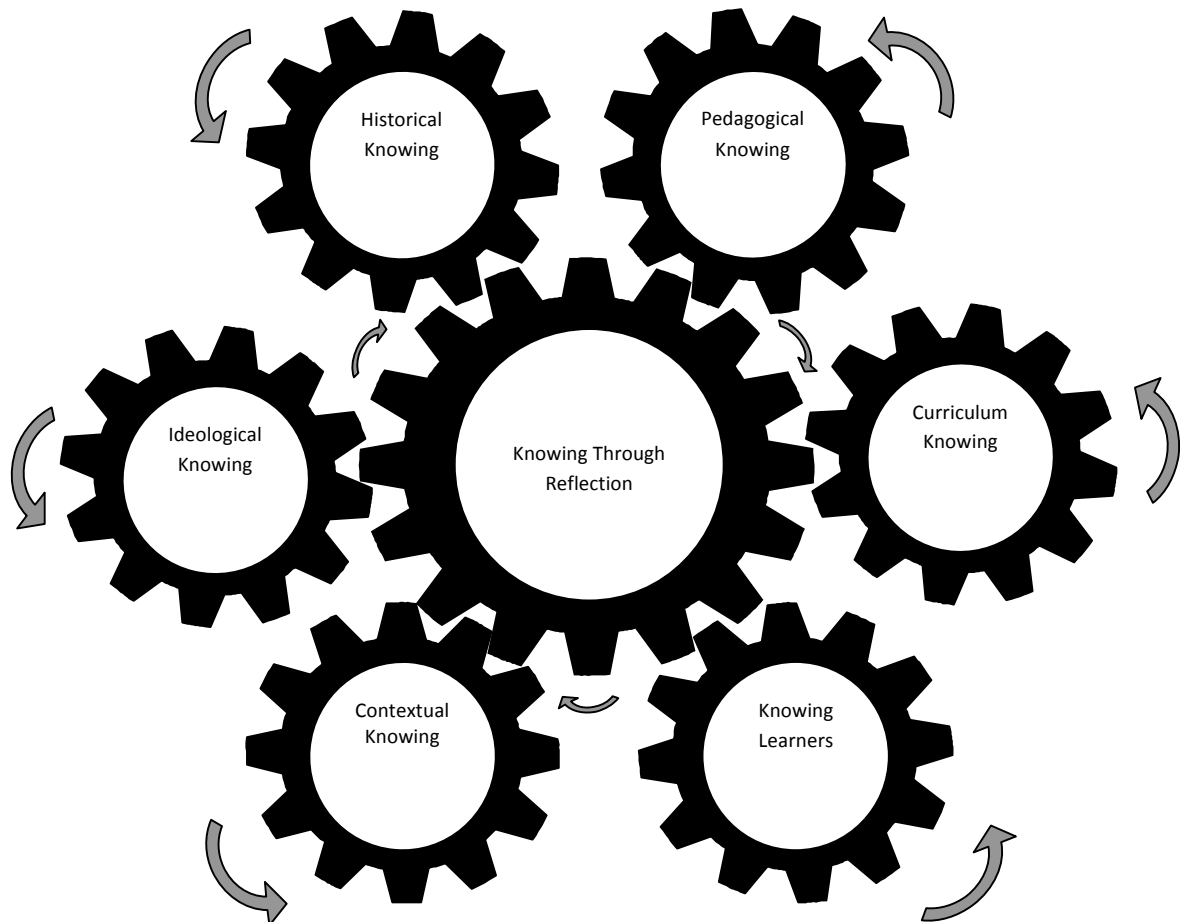
The model below (figure 7) attempts to bring together the ways in which teachers demonstrated their professional knowing and places reflection at the centre as a distinct way of knowing. The findings have illustrated how teachers draw upon their knowing of history, pedagogy, resources, learners and context as well as their beliefs and values. It has also been argued that whilst these areas of knowing can be described and illustrated discretely, they work in complex ways with each other and decisions or reflections often necessarily include others. As Husbands et al have observed, teachers bring together professional knowledge by:

making choices that represent a best fit of the potentially competing demands of the needs ... and interests of their pupils, the ideas of history, their own ... preferences, the time of day and what is available.

(2003: 81).

Whether intuitively or deliberately, these other ways of professional knowing are shaped, developed and integrated through reflection. Therefore knowing through reflection is privileged at the centre.

Figure 7: The Dynamics of Professional Knowing in History Teaching



The use of cogs as an iconic metaphor and the sense of rotation exemplified by the motioning arrows, attempts to capture the ways in which professional knowing is dynamic. The criticism of many other models of professional knowledge (Ellis, 2007) is that they are static and fail to capture change and movement. These findings have illustrated that this is far from the case, professional knowing is in constant flux, as consideration of an episode in one way, brings in knowing from another. Moreover, such responses to challenges both in and outside the classroom, often change understandings and therefore knowing itself changes in response to new scenarios and reinforces preferences for professional knowing over the fixed discourse of knowledge.

Chapter 5 – History Teachers’ Histories: What are the Origins of Professional Knowing?

Talking with history teachers enabled me to craft a model of professional knowing which presents a range of domains generated through reflection, as well as the dynamism inherent in their thinking. Equally as I sought a level of abstraction I was also acutely interested in everything they were sharing with me. As Connelly and Clandinin counsel,

people are never only (nor even a close approximation to) any particular set of isolated theoretical notions, categories or terms. They are people in all their complexity. They are people living storied lives on storied landscapes.

(2000: 145)

My conversations with teachers told as much about how they came to have their professional knowing as the intricacy of its nature. As we spoke and reflected on their professional and personal lives and the experiences which had shaped them as history teachers, it became clear that the origins of their knowing could also be described as multifaceted and in a state of flux. This chapter draws upon the critical incidents and the stories these generated during interviews as well as the educational autobiographies which were collected as further data. In doing so these reflections offer a kind of envelope illustrating how the model introduced in Chapter 4 is nurtured, bounded, developed and changed as teachers’ own life histories progress.

In many cases, exploring their narratives as history teachers illuminated more than the particulars of an individual biography; for as situational and historical frameworks were recognised and considered, “stories of action [became] located within theories of context” (Goodson and Sikes, 2003: 47) and their life histories told of broader changes in the educational system, teacher education and the contentious context of school history.

Whilst trying to honour the depth and range of different life history experiences shared by colleagues, I am constrained by the word limits imposed by doctoral regulations. As such this chapter does not retell narratives in their entirety but seeks to examine significant critical incidents in ways which remain faithful to their original meaning yet provide insight into the distinctiveness and commonalities in the emergence of professional knowing. Research by Eraut (2007) into early professional learning,

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provides a useful framework for analysis by isolating the impact of formal learning factors and context factors. Teachers' reflections confirmed the power of formal learning episodes and contextual influences, especially shifting memberships of different communities of practice. In addition to these broader categories, historical features in their own personal narratives also made a discrete and unsurprising contribution to their genesis, engagement and progress as history teachers. Findings are therefore organised to illustrate the significance of influences, interactions and personalities in three sections: personal histories, formal learning and the context of communities of practice. This chapter ends with a discrete but connected analysis of the three extended interviews which took place much later in the research process as I began to reengage with my thesis after a period of intermission. These identify how the passing of time and engagement in new professional contexts and situations offer another dimension in explaining the development of professional knowing.

5.1 - Personal Histories

John (1996) and Virta (2002) emphasise the enduring significance of early events in shaping history teachers. Both conclude that interests in the past usually predate schooling and find their origins in interactions with family, travel, museum visits or stories. In addition, wider research (Calderhead, 1991; Wideen et al, 1998) identifies school experiences and subsequent beliefs as fundamental influences on the development of new teachers. As Virta explains:

During this apprenticeship of observation, teachers-to-be collect impressions and tacit knowledge ... During lessons they not only learn history or biology, but also receive a rich store of experiences of differing types of teachers, differing styles of teaching, and various ways of studying.

(2002: 688)

In many ways, reflections by early career teachers in this study supported prior research, especially the importance of family and models of teaching from their primary and secondary schools. However, analysis also suggests that reflections on how school history was taught revealed as much about curriculum change in the late 20th Century as it did about 'good' or 'bad' teachers. Moreover, the context of educational change in different schools and the nature of prior employment or pre-teacher preparation also emerged as significant.

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Family influences were regularly identified and were particularly acute with teachers at the end of their initial teacher education. Indeed all the PGCE students recognised ways in which early experiences within the family had in some way sparked interest in the past. One teacher vividly recollected, almost pinpointing the genesis of her interest:

I will never forget my first real history moment. Sundays at teatime, The World At War. The theme tune was frightening enough and what followed alarmed me even more. I could not believe that just forty years earlier (a pinprick in time!) generals in sinister uniforms were standing as tourists in front of the Eiffel Tower ... and my country burning. How, why, who, when? (Sue).

Similarly another spoke of how an artefact, a children's encyclopaedia of British history, became the focus for fascination and a regular stimulus for discussion with her parents. One new teacher went further exploring the sensations he experienced as a child with his emerging objectives for school history:

It may seem rather trite. I must have been four or five was sitting in the lounge listening to my father talk about the Second World War. He hadn't even been in it but he was interested in it. ... I was just absolutely fascinated ... So I think historians start young. It was just the sense of what are you talking about? Again filled with that sense of wonder which is the same sense of wonder that I want to try and instil in pupils. (Miles).

Family history too provided a spur for engagement but equally offered inspiration in practice. This story illustrates how one teacher's ancestral tragedy in World War I strengthened her teaching of enquiry:

I'd forgotten about my great uncle, dead aged 19 in October 1914, Ypres. It's only this year I brought him into my teaching. I've got a photo of a list of names on Menin Gate and I ask girls to look at it as a source – useful? limitations? etc. I get them to think about what the source doesn't say. And then I said well I do know all about one of these soldiers and point to his name and tell them his story. The next day two girls came up and said they nearly cried at my story and then proceeded to tell me things they'd found out about members of their family. (Sue).

Family members were also credited as a source of support and encouragement throughout schooling and especially during teacher education. This was particularly apparent where families or partnerships were themselves engaged in the profession. For one teacher, teaching and family were inseparable:

My family – are all kinds of teachers/social workers – aunts & uncles – they must have inspired me. I didn't assume I'd be a teacher but I didn't expect to do anything else. My wife also. The year we started out together – we started teaching. The two to me are intertwined. It's our life and we share ideas and attitudes. (Anthony).

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Likewise marriage to an Advanced Skills Teacher in a different subject provided another with access to alternative teaching and learning strategies as well as a companion in reflection.

Whilst families often provided opportunities for engagement with history, it was the nature of the subject itself and particularly physical manifestations of the past which offered inspiration or sources of knowing. Several reflected on how visits to historic sites– the Mary Rose, Parham House, The Imperial War Museum - sparked interest or sustained them throughout education. Each visit encouraged further enthusiasm and often provided a rich source of substantive knowing that was still being drawn upon. For example, one teacher identified how a walking tour of Brighton enriched by the anecdotes of her own history teacher was regularly used to inform her teaching of Regency Brighton. Moreover, recognising her childhood interest in linking stories to historic places, she used this approach to engage her own pupils with many different topics.

Some teachers told salient stories which bound their own experience of the past to specific procedural concepts. One explained how attending a libel trial involving David Irving, the British 'historian' associated with Holocaust denial, raised fundamental questions about how the past can be misrepresented and the importance of seeking certainty in historical accounts. For a PGCE student the experience of PhD research examining 'British Agricultural Policy in the Gold Coast, 1929 – 1951' exposed the imperfect and fragmentary nature of historical sources as well as political instability in post colonial Ghana:

In 1982 I was fortunate to travel there ... The trip was enlivened by an attempted coup... and a sixteen hour curfew. ... The experience was also notable for the poor condition of Ghana's archives. As an historian it was disappointing to find so many important documents either missing, damaged by damp or half-eaten by termites. It reminded me of the precarious nature of historical study. (Miles).

The same teacher later reflected on the impact of his life as a city banker during the financial crisis in 1992:

I actually lived through a significant historic event if you are looking at Britain in the last decade ... It brought down a government. ... I want to try to bring that to children - to get them to understand that they will live through events that will become significant historical events. We don't know what they are but they were all alive on September the 11th.. You feel almost a responsibility to bring to people this understanding that history is not just the past it is the here and now. (Miles).

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For this teacher and others, living through history in their own lives engaged them in the nature of historical significance and strengthened their commitment to empowering young people to understand the past.

An overwhelming influence on professional knowing, referenced by all, was that of their own teachers. As Virta (1996) identified the impact of prior teaching models loomed largest with those engaged in initial teacher education. A feature in most narratives was a comparison between exciting and effective history teachers and those (within history and beyond) who had failed to ignite or maintain interest. In one interview, contrast was drawn sharply between pre “New Teacher” and “Post New Teacher”:

I was really fortunate to get a new teacher ... I remember the first lesson we were looking at ... the European congress system and she did a spider diagram and asked “right, what do you know?” ... It was the first time we'd been asked our opinion. ... You know, it took a bit of time at first to explain how we'd spoon fed stuff. ... She really brought the subject alive, she made us have debates, do our own little research, present it to each other and she really brought the whole thing alive really. (Hannah).

Like John (1996) enthusiasm and depth and breadth of knowledge were regularly regarded as the most significant features of successful teachers from their histories.

Since this study looks beyond those in initial teacher education to a broader range of early career teachers, it is marked how enduring these experiences are. Moreover, discussions often reflected current preoccupations. For those encountering the pressure of an NQT year, they focused on teachers that maintained classroom discipline. Interestingly for one, whilst a teacher was jokingly remembered for his clicking metal toecaps, outlandish ties and “issues” with high self regard in an educational auto-biography, his military style approach to instilling order was seized upon as an example to emulate in later discussions. Equally for another struggling with pastoral responsibilities, inspiration came from recalling a supportive mathematics teacher who had taken the time to develop confidence and trust. In his own teaching, this was seen as central with disaffected pupils. Even the most experienced of those interviewed, quickly turned to their own history to recall the creativity of certain teachers and how their use of role play or unusual resources had found a place in their own teaching.

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Clearly the “apprenticeship of observation” (Virta, 2002) exerted powerful influences over these teachers, but it is also worth qualifying how this could be challenged. Certainly a new source of influence emerged from the way in which selection for initial teacher education encourages new entrants to gain pre-experience observation. Most of the teachers I interviewed had undertaken 5 – 10 days in different secondary schools before applying to programmes and, in some cases, had spent time working as a Teaching Assistant beforehand. As such, observers drew on teaching models that were rooted in the present and often introduced them to creative strategies which left lasting impressions:

I was watching a head of department ... his knowledge was like an encyclopaedia ... but that wasn't what really impressed me. Here was here was a man doing a roleplay on General Dyer after the Armistar massacre. ... But you know here is a guy who didn't have to do this really, but he did it with such enthusiasm, that you could not fail to walk out of that class and not think that you'd experienced something special. (Anthony).

In such cases teachers tended to be more perceptive and specific about what they had learnt from watching others teach, and sometimes then rejected those they had encountered whilst they were pupils at school.

Discussions prompted some to take more critical perspectives not only of their own experiences of being taught history, but also how they viewed themselves as teachers. Several stories were recounted of revisiting old schools or serendipitously meeting ex-teachers in public. It was often these experiences which made them reconsider what good history teaching looked like and how powerful an influence these teachers had become. Interestingly such encounters also had the effect of making their teachers seem more human and allowed them to compare their own progress and ways of teaching. As one teacher wrestled to explain:

It's weird because you think more about how you, how they were, when you're sort of teaching. Before you teach you can't compare yourself to them, but when you teach you sort of compare how your style is and how their style is, you know, and how they were perceived. ... By doing the PGCE and becoming a teacher yourself you also appreciate what they've done but you also can start to be a bit critical and they become more human. (Celine).

Once established in the classroom, therefore, reflections on being taught sometimes had an emancipatory quality, freeing them from their own teachers as they realised how far they had come.

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The older the teacher, the more traditional their experience of history seemed to be. "Textbook!" was how one remembered history, whilst another recounted being taught in a way that mimicked Slater's (1989) parody of history teaching's 'Great Tradition'. Another educated in the 1980s responded to the limits of a teaching approach which was exclusively skills based, where regular practice of source based questions seemed constantly dislocated from any historical narratives. For these teachers, an interest and proficiency in history had found genesis and development elsewhere, but they remained acutely aware of how important "negative" experiences were and their analysis led them to search for alternative approaches. In contrast, younger teachers were able to speak with enthusiasm about their experiences and described ways of being taught which echo the prevalent practice of current history teaching (Counsell, 2002). In one narrative, a teacher reflected on how her understanding of history shifted during secondary school:

I had considered history to be just about learning facts, it had not even occurred to me to question what I read. Mr Crow taught me about interpretation, how to question sources, and how to write history, the skills that I would carry forward ... (Joanne).

These accounts not only illustrate a recognised source of professional knowing but also reveal much about shifts in history teaching during the late 20th Century as well as the ways in which life history can illuminate curriculum subcultures (Ball and Goodson, 1985).

The same could be said about school contexts overall. Few teachers' school memories were dulled with the passing of time and recollections were often evocative as this account:

Teaching was conducted by an endless succession of elderly spinsters who ruled over classes of forty-four pupils with an iron will. The curriculum was heavily slanted in favour of the 'three R's,' and would have been instantly recognisable to my father, and possibly to his father as well. Learning was by rote – a daily incantation of the 'tables'. (Miles).

Other narratives were equally replete with tales of laid back teachers in *Miami Vice* suits, suffering bullying and bullying others and a range of other experiences from comprehensives and private schools alike. However, it is clear from some reflections, that specific contexts had a stronger influence and helped shape professional knowing, especially ideologically. In pastoral support, the benefits of affability were considered most keenly by those who had found aspects of their young lives difficult. Many reflected on a special individual teacher who had reached out to help them during

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challenges at school or in their home lives. One recalled: “she was always there for me – I could talk to her about my problems and knew she would listen. Without her I genuinely believe my time at school would have ended very differently – I doubt I’d be a teacher now”. In contrast, some felt schools had let them down and vowed that their own approach would be very different. One narrative opened up the puzzle over what could be learnt:

As a prospective teacher, I don’t know what, if any answers can be gained from this recollection. I was not a horrible child, merely unhappy in her family life and frustrated at having to compete for the teachers’ attentions with so many other students. I do wonder why it didn’t occur to anyone at the school to question why in the space of a few months, I had gone from being hard working and enthusiastic to sullen and disruptive. Did no one question my absences? (Christine).

Later the same teacher reflected on how they looked out for so called “troublemakers” and sought to get to know them and about issues which might account for their reluctance to learn.

A recurring theme reported by younger teachers was their experience of “relentless” assessment. For many of them, who had often been at the receiving end of National Curriculum tests, GCSEs, and changes to post 16 examinations, outcomes driven education was viewed in mainly negative terms. They had sympathy for pupils whose work was regularly “levelled”, “referenced” or “graded” and sought an approach which tried to move pupils towards genuine engagement rather than just examination success. Equally for those who had benefited from ability grouping, streaming and setting were regarded as positive teaching frameworks. Whereas those who had missed out on a Grammar school education or who felt their enjoyment of schooling had been undermined by disruptive pupils in “sink groups”, academic selection was rejected and mixed ability teaching favoured. Unlike attitudes towards history teaching which changed or were moderated through teacher education, these broader beliefs seemed more entrenched and were not necessarily adjusted by specific practices in placements or engagement with research findings.

5.2 - Formal Learning

The impact of teacher education is a contested arena in which researchers (Furlong et al, 2000, Cochran-Smith, 2001, Hagger and McIntyre, 2001) have sought to account for teacher development and progression through the relative contributions of school

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experience, formal knowledge sources, university programmes and assessment mechanisms. It is not the focus of this study to rehearse these arguments, however teachers indicated that the impact of “formal learning” opportunities or influences were differentiated and complex. The following analysis of these reflections focuses on the role of formal teacher education or professional development programmes and the place of codified knowledge such as research findings.

All teachers referred to examples of attending a range of different training or professional development events, but only a small number were regarded as having had any substantial impact upon their professional knowing. Since most were completing or had just completed their NQT induction, references were made to how this helped them. In the worst case, one NQT admitted that the school they were working at had failed to make any additional provision and only offered access to school INSET available to all. In contrast, one spoke with clarity and specificity about the impact of attending an active learning seminar by Paul Ginnis, educational author and workshop leader, for NQTs:

This training day was very theoretically based ... but he didn't stand there and tell us the theory he actually ... [showed how] ... active learning could be applied to different subjects. ... It was somebody making the imaginative leap for you. ... In this case I went home and re-planned lessons. It ... totally influenced the nature of how I teach. (Ella).

Such responses were very much the exception. For the majority, they could identify the focus of generic after school training but felt they added little. Sometimes an inspirational speaker or “one of those behaviour gurus” would run a school INSET which caught their imagination. However, further reflections often echoed the assessment of the teacher above, as well as scholarship (Eraut, 1996), acknowledging the attractiveness of theory but the challenge of finding time for application.

Whole school initiatives were more successful in altering practice and several teachers talked about how policies like “Ready 2 Learn” or “assertive discipline” were applied. Though as one teacher noted, this might reflect that these drives were accompanied by accountability to senior management. As such it is questionable whether objectives-focused lessons or perceived good practice in Assessment for Learning were genuinely embedded in their professional knowing. Reflections by two different teachers are revealing when contrasting the appeal of the National Strategy. One teacher readily

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accepted formative assessment guidance because its philosophy and strategies struck a chord with her own frustrations with “constant end of unit assessments”:

I could see links with history immediately , ... then of course I meet Jo who was in charge with of Teaching and Learning in the Foundation Subjects Strategy and ran the pilot over [my school] in 2002. Then you looked at information more critically, especially after assessment for learning ... this idea that we explain what we want. No-one had really talked about it before ... (Christine).

Another teacher rejected unwelcome guidance. Taking issue with enforced insistence on three part lessons and scribing objectives on the board, she vented her frustration: “We’re historians for goodness sake! We use enquiry questions which are far more meaningful to my lot than ‘by the end of the lesson you will know this or that!’”. As such, the school’s insistence on National Strategy recommendations was resisted because they did not resonate with her own professional knowing of how best to teach history.

Despite scholarship questioning the impact of codified knowledge on beginning teachers (Counsell et al, 2000), many recognised the benefits of staying engaged with subject specific research. Several were subscribers to *Teaching History* and actively sought time to read articles by fellow practitioners. These were viewed as useful since they could see how they worked in a specific class and could be adapted to suit their teaching. Several cited specific readings in explaining how it had influenced them to adopt “enquiry questions” in planning (Riley, 2000) or establish frameworks for evaluating significance (Phillips, 2002), one teacher proudly proclaimed, “I haven’t forgotten Christine Counsell you know!” as she explained her approach to revisiting concepts in source evaluations.

Most teachers remembered how they had come to understand the place of research in the classroom through a specific assignment they completed during their teacher education. They had areas of understanding, for instance, in how pupils misread political cartoons or strategies for teaching slavery, which emerged from action research and they drew upon these during their first years of teaching. For a couple, active engagement in research made a fundamental difference to their professional knowing. In one case, employment as an academic researcher into student voice before becoming a teacher had a lasting influence on how they treated pupils:

I think I had more of an understanding of the bigger picture ... I did a lot of work on student voice and I think it influenced my attitudes towards students and the way I talk to them, the responsibility I'd like them to have in my lessons. (Ella).

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For another teacher, as he became more established in his school he had taken on a research project which explored boy’s underachievement. As such he had read extensively, visited other schools and was soon regarded as an authority, sharing his specialist knowing with other colleagues.

Some however, admitted that “theory” initially seemed threatening or redundant in the classroom. Taking a pragmatic view one remembered, “if I’m honest I thought this isn’t going to help me on a Friday afternoon with a Year 9”. Yet time and experience or a different way of learning, prompted teachers to re-engage with research. For one attending a *Schools Council History Project* conference allowed them to make connections:

I’d read Teaching History on the PGCE, looked at their cunning plans etc ... and I kind of, I was a bit intimidated by it. ... I went to the conference in July and met the people, you know, the Jamie Byroms and all who actually write the books, heard them talk and I got it! What they’ve done with history is absolutely amazing really. Now I regularly use thinking skills and human graphs ... and anything else they suggest. (Christine).

Several recognised that it was the learning context which restricted their professional knowing from formal teacher education and associated codified sources. The intensity of their PGCE programme or NQT year meant that for some it was a challenge to engage with research, but with more confidence in the classroom and relationships established with pupils, they were able to return to readings and session materials. When questioned about this process one teacher responded:

Only now do I get the ideas about source analysis or interpretations. It’s hard to relate to at the time. Not now though and I’ll use it even more next year. There is a difference between surviving and learning - which is what you do on a PGCE. And now which is about teaching and professional development. But not in the first term [in NQT year] - that is about surviving too! (Ravi).

For another the combined interference of a “domineering” Department Head and a “spineless” mentor meant that whilst they were keen to experiment, their knowing remained inert and their enthusiasm dented. Such an experience supports Bullough’s (2001) concerns that a prevailing conservative culture can restrict opportunities to explore the potential of innovative strategies. Having settled into their first appointment school, this particular teacher was able to return to research-supported approaches and was enjoying the freedom to take recommended risks.

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For a modest number of teachers, and as John (2002) identifies, teacher educators were considered an important source of professional knowing. Charged with overseeing formal learning, tutors were perceived as potential models of best practice. Sometimes particular sessions or learning episodes were singled out as influential, particularly in understanding the nature of a fundamental concept in history or showcasing different approaches. In parallel with reflections upon research, one teacher identified the “slow burn” of application: “I didn’t really get the whole interpretations thing until you showed us the Cromwell film stuff, then it clicked. I wasn’t ready to try it then, but now I use it with different groups on different topics”. Teacher educators were also attributed an important role in pushing teachers to take risks, as one reflected,

He made us experiment, try things out and said to us when we were on placements have a go at doing things and if it doesn’t work out don’t worry. And I remember him saying try a bit of drama, if it’s not, all singing - all dancing ensemble, you know, just a little bit, have a go at doing it. (Hannah).

As well as encouraging beginning teachers to engage with challenge, teacher educators were valued as sources of support and guidance during a period of intensity. Addressing my relationship with them as their former tutor, an NQT expressed gratitude:

It is your was your support too. Especially accessibility. ... always quick to email a response to a problem or follow up problems. You helped me rationalise and focus on what was important at different times. (Ravi).

An “open door” approach was clearly a developing feature of this teacher’s own practice as she offered pupils support in and out of lessons. Several teachers felt strongly that it was important for tutors to be credible as classroom practitioners. Interestingly, this did not just mean could that they still hold order with a difficult Year 9 class, but were willing to share their “mess ... in the kitchen” (Bain, 2006: 216). Faced with “best practice”, some wanted and valued hearing stories about the tutor’s own mishaps and “nightmares”. As such, teacher educators needed to be able to model critical self reflection as much as an engaging starter.

5.3 - Informal Learning Contexts and Communities of Practice

The importance of informal learning within communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) has been identified as a significant factor in shaping professional knowing. Although none of the teachers referred to such concepts, their stories and reflections

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were replete with examples of how they had come to understand teaching through informal interactions with colleagues. Moreover, like Ellis (2007), such learning was fluid, characterised by emerging status within groups and shifts in membership as they negotiated access to different communities. This section therefore explores the informal learning of early career teachers and the relative importance of different communities of practice. The significance of the school based mentor (Maynard, 2001) is acknowledged in guiding colleagues through legitimate peripheral participation during school experience, as is the centrality of the subject department (Letman, 2005). Equally relationships with other teachers across different professional gatherings are also explored.

Unlike the PGCE students reported by Maynard (2001), most teachers in this study had reached a stage where they saw themselves as separate from the mentors who had overseen their “apprenticeship”. However, whilst they no longer felt constrained by other peoples’ preferences, they still recognised the powerful influence of the key individuals who had guided them through school experiences. For some teachers, specific events evoked an understanding of how they had come to learn. In one case, mentoring expertise was distributed across the department, allowing the then PGCE student to try things out:

... the school was cutting edge. They had fresh ideas - especially the Head of Department and my mentor. They were not afraid to take risks and I had the opportunity to do this. I was encouraged to try new ideas all the time ...taking examples from their world and applying it to history. I learnt from them - by talking to them - how to be reflective ... how to tailor it to different groups.(Ravi).

As an NQT this teacher had become committed to exploiting the concrete understandings of pupils to engage pupils or reinforce a historical concept.

Teachers identified interesting features in the process of legitimate peripheral participation (Lave and Wenger, 1991) associated with becoming a teacher. For example, without exception, mentors were seen as relentlessly encouraging. Again and again teachers noted their generosity and dedication to reflective practice. Several commented on how their preconceptions of history teaching were challenged by the practice offered by close classroom colleagues. Initially expecting guidance from an all-knowing historian, they soon appreciated that other qualities were more valuable in

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scaffolding pupils' historical understandings and shaping their development. One teacher commented on the end of her apprenticeship:

My first mentor had a very good attitude. She's been teaching for about thirty years but continues to want to learn new ideas and that was quite refreshing to see. And she talked a lot about how, being a good history teacher isn't about knowing every historical detail, it's being an ambassador for your subject. I've always sort of carried that with me – be good and engaging rather than being an expert. (Joanne).

Mentors were therefore acknowledged as essential in steering teachers through their initial classroom experiences and perhaps, more than any other individual, fundamental in shaping professional knowing.

The most current sources of professional knowing regularly emphasised were teachers' history departments. In most cases, the character of situated learning within these resonated with theories of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991). As such teachers told stories of department heads and other "old timers" who had overseen their induction into a specific workplace. These were seen in many different ways, from "bullies" to "absolute inspirations". They could be very (sometimes over) involved or "hands off" offering no more than "teaching is an art babe ... you'll be fine!" In more positive references, experienced teachers often offered two distinct sources of professional knowing, as one teacher identified:

My previous Head of Department knew the subject like the back of his hand and I learnt a huge amount from him in terms of what I needed to tell the kids and how to approach sort of certain questions really ... And Steve, I've learnt more, not like, not knowledge stuff at all but I've learnt more about different strategies teaching wise. He's very much into doing stuff like encouraging to get the kids outside, like let's be really active, have a go at doing this role play on the field. (Hannah).

More broadly teachers often spoke favourably about different forms of collaborative practice. Approaches varied, but usually featured the sharing of resources, joint planning activities and emotional support during professional and personal challenges. Working together to create shared materials was highly valued and was seen by one as a way in which they secured their place within the department:

I suppose now my biggest influence is my colleagues; we work together on schemes of work... we plan lessons, so we pick resources and then go teach it which is brilliant and share how it went. When you start off for the first time [SoW] they are difficult to get to grasp with and collaborating really helps – I don't need to now but I value it. (Carolyn).

As such schemes of work and other resources can be seen as "artefacts" (Lave and Wenger, 1991: 102) which grant "newcomers" access to a community of practice.

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Within departments, different teachers were recognised for their various areas of expertise, from substantive knowledge to having a way with difficult teenagers. One teacher reflected on the way in which she fitted into a rising department:

We are a new and well regarded team. We’ve all got strengths and that I think that works very well. ... they ask me about the Holocaust, they ask me about differentiation. If you want to know something about ICT you ask Martin, if you want to know something about ... I mean Jane is very good with the low ability ... she’s [also] very good on social history I suppose. (Rebecca).

In agreement with Moon and Leach, some departments therefore were discussed as sites of “distributed knowledge” where professional knowing was “stretched over” a range of individuals and resources (1999: 394).

Ways of situated learning within departments varied too. Like Letman (2005) formal “nodes of learning” such as departmental meetings or peer observations were identified by teachers as ways of sharing practice. One teacher recently promoted as Department Head recognised that both had a role to play in shaping the professional knowing of his colleagues:

Departmental meetings used to be only admin ... now we really just talk about development and it is very much about development and quite often we will share good practice. ... We do observe, I do formal observations, and I’m observed too – we all observe each other. (Miles).

Equally teachers could get just as much from a chance encounter with a colleague at the end of the school day:

A couple of weeks ago I taught a lesson, it was on Kristallnacht, and Chris walked in to return some books and saw what I was teaching. He said “it’s terrible that the assassination of Vom Rath was because the two of them were having an affair” ... these two men had a lovers’ tiff and the Jew that did it was afraid his family were going to be deported and the guy that was actually killed was anti-Nazi ... yet they made him a figurehead for persecution! From this conversation I thought ‘wow that has really inspired me’ so I went and did some research and now it’s part of my lessons ... (Ravi).

Such casual occurrences or “collisions” (Letman, 2005: 3) were often highlighted as critical incidents, because they offered something immediate, accessible and unsolicited; as another teacher remarked they were “happy accidents”. This was an important acknowledgement, since a lack of time was often seen as a threat to development.

A more fundamental challenge to professional knowing was revealed by those who had found departmental acceptance problematic. As an NQT in their first post, one found it

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difficult to understand reluctance by colleagues to address the unpopularity of curriculum choices:

I think Year 8 are suffering because of inappropriate curriculum choices ... And then you hit up against the fact that teachers don't, once they seem to be set in their ways, they don't want to put the time in anymore, like what I'm coming up against is, well, you know, a new scheme of work would be great but then we're all gonna have to learn about that topic and I'm thinking, and, you're a teacher that's what we're being paid to do, isn't it? ... (Belinda).

Unable to adjust to the prevailing culture of the department, their membership of the community remained marginal; "sequestered" (Lave and Wenger, 1991: 102) they left the school at the end of the year.

Transitions were recognised as difficult, especially as beginning teachers sought to establish their status in a school. One teacher recognised the need to be patient with "old timers" as they sought to implement a project across the wider school community:

So some heads of department when I say can I have your list of G&T students, they say yeah, yeah ... you know if they ask you for something they'd expect it immediately. ... there's an element of sure, sure, young lady, but generally I've had positive responses from quite a few teachers. (Rebecca).

Acknowledging that senior colleagues were reluctant to prioritise her objectives because of inexperience, youth and maybe for some, gender, this teacher was ready to accept that this was just the way of things in the wider community of the school and was ready to laugh off double standards. Even for experienced teachers, accessing a new community could be problematic, especially when they had previously been regarded as something of an "old timer" themselves. For a now established teacher, the transition from one school to another necessarily involved another period of legitimate peripheral participation which was proving difficult. In frank discussions they admitted that not only were they reminded of the challenges encountered by NQTs: searching for resources, new expectations and building relationships, they still felt an affinity with the community in which they had developed a reputation as well as the affective support of close colleagues. Nonetheless, like most new teachers they were beginning to adjust to a new professional culture and recognised that they could learn new things about history teaching which their previous school could not offer.

Some teachers recognised that opportunities for learning extended beyond the school in which they worked. Formal training venues also provided opportunities to engage in informal learning. Two teachers talked about how a local authority meeting for history

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teachers took on a more influential role as some teachers discussed issues off the agenda after the meeting had concluded. Equally, whilst the intended impact of the annual Schools History Project conference has already been discussed, some teachers took more from the social aspect of “meeting like minded people”. One recognised how the event provided her with a range of good ideas beyond the presentations as well as access to valuable models of teacher commitment:

... seeing people from other schools that had been teaching for a long time helps. Sometimes I worry that, okay, I'm enjoying it now but what about in twenty years time? And that sort of thing is nice to see and get ideas from. We did a lot of idea sharing in the evenings as well, yknow over drinks, which is a bit sad really but so helpful. (Celine).

Such events or activities initiated beginning teachers into a broader community of practice involving history teachers from across the country.

5.4 – Changing Contexts

As explored in the methodology (section 3.2), changes in my own professional context necessitated intermission from this doctorate and subsequent re-engagement in 2009 involved taking the opportunity to re-interview a number of the teachers who had originally contributed 4 years earlier. Although obviously alien to my initial research design, these later interviews afforded me valuable perspectives on the shifting nature of professional knowing. The accounts which follow are drawn from interviews which were both more personal and richer than before, regrettably they can’t be shared in their entirety. Instead I offer three vignettes which portray how the teachers viewed their early career development and the extent to which their professional knowing had changed as they adapted to different professional contexts over time.

Miles’ (and Sue’s) Story

The unmistakable quality of Miles’ professional knowing recognised by many during his teacher education had been readily rewarded by his school. Originally appointed as a history teacher, he had moved quickly from A level politics leader to head of a large and successful history department. Our interview coincided with his appointment to Assistant Principal. Miles spoke cogently about the “rollercoaster” of his NQT year, the subsequent strengthening of classroom management and the ways in which he pushed pupils to think historically from Key Stage 3 to A level. He identified the impact of

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watching peers, the fresh ideas which beginning teachers brought to the school and the support of senior managers in extending his professional knowing. More than anything however, his progression had challenged him to reconcile some of his initial beliefs about history teaching with the need to secure successful examination outcomes. Throughout discussions Miles spoke with passion and conviction about seeking improvements in results, both within and beyond the department. The exchange below illustrates the ways in which Miles reflected upon this shift in focus:

- R *... the thing that struck me when I first got here is that they weren't too bothered about results; they were getting like 55-59%, and I was amazed about how blasé they were saying 'well that was a bit poor' ... there was no 'what should we be doing?' ... When I took over as head of department ... I was like 'the kids aren't doing well, we're going to have to do something about this'...*
- I *Can I read you this? Sorry... because I've read it earlier... [Reading from the initial interview] 'I'd rather people look back on their school days and think that was the best time of my life, not because I had no responsibility but that they could learn something in a pleasant environment, a non hostile environment and I think it has made me a better person at the end of the day' ... What do you think?*
- R *Yes but that's the difference I would say between the PGCE student and the head of department, isn't it? I mean it reeks of idealism there, but now its hard-nosed practicalities.*
- I *Yes but you've still got idealism [referring to earlier dialogue about exciting lessons and inspiring pupils]*
- R *It's about the kids at the end of the day and the fact that we've gone from 47 to 68% ... I know it's a random number but they've got something to develop their lives so ultimately the numbers aren't important but they are a way of keeping score, it's the end result, giving the kids a better life chance*

Miles castigated his earlier self for naivety and idealism as he found himself in a more demanding context. However whilst he embraced the need to track and drive up results, he emphasised his devotion to engaging pupils in history and working with others to ensure the curriculum offered both accessibility and challenge.

Similar experiences were shared by all those re-interviewed but perhaps most starkly by another ex-PGCE student, Sue, who was initially scathing about the “drilling” she encountered within the culture of a particular placement. Re-reading her interview she quickly reflected on a change of outlook in an email:

So now teaching at girls' grammar with pressure on me to get results and where I have to submit a written justification for someone getting B if their target was A, I totally understand the need for drilling them about how to answer certain questions now! However, I would like to think that I vary things so they enjoying learning too. ...

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Indeed as she reflected further, she emphasised ways in which she maintained her enthusiasm to get pupils recognising how important history is to them:

I just love reeling the pupils in, asking a question which relates to the modern world ... My god there are just so many things, for example, BNP on Question Time linked to perceived respectability aspect of the Nazis. I still stand by the relevance thing. Everything I teach I try to link to today and usually I can because the British have made a cock up somewhere in the world!

In both cases, whilst these teachers remained committed to the thrill and relevance of helping pupils learn history, their knowing had shifted in direct response to the context in which they now worked. This is not to say that either previously disregarded the importance of examinations or indeed saw this as totally discrete from engaging pupils, but that a national preoccupation with outcomes had impacted upon their schools and they themselves had moved from novices to assume more responsibility within these particular communities.

Ravi’s Story

Ravi was an NQT when originally interviewed and now found herself in a management position at a new school after five years in her previous post. Although she too had enjoyed career progression, her appointment as Head of Humanities had been reluctantly undertaken. Passionate about history from the moment she started teaching, Ravi spoke of her anxiety as new responsibilities drew her away from engaging the learners she sought to prioritise. Her concern for pupils dominated the discourse in both interviews and illustrated a striking consistency between the 4 years. Reflecting upon teaching challenging classes in her former school, she identified her success in making history an attractive and accessible curriculum choice:

I don’t want to sound arrogant but I think I nailed how to appeal to them and its about getting them emotionally involved in whatever history I was teaching - to get them to care about the past.

In her latest school she spoke of how students needed to be stretched more and drew upon her enthusiasm and a stronger focus on historical knowing to get them involved.

However beyond this continuity, her adjustment to a new school and department also illustrated the fragility of professional knowing. In her own words she had become an “NQT again” and recognised how the depth of her “institutional knowledge” (Eraut, 1996) was swept away:

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It was so easy. I knew the kids, the way of things and when I left I was at the pinnacle because I had done so well there. It would have been so easy to stay. I really loved the kids and I really loved the staff room, I'll never get that again. ... It's amazing how set in my ways I got, how I had fine-tuned my teaching to those kids. ... It's very different here.

In this new context some aspects of her professional knowing were being redeveloped as she started to learn new expectations, routines as well as the names and needs of very different pupils.

Celine's Story

Interviewing Celine in her home in the company of her 9 month old son illustrates how her implied future turned out to be very different from the expectations she initially outlined two years into her first teaching post. Beyond changes to her personal life, her professional goals had changed too. As a then successful candidate on the government's Fast Track leadership programme, she anticipated eventual appointment as an assistant headteacher. There is little doubt that Celine could easily have achieved this, indeed she was promoted to head of year 9 within a year. However, working closely with school leaders she explained how she had become disillusioned with the lack of empathy for pupils and colleagues and the overt focus on league tables and performance indicators.

Celine too had moved schools and pursued a renewed focus on teaching history. Several years on, she recognised how her own professional knowing had both adjusted and grown. She explained that central in this development was her experience of mentoring PGCE students:

It was very good at making me sharpen up on my teaching and to really focus on the nuts and bolts of it again. ... it was a very enjoyable thing to actually sit down with somebody and talk about how to plan lessons, it makes you more reflective about it, those sorts of skills and when you've got a good mentee you really get some new ways of teaching the past from them ...

Indicative of Lave and Wenger's (1991) continuity-displacement contradiction, Celine recognised how mentoring supported both her own learning and that of new history teachers. Whilst Celine welcomed the stability of teaching history in her new school, she also recognised how the context of educational change challenged this status quo. Engaged in defending her subject in the curriculum, she discussed how a reduced two year Key Stage 3, limited 11-14 year old pupils' entitlement to a history education. Moreover, she considered it essential that history constantly reflects both the interests

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of pupils as well as the skills they needed to succeed as both young historians and more broadly as learners, especially as the introduction of a generic "Learning 2 Learn" programme threatened history's position in the school timetable.

5.5 – How history teachers get to know history teaching

Despite one teacher attaching teleological significance to her surprise 18th birthday cake being shaped as a tank or another's assertion that they knew they would become a teacher since infancy, it's unlikely that the origins of history teachers are written in runes or programmed into DNA from birth. Instead, reflections by different teachers suggest that professional knowing is shaped by the complex interaction of many different influences which are as distinctive as the history teachers themselves.

Despite this uniqueness, narratives identified several broad categories which resonated with the ways in which teachers described their journeys of professional knowing. Perhaps the most nebulous, stories describing events before entry into professional education, were considered very significant by all those who contributed. For although, those completing their PGCE referred most to their own school experiences, more established teachers still recognised how influential their own history teachers were. As illustrated however, these were not seen as uncritiqued models of perfection, instead they were often understood as manifestations of history teaching from different times and in different contexts. Conceptions of what was to be gained from formal learning differed among teachers, but it was clear from many that educational theory continued to offer a source of professional knowing, long after any formal teaching programme. Once established in a teaching post, informal learning and support was offered by a number of discrete and over-lapping communities of practice. If allowed, the teachers I interviewed could have offered more and more episodes of how they were continuing to see (history) teaching differently through engagement with new situations and individuals as well as their reflections upon the old. As much as the model of professional knowing offered in the previous chapter, history teachers' origins could, and should be seen as equally fluid and dynamic.

This was most apparent when considering the impact of changing contexts. Shared narratives and particularly the opportunity to revisit earlier ones reinforced the

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complexity of professional knowing as teachers responded to changes in their individual, local and national contexts. Ellis has suggested that the development of professional knowing by new [English] teachers in similar circumstances should be conceptualised as:

personal trajectories of participation ... [where] ... the development of the beginning teachers' thinking is not straightforwardly linear and is in relation to their participation in settings such that past and present participation are continually working on, and being worked on in practice

(2007: 157-8)

This concept holds validity in considering the experiences of these history teachers, for whilst they recognised the continued importance of earlier incidents, they acknowledged how the impact of emergent influences in new contexts both shaped their knowing and made them reconsider earlier events. The importance of considering professional knowing in three dimensions (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000) is reinforced, especially as the intersection between the teachers' interactions, temporality and spaces (different schools and associated contexts) is highlighted.

Chapter 6 - Conclusions on knowing, becoming and researching history teachers

6.1 - Research Questions Revisited

The original research questions which guided my study were:

1. What do beginning history teachers know? How does this relate to existing models of professional knowledge?
2. Where does their professional knowledge come from? What are its origins? What factors influence its development?

These emerged out of my own professional activity as a teacher educator supporting the learning of beginning history teachers. I had become increasingly dissatisfied with official models (TDA, 2002 and 2007) which seemed to confuse the sophistication of professional knowing with inventories of competencies. Generic statements about orderly classroom environments and legal responsibilities seemed far removed from the complex thinking I regularly encountered as teachers guided pupils through challenging enquiries or helped them critique historical interpretations.

Although scholarship offered inspirational alternatives, these too had limitations. John's (1991) theoretical model seemed to identify the essence of history teachers' professional knowing, and its use resonated with PGCE students and mentors. However since it was based on the perceptions of a single teacher educator, I remained wary of its foundations. Equally, whilst others (Husbands et al, 2003, Wineburg, 2001) offered convincing alternatives, the classrooms of established practitioners rather than those of beginners were more often investigated. Indeed even established broader research into the foundations of professional knowledge (Shulman, 1987 Cooper and McIntyre, 1996) tended to emerge from investigations into the effective practice of experts. This is not to say that research for early career professionals does not exist. There are plenty of books (Phillips, 2002, Phillips, 2008) which target those learning to teach history, but borrowing Fenstermachers' (1994) observations, this tends to be knowledge for teachers, rather than of teachers.

My research therefore aimed to be distinctive in a number of ways. Firstly and of most professional relevance, it focused on the practice of history teachers I worked with. I wanted to problematise and understand what happened to the teachers I supported to

help me appreciate what I could do to strengthen my own practice as a teacher educator and help future cohorts of new teachers. Unlike others, I was not seeking to develop a model applicable to all. As such, and in contrast to established research, this was about early career professionals, so stood in contrast to the 'expert teacher' paradigm (Turner-Bisset, 1999a).

Unlike some models of professional knowing, my aim was to establish an empirical understanding. My approach involved adopting John's (1991) model. I had used this to stimulate discussion with many teachers before, and I was confident that it accurately described how they thought. I inherited John's (1991) pre-specified hypothesis and applied his existing concepts to real classrooms and teachers. However whilst it could have been easy to find data which supported John's assumptions, I became increasingly aware that the teachers I worked with were doing more than confirm an established model of professional knowing. As I analysed interviews I was aware that their thinking was much more complex, and as they were operating in very different educational contexts and cultures to those envisaged by John, the breadth of their knowledge exceeded the parameters of his domains.

Of course other models of professional knowing had identified a broader range of domains. For example, Turner-Bisset (1999a) identified twelve distinct categories. However, my own engagement with this research suggested that increasingly subdividing ways of knowing unnecessarily confused and failed to recognise how interconnected teachers' thinking is. As I listened to teachers explain how and why they made their choices it was clear that whilst they drew upon distinct ways of knowing, choices could not be completed in isolation. For example, thinking about curriculum resources, not only involved the needs of learners but also how far the resource addressed the key historical concepts of the lesson. As I continued to think carefully about how my findings related to existing models of professional knowing, I became increasingly aware of how rigidly others presented teachers' thinking. Of course reducing this complexity to two dimensions on a page is restricting, but previous objectification had not captured the fluidity and perpetual movement which characterised the responses of the teachers with whom I worked.

Rather than confirm the theories of others, my research approach therefore shifted and helped me develop my own empirically grounded model of professional knowing. Specific to early career history teachers, it moves beyond established history education and generic research into professional knowing. It offers a way of comprehensively conceptualising their thinking without reducing each thought and action to one of many distinct domains. It recognises the centrality of reflection, the interconnected nature of professional thought and the dynamism of professional knowing.

If my first research question initially encouraged me to engage with known expertise, my second, focusing on the origins of professional knowing, took me into the unknown. In contrast, my approach was essentially inductive, exploring perceptions rather than testing preconceptions. As a teacher educator I remained familiar with the literature which focuses on the professional development of teachers and, having encouraged my PGCE students to write educational autobiographies for many years, I recognised the power of narratives in revealing life histories. Again my research here was driven by my own professional preoccupations: What factors helped shape new teachers? How did my role as a teacher educator compare with other influences?

Interviews confirmed my philosophy that knowing something involves more than observation or classification. Teaching as a “humane and relational activity” (Ellis, 2007) requires us to talk to teachers about their perceptions of their practice and the influences which shape them. As such, it became clear that whilst teaching was seen as a new adventure and challenge; their past lives pervaded decisions and actions. Who they were before teacher education still had a considerable bearing on who they were in the classroom. Though they could learn to think differently about history, pupils or resources, they could not entirely escape their past selves and the events and individuals who influenced them. However my later interviews suggested that as teachers gained more experience, their past could be revisited, re-interpreted or remade as they engaged in new cultures or contexts.

Whilst personal histories have a lasting presence, the impact of formal learning factors seems to fluctuate. Research suggests that sometimes, propositional knowledge (Eraut, 1996) can struggle to exert influence on new teachers’ thinking. However

discussions suggested that whilst ideas about pupil misconceptions in handling historical sources or suggestions on how to model cause and consequence might receive limited acknowledgment during initial teacher education, they assumed value after the strain of the first year of teaching subsides. Eraut (1996) identifies how the intensity of early professional experience threatens learning as competing pressures force new teachers to search out survival strategies. Once this demanding initiation period subsides, new teachers find the space and time to revisit and build upon the more theoretical elements of their professional training; with significantly more experience they are able to appreciate its potential to strengthen their practice as well as critique its limitations.

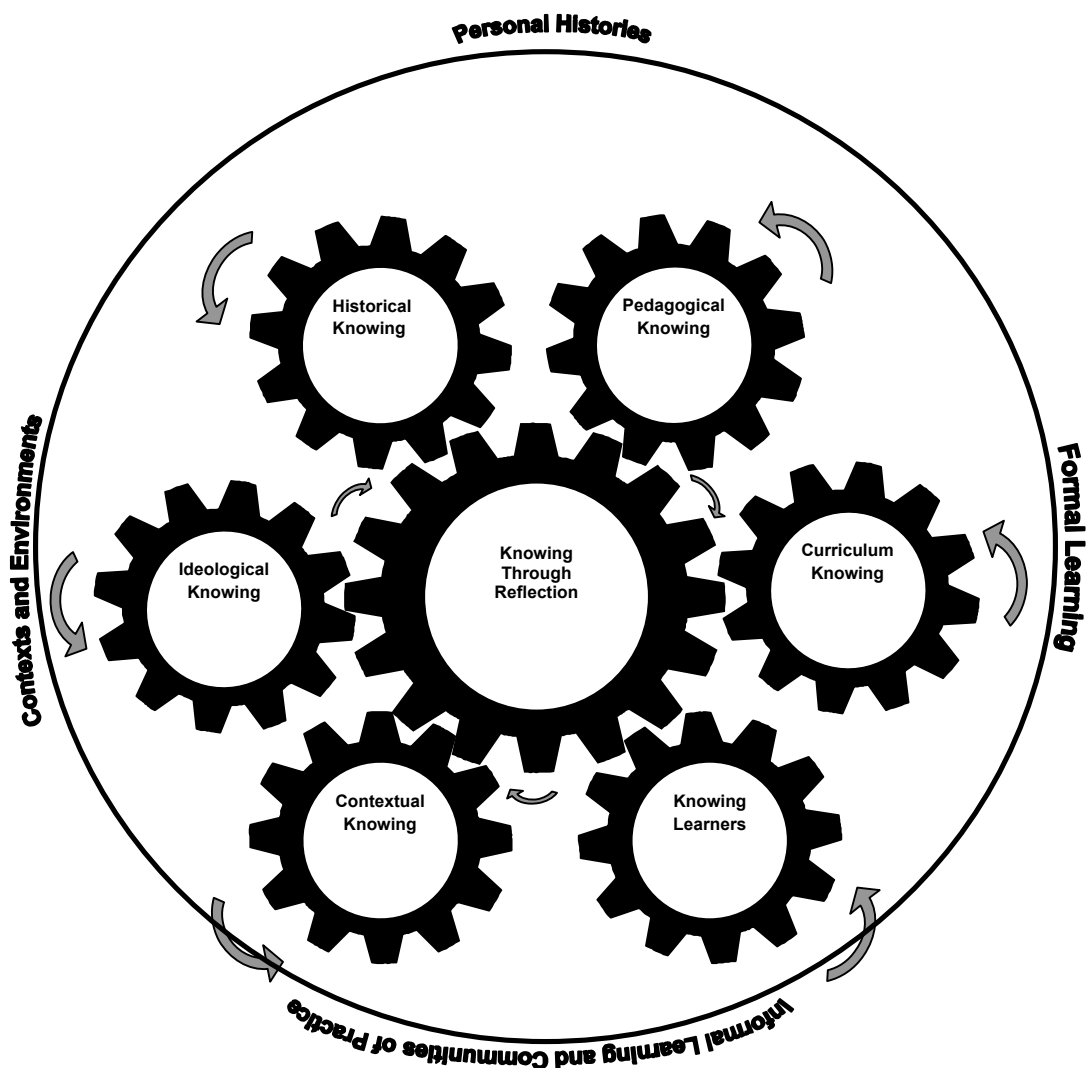
It was clear that the teachers I talked to saw learning as an ongoing process extending beyond formal inputs. Indeed but for a couple of teachers, professional development in any prescribed sense had been severely limited since their PGCE programmes. Instead these teachers recognised how working and learning alongside fellow professionals influenced and inspired their practice. Although they did not use such concepts, it was clear that memberships of different communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) provided most informal learning contexts. Most often, the history department became the nexus for informal learning and distributed knowing. In these environments, new teachers felt secure in drawing upon the expertise of others, and were ready to share ideas or resources with more established colleagues. Interestingly, just like their professional knowing itself, their membership of communities of practice could also be characterised as fluid. Memberships could be multiple and could shift with a new role or school.

When my research began, and as it initially developed, I became concerned with the ways in which my research questions seemed to pull me in different directions. On the one hand I appeared to be taking a deductive approach, testing and confirming the validity of a preordinate model; on the other I was seeking, exploring and responding to unknowns. The “what” and the “where” at first appeared so different. Yet interviewing, reading narratives and exploring findings challenged these preconceptions. In fact my approaches were not as polarised as I first perceived them. As I investigated my colleagues’ professional origins and influences I was never ‘a blank canvas’ (Charmaz, 2005) but went into the interviews anticipating responses and beginning to consider

how these related to existing concepts. Equally asking teachers about their decisions soon moved me much further from someone else's conceptions. I was beginning to understand professional knowing from them, not others, and as such confirmed Clandinin and Connelly's (2000) premise that action requires background.

As importantly my findings are clearly inextricably linked. Professional knowing does not happen in a vacuum but is nested within, and shaped by a range of influences and contexts. As beginning teachers spoke about their approaches to teaching history they drew upon critical incidents from their past and recognised how the contexts in which they taught might offer further opportunities or indeed restrict how they taught. The model of professional knowing offered in Chapter 4 therefore requires moderation.

Figure 8: Situating the Dynamics of Professional Knowing in History Teaching



In this revised model the professional knowing of an individual is presented as before, recognising the associations between different types of knowing, the centrality of reflection and its overall dynamic. However professional knowing is now located within a fluid environment which recognises the variable influence and impact of personal histories, formal and informal learning as well as shifting communities of practice and contexts.

6.2 Implications

This study began as a way for me, as a teacher educator engaged in preparing new history teachers, to better understand the nature and development of their professional knowing. I make no claims to any broader understanding, beyond the twelve colleagues who shared their thoughts and practice with me. However since I began this research I have worked with over seventy PGCE and GTP students specialising in history teaching, and I continue to recognise similarities between their thoughts and perceptions and the colleagues who supported my research. Having now developed this working model I hope to use it with future cohorts of students and their mentors as a way of moving beyond the mechanistic application of professional standards. If future teachers can recognise their professional knowing as history teachers first, they will hopefully feel more confident in responding to more generic ways of measuring what new teachers should know. Moreover, it will be helpful in guiding new entrants into the profession to recognise that their journey of professional learning does not start or end with initial teacher education, but begins with their first engagements with the past and their teachers. It should never be seen to be at an end as long as they recognise their membership of different communities of practice and the impact of changing educational contexts.

My research modestly provides findings on a discrete group of early career history teachers working in a specific geographical area over a distinct time period and cannot be generalised to account for the experiences of all novice practitioners. The findings do have the potential to offer stimulus to other history educators or indeed teacher educators in general. A comparison between this group of history teachers, with those learning and working elsewhere would of course strengthen or refine the findings.

Equally it would be enlightening to work with teachers in other subject specialisms to identify commonalities as well as differences. So whilst I would recognise the bounded nature of this research, I also believe my work on professional knowing has only just begun.

Although my thesis does not offer generalisable findings for others, it would be wrong to perceive my research as a mere collection of localised stories from beginning teachers. Indeed I have sought to place the professional knowing of the teachers I interviewed within a broader context, moving beyond just personal stories or practice focused descriptions. This was particularly evident during my final interviews, especially since the teachers had more ownership over their choice and direction. Indeed for as much as they illuminated the nature of their professional knowing, unwitting and unanticipated “genealogies of context” (Goodson and Sikes, 2001) emerged which exposed educational cultures driven by measuring outcomes and school contexts where young people’s entitlements to a history education are under threat from a generic skills focused curriculum reform. Therefore the teachers in this thesis offer alternative voices which otherwise might struggle to be heard or even considered in an atmosphere of “performativity” (Ball, 1999) where prescriptive policy initiatives, endemic target setting and performance management dominate (Hargreaves, 1999).

In such an environment it is no coincidence that more overt narrative research exploring the responses and reactions of regular teachers is often devalued by some policy makers. This has been made explicit by recent UK governments outlining their research agendas:

We’re not interested in worthless correlations based on small samples from which it is impossible to draw generalisable conclusions. We welcome studies which combine large scale, quantitative information on effect sizes which will allow us to generalize ...

David Blunkett, (Secretary of State for Education, 2000: 22)

Unsurprisingly studies which have tended to quantify teachers’ effectiveness have been popular with governments and as such the potentially germane qualities of a life history approach have been largely ignored. Regardless of sample size, in such an

environment, this thesis offers others a different perspective on what it means to be a history teacher in the 21st Century.

Beyond this study's potential contribution to knowledge it is worth reflecting upon its possible impact on participants themselves. Scholarship inspired by life history method sometimes highlights the positive influence it can have upon those who contribute. Indeed advocates of life history research have argued that by enabling individuals or groups to speak with their voice and raise their concerns – in “naming silent lives” (Tierney, 2000: 545) social empowerment and emancipation are promoted for those involved (Armstrong, 1987: 16). I make no such claims, for as important as I think it is for teachers to be heard, I have already argued that few will be listening and certainly not those with significant power. However the sharing of histories and perspectives could be seen as more genuinely empowering in process rather than outcome. If life histories successfully relate the personal to the wider historical and political contexts and make comparative links between different lives, teachers can be made aware of how their own frustrations have their origins in wider social forces and recognise that they are not alone. As such the experience of contributing may legitimately be regarded as empowering (Goodson and Sikes, 2001).

Reflecting upon contributions suggests that some teachers did welcome this opportunity to take a step back from the busyness of their classrooms, and consider how much they knew and the journeys they had taken. One teacher in particular captured the mood of others when she said: “I like being challenged to think about my choices, both about how I teach but also why I’m here ... you don’t often get the chance – apart from complaining!” Moreover, without breaking confidences, I was able to reassure some colleagues, that the pressures engendered by curriculum reform and over-assessment, were keenly felt by many others. I would also suggest that the enthusiasm, eagerness and openness of the teachers involved, especially those who agreed to be reinterviewed, indicates that they valued chances to talk, share and reflect.

Equally however the opportunity for some to talk about difficult experiences had unanticipated consequences and illustrates some of the challenges in maintaining distance in a life history inspired approach. In some cases asking colleagues to reflect

for upon their knowing, career history and satisfaction with teaching, “open[ed] the valve” (Faraday and Plummer, 1979: 789), as a few began to question their position or future in their schools or departments. I had noted with caution the warnings of others (Sikes, 1985 and Day, 2002) for the need to be open with participants from the start about the focus of my research and my status as a researcher rather than counsellor, yet there were times when the differences were unclear. In such instances a commitment to friendship, the ghosts of past professional relationships as well as an awareness of my ethical responsibilities encouraged me to intervene. As such I twice took the decision to stop the recording so I could park my position as researcher and continue as a supportive colleague. “Off the record” much was revealed that was fascinating and pertinent, yet it has no place in this study as even with anonymity I’m protecting confidences. Whilst these actions allowed me to offer help and in some ways conveniently side-step the methodological problems I’d unleashed, the experiences reinforced concerns that by listening, encouraging people to reflect and echoing back their thoughts, such interviews can blur into counseling. I have no doubt (and have since had reassurances) that our interviews coincided, rather than prompted professional reassessment, but in considering the implications of this research, I’m mindful to recall those that were messy as much as those which were ‘empowering’.

6.3 - Reflexivity and Wakefulness

My reflections upon how I wrestled to disengage myself from a counselling role during data collection, foreshadows Clandinin and Connelly’s contention that “it is not only the participants’ stories that are retold by the narrative inquirer, it is also the inquirers’ stories that are open for inquiry and retelling” (2000: 60). This final section of my conclusion brings into focus my story, revealing how I have struggled to reconcile my twin professional positions as a teacher educator and my development as a novice researcher. Drake has written about the risks of revealing the “clumsiness of research” (2010: 6) for those facing examination on doctoral programmes, and I am aware that by engaging in this reflexivity I may incriminate myself. However the legitimacy of my thesis and my claims to knowing have consistently acknowledged “wakefulness” (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000: 184), emphasising the plausibility and authenticity of both the findings I have shared and their limitations; I am therefore not going to stop now. As such I conclude by considering how my wavering status as an insider during the research process reveals my own professional knowing, the privileging of my

authorial voice in the writing process and the impact of completing this thesis after a period of intermission.

This study began because as a teacher educator in history I felt I had a grounded understanding of what it means to be a history teacher and sought to extend this personal knowing through research. Working alongside beginning and established history teachers every day encouraged me to position myself as an “insider”. Everybody I worked with knew I had established myself as a history teacher and recognised me a PGCE tutor who shared his own expertise and devised a course to access that of others. As a researcher I anticipated that the intimacy of these professional relationships would be maintained. On reflection it is difficult to say whether my colleagues ever saw me in this way. There is some evidence that a few colleagues changed their lesson slightly to “show off their best” or felt nervous about being observed again. I certainly don’t have enough evidence to suggest whether these assumptions were accepted or rejected. However, I can definitely say that I failed to maintain distance as a researcher, as an insider or otherwise.

Although only three of the teachers I worked with were actively my PGCE students during the initial interview stage, with all of the teachers interviewed, my professional role as a teacher educator regularly impinged upon the research. Interview transcripts are littered with encouragements to former students as I congratulate them on an excellent lesson resource or the creativity of their teaching methods. With some it goes beyond praise or commiserations regarding tricky classes to actual pedagogical scenarios where I offer advice on how to teach a concept or which resource might provide a new stimulus:

I So now you are teaching about Women’s suffrage?

R Actually it goes back further; it looks at the separation of spheres of women.

I Did I ever show you that play I’ve got? What is it called? ... I must give you a copy. It’s a play by Gertrude Jennings. It’s very funny, only about 7 pages long – and can be read in a lesson. They used to go round churches performing it. It’s got a suffragette, an anti-suffragette, a bumbling husband and a politician. If you do it with the kids, Year 9 upwards, they really like it.

R Yes that would be good

I I remember it’s called ‘A Woman’s Influence’!

(Celine)

Equally other interview transcripts reveal dialogue where I share my experiences of how I struggled to make the transition to a new post and institution after years in teaching or my perceptions of what is wrong with senior managers' attitudes towards history and timetabling.

Such exchanges were not contrived. Although I had been impressed with Oakley's encouragement that there should be 'no intimacy without reciprocity (1981: 49), I was not actively seeking some methodological advantage through self disclosure. Instead my responses underpin how my own identity as a teacher educator cannot yet be divorced from my apprenticeship as a researcher. Moreover, analysing such discourse illuminates as much about my own professional knowing as it does about the teachers I sought to study. Almost mirroring the theoretical categories I've employed it is possible to identify examples of historical, pedagogical, resource, contextual and ideological knowing as well as an obvious nuanced familiarity with the teachers I work with.

Whether failure to step outside my professional role undermined my findings is unknowable. I only have the interview transcripts that were products of these dialogues; there are no alternatives. What I can be sure about is that the records generated are rich with details about how history teachers teach the past and how they explain their knowing. My own sporadic inputs are fragmentary interruptions at best and their existence now serves as a way for me to be reflexive about my failure to be a detached researcher.

In writing my thesis I have also developed an awareness of how positioning myself as the author impacts on how I present the stories of the teachers I have worked with. Drake (2010) writes about how drawing upon the speeches of others is a methodological challenge in which the researcher can struggle to impose their own voice. On the other hand some life historians working in educational settings (Tierny, 2000) have previously warned against the dangers of academic colonisation whereby the researcher imposes their own agendas on the researched through edited presentations of narratives and selective quotations. Anticipating such concerns, Freeman (1993) advocates allowing texts produced through interviews or narratives to be laid open to different interpretations by their audience. Engaged in this debate I too have struggled with the ethics of presenting my participants' words. The richness of their reflections has been fundamental in shaping my thinking and has allowed me to

discover my own understandings of professional knowing. In many ways it seems disingenuous to limit and truncate life stories told, especially when so many responses capture the beauty and power of teaching history. However both practical and methodological concerns have guided me in (often reluctantly) summarising, editing and abridging their words.

This study is presented as a thesis for a professional doctorate and is therefore bounded by official requirements regarding citations and word length restrictions. In essence I have limited freedom in letting participants speak from themselves. More fundamentally however, this is also my story of how I have come to understand history teachers. I have selected the literature for review, I have invited colleagues to participate and I have asked the questions which guide the research; in doing so I have guided the interpretative process all along. Now in the course of writing, assuming the mantle of author “means taking responsibility for expressing ... understandings and theories that emerge as a result of a complex process involving other people” (Drake, 2010: 96). Whilst I have shared the transcripts of interviews with all those involved, it is my interpretation of their collective responses which is presented here and as such I must accept that it will be my voice which directs the study. In many ways this resonates with Goodson’s vision of collaboration whereby:

The externally located academic researcher has the time and resources to collaborate with teachers in developing genealogies of context ... [developing] insights about structure that help locate the teacher’s life within the ... social structure ... [this] collaboration takes place between parties that ... see the world through a different prism of thought and practice.

(1994: 97)

As such, from the moment I asked the first interview question to the conclusion of this script, I have transcended the mere elicitation of stories and have actively engaged with colleagues in a contextual reconstruction of professional knowing.

Reflecting on temporality in their research, Clandinin and Connelly, emphasise that:

... locating things in time is the way to think about them. When we see an event, we think of it not as a thing happening at that moment but as an expression of something happening over time. Any event, or thing, has a past, present as it appears to us, and an implied future.

(2000: 29)

When my research began in 2005 the teachers I interviewed had an implied future and so did I. Though none of us could be certain what that future would be, I imagined that my colleagues would progress within and despite a volatile education system. I also felt confident that within a year or two my doctoral research would be complete and I would be establishing myself within the University as an early career researcher.

Since I'm writing this conclusion in 2010, it's clear that at least some of my initial predictions were erroneous; my then implied future, and now recent past, were more complex than anticipated. Indeed it was my own career progression as a teacher educator which came to disrupt my doctoral studies. Drake (2010) has written about the challenges of re-engaging with doctoral fieldwork after a substantial period of interruption and the unanticipated benefits of altered perspectives and fresh thinking which can be applied to existing data. Despite my initial concerns about my research dating, the distance between listening to teachers' stories and analysing them, has actually enhanced the research. Certainly my subsequent professional experience has strengthened my ability to consider professional knowing in a broader context, and I have been afforded the opportunity to draw upon more recent scholarship as well as gain a longitudinal perspective through contemporary interviews. The experience has therefore challenged my preconceptions of research as a linear process where questions are formulated, literature is surveyed, data collected and conclusions formulated in a neat chronological order. This study has been far more organic, for whilst my questions have been a constant throughout, my methodology has evolved in response to changing circumstances and my theoretical positioning has shifted as I have continued to engage with new literature.

Geertz (1995) and Carr (1963) have both used the metaphor of a parade to explore shifting positions and perspectives over time in sociological and historical contexts. Their allegory helps illustrate the way in which my own temporal location as a researcher changed and provided new ways of seeing professional knowing. For during this five year period, not only had the teachers I worked with moved forward in the 'parade' of their professional lives, but my position as an onlooker has shifted too, allowing us all to look back on how and where the parade started, how it looks five years later and where it might lead in the future. The same metaphor might also be used to describe the development of my own journey in history education. My thesis

began with reflections upon my own history teachers, Mr B and Richard Hansen, who helped launch my interest in the past and initially formed a reference point in my own thinking about how to teach history. The professional parade I joined then has subsequently taken many twists and the completion of this thesis constitutes one of those rare moments on a journey where most of the landscape is suddenly revealed. From this vista I am able to look back at my own and others' experiences of learning to teach about the past as well as look forward to how my new understanding of professional knowing will help me work with new history teachers in the future.

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Appendix A – Chronology of EdD Research

EdD Research		Personal/Professional Life
Registered on EdD in October	 2001	Employed as Head of History at Varndean College October – applied and offered post as Lecturer in Education at the University of Sussex.
EdD - Phase 1 – Focused on teacher recruitment and retention	2002	January – Appointment begins responsible for PGCE History June - completed supervision of A level classes. December - Twins Olive and Isobel born
EdD – Phase 2 – Critical Analytic Study: Teachers Lives and Life History Method	2003	January – promoted as Undergraduate convenor October – OFSTED Inspection of History PGCE
EdD – Phase 3 – The Research Component January –Proposal Submitted June – Pilot interview July – Initial invite to contribute September – Final invite to contribute October – Pre-Interview event November – Profiles collected	2004	
January – March – Interviews April – Educational narratives collected May – June Additional interviews with PGCE students August – Methodology drafted	2005	September – Promoted as PGCE 11 – 18 Convenor
June – Literature review drafted	2006	January – Promoted as Director of Initial Teacher Education
INTERMISSION	2007	
INTERMISSION	2008	June – OFSTED Inspection of PGCE October – Promoted as Joint Head of Department
May – 3 Participants re-interviewed October – Re-registered on EdD	2009	December – Completed Self Evaluation Document for TDA
August – Submission of EdD Thesis	 2010	May – OFSTED Inspection of PGCE and GTP

Appendix B – Summary of Case Study Data

The following list offers a record of all the data collected:

- 9 Teacher Profiles – providing biographical and contextual information data on each participant as well as an initial focus on three key critical incidents
- 12 Lesson Observation Records – these contained brief notes on each lesson observed and were used to prompt discussions after the lessons.
- 1 Pilot Interview – a recorded transcript of pilot interview
- 12 Interviews (approximately 1.5 hours each) – recorded, transcribed and returned to participants for verification
- 9 Educational Narratives – existing educational autobiographies written before initial teacher education
- 3 Further Interviews (approximately 1.5 hours each) – follow up interviews completed in 2009 with selected participants
- Field Notes – reflections on pre-interview meeting, recorded discussions and email communications with participants.

Appendix C – Participants' Biographical and Contextual Data*

Participant Pseudonym	Age	Ethnicity	Academic & Professional Experience	School Details
Sue	31	British	BA in Modern History Awarded a PGCE (Secondary) in History in 2004	Mixed 11-18 State Secondary School (1610 on roll) is larger than average and currently has more boys than girls. Students are from mainly White British backgrounds and most speak English as a first language. The proportion of students with special needs and/or disabilities is broadly average. Most of these have social, emotional and behavioural needs, specific learning difficulties such as dyslexia, or moderate learning difficulties. It is a recognised training college with specialist sport and science status.
Joanne	23	British	BA in Modern History MA in History Awarded a PGCE (Secondary) in History in 2004	Mixed 11 – 18 State Secondary School (1621 on roll) draws its students from a wide catchment area that includes a market town and its surrounding villages. The great majority of students are of White British heritage and speak English as their first language. The proportion of students with learning difficulties and/or disabilities is about average. The college gained its specialism in technology in 2002 and was awarded a second specialism in applied learning.
Miles	46	British	BA in History 3 Years registered on PhD. Awarded a PGCE (Secondary) in History in 2004	Mixed 11-16 State Secondary School (607 on roll) is smaller than the average comprehensive school. Most pupils come from White British backgrounds. There are very few pupils from minority ethnic backgrounds or who speak English as an additional language. There are more boys than girls in most year groups. The proportion of pupils who are entitled to free school meals is below average. The number of pupils with special educational needs and/or disabilities is broadly average, whilst the number of pupils with a statement of educational needs is slightly above that seen nationally.

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Belinda	24	British	BA in History NQT since PGCE (Secondary) in History	Mixed 11-18 Grammar School (1998 on roll) is a non-selective Church of England school. It is much larger than most secondary schools and has two sites within the town. Most students are White British. Very few students speak English as an additional language and fewer than average have special educational needs and/or disabilities. A specialist facility for students with specific learning difficulties is integrated into the curriculum; the percentage of students with a statement of special educational needs is in line with the national average. The school is a specialist technology college and has an applied learning specialism.
Ravi	23	British Asian	BA in History NQT since PGCE (Secondary) in History	Mixed 11-18 State Secondary School (975 on roll) is an average sized secondary school. There are more girls than boys in the college and the proportion of students eligible for free school meals is above average. Most students are White British and the proportion from minority ethnic groups is lower than in most similar schools. Very few students are at an early stage of learning English as an additional language. The proportion of students who have learning difficulties and/or disabilities is similar to most schools. Learning difficulties and/or disabilities relate mainly to behaviour and emotional difficulties or specific learning difficulties.
Mike	27	British	BA Politics with North American Studies NQT since PGCE (Secondary) in History	11-18 Mixed Secondary State School (1197 on roll) is the only secondary school in the town and serves a relatively self-contained community. Most students are of White British heritage and very few have English as an additional language. Prior attainment on entry to the college is broadly in line with national averages, as is the proportion of students with learning difficulties and/or disabilities, most of which relate to behavioural, emotional and social issues. In 2000, the college achieved specialist status as a sports college.
Anthony	26	British	BA in History	11 – 18 Mixed State Secondary

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			and Sociology Teaching for 2 years since PGCE (secondary) in History	School (1410 on roll) serving an extensive, semi-rural area. Most students are of White British heritage. The proportion of students eligible for free school meals is well below the national average. Since September 2005, the college has been developing specialist provision for students on the autistic spectrum and those with severe speech and language difficulties. The proportion of students with learning difficulties and/or disabilities in the college is about average. The college has specialist status for both visual and performing arts since 2003.
Rebecca	27	British Jewish	BA in Jewish History & MA in Modern Israeli Studies Teaching for 2 years since PGCE (secondary) in History	11-16 Mixed Secondary State School (1191 on roll) The school is much larger than average and is generally oversubscribed, attracting students from all over the coastal area. It has been awarded international schools status for the second time as well as the Artsmark Gold Award from the Arts Council of England. Since 2002, it has had specialist status for the performing arts (drama, music and dance). The vast majority of students are White British and speak English fluently. The proportion of students who have learning difficulties is smaller than the national average.
Celine	25	British	BA in Modern History and Economic History and Politics Teaching for 1 year since PGCE (secondary) in History	Mixed 11-18 State Secondary School (975 on roll) is an average sized secondary school. There are more girls than boys in the college and the proportion of students eligible for free school meals is above average. Most students are White British and minority ethnic groups is lower than in most similar schools. Very few students are at an early stage of learning English as an additional language. The proportion of students who have learning difficulties /disabilities is similar to most schools. Learning difficulties and/or disabilities relate mainly to behaviour and emotional or specific learning difficulties.
Hannah	28	British	BA in History	11-16 Mixed State Secondary

			2 nd In Charge of History & PGCE Mentor - teaching for 5 years since PGCE (Secondary) in History	School (1656 on roll) is much larger than most secondary schools. Students come from a wide range of backgrounds across the City, but most are White British and very few speak English as an additional language. The proportion of students eligible for free school meals is well below average. The proportion of students with special educational needs and/or disabilities is below the national average. The school is a specialist sports and training school. Amongst many other awards, the school has gained Artsmark gold and the British Council's school award.
Ella	30	British	BA in History & Social Sciences MA in Russian History Head of History & Mentor - teaching for 5 years since GTP (Secondary)	Mixed 16 – 99 Further Education College (1700 on roll) is a sixth form college in the City. The college is based at a single campus just outside the city centre which it shares with an infant school, a junior school and two 11 to 16 schools. It shares facilities and accommodation with a Link College where students all have severe learning difficulties and some, in addition, have physical disabilities. The college's main catchment area covers the unitary authority but also takes students from surrounding areas in the county.
Christine	31	British	BA in History & Art History Head of History & PGCE Mentor - teaching for 6 years since PGCE (Secondary) in History	Mixed 12 – 16 State Secondary School (1370 on roll) is a larger-than-average secondary school with specialist status for business and enterprise. Students, who come from all areas of the town, are from diverse socio-economic backgrounds, but the proportion in receipt of free school meals is very low. They are mainly of White British origin, with very few whose first language is not English. The percentage with learning difficulties and disabilities is near the national average, although the number of students with a statement of special educational needs is low.

* Details relate to participants in 2004. School contextual details are edited versions of school summaries provided by OFSTED – www.ofsted.gov.uk (accessed, May, 2010).

Appendix D – Invitation to Contribute (September 2004).

September 2004

Dear Colleague

The Development of Professional Knowledge Among History Teachers

As you may know I am undertaking a study into the professional craft knowledge of history teachers for my final doctoral dissertation. The purpose of this letter is to explain my research project to you briefly; and to request your help in generating an understanding of what history teachers know.

Aims & Rationale

My research project aims to explore the nature of the professional craft knowledge of history teachers and the means by which it develops at different stages of teacher professionalism. Specifically it is concerned with three key questions:

1. What are the characteristics of history teachers' professional knowledge?
2. What factors influence the development of professional craft knowledge in history teachers?

My research seeks to test and refine existing generic models of teacher knowledge by drawing upon the expertise of practicing teachers. In exploring the ways in which new, recently qualified and established teachers conceptualise their knowledge of history teaching I aim to establish my own model of professional knowledge which will resonate with other practitioners. For my own professional development I am particularly interested in locating the relative importance that factors before, during and after teacher education programmes have upon teachers' understanding of what their discipline means, why it should be taught and how history teaching might be characterised.

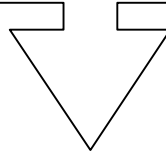
How you may be able to contribute

I am looking to develop my understanding of what history teachers know alongside a range of practitioners and hope that you would be willing and interested in contributing. In total the involvement of a group of nine history teachers is sought. These would be divided into smaller discussion groups: three who are newly qualified this year, three who are now established in the profession and three who are well experienced practitioners. I would very much appreciate your views as a newly qualified history teacher who could reflect upon the nature and development of your knowledge and your initial experiences as a professional. Our understanding would be generated primarily through focus group discussions and individual interviews, although contextual support would be sought through lesson observations and personal writing. The diagram overleaf illustrates my methodological approach and seeks to explicitly identify the extent of your involvement and the demands upon your time.

Presentation & Focus Group Discussion.

Venue: University of Sussex **Date:** 30th of September **Time:** 4.30 – 6.30pm

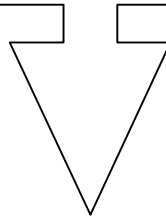
*All nine teachers would be invited to meet as a group. The project would be introduced and concepts of teacher knowledge explored, explained and discussed. Teachers would be asked to complete a brief “pen-portrait” reflecting upon their own development as a history teacher during this meeting.
Travel expenses would be paid*



Individual Interview (with lesson observation)

Venue: Teachers' Schools **Date:** October 2004 **Time:** Day Visit

Each teacher will be asked to identify a day for individual interview and observations. One lesson selected by the teacher would be observed (the focus of this would exclusively be about what knowledge is employed by the teacher and not the quality of teaching or pupil behaviour) and used as a basis for discussion in the interview. After school each teacher will be asked to talk about the lessons they taught, the nature of their professional knowledge and reflect upon issues raised in their “pen portraits”. The interviews would be taped and would last no longer than two hours. The support of your head teacher would be sought in advance of the observations and school based interviews.



Feedback

Venue: N/A **Date:** After December 2004 **Time:** N/A

Once the interviews were complete I would be using the data to develop a model of professional knowledge. I will keep you updated of my progress and send you transcripts of interview of tapes to check. I will inform you of any publications or presentations of the research.

Given the potentially sensitive nature of the discussions, confidentiality would be respected and personal details would only be reported with your permission. Should any publications emerge from this research your contribution would be acknowledged and a copy sent to you.

I'd be delighted to talk over any aspect of this research with you. I fully recognise the potential burden that your contributions might have upon your professional lives – should you now feel unable to contribute please do let me know by email or phone

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(contact details at the foot of this letter). Otherwise I look forward to seeing you on the 30th of September at 4.30 in the EDB coffee bar. Once again thank you for your expressed interest in my research.

Yours sincerely

Simon Thompson

Appendix E – Participant Profile Sheet

TEACHER PROFILE SHEET

Name:

Personal Details: (Age, gender, ethnicity – please select your own key criteria)

Telephone:

Email:

School Details:

Where is History Department? (e.g. Site, Huts, Room Numbers):

Telephone (extension/voice mail): School Email:

School Day Timings: Best Time to Contact: ?

Academic Experience (Universities & degrees):

Teaching Experience (ITE, Length of service, Key Stages, Responsibilities):

Critical Experience 1:

Critical Experience 2:

Critical Experience 3:

Appendix F – Lesson Observation Prompt Sheet

Lesson Focus:	Teacher:	School:	Time & Date:
Log of lesson	Areas of professional knowledge?		
	History Substantive:. Procedural:		
	History Teaching PCK –	Curriculum:	Org.
	Pupil Learning –		
	Educational –		
	Institutional –		
IDEOLOGY?			

Appendix G – Sample Interview Transcript

Notes: *This interview followed a Year 10 double lesson (two 45 minute teaching blocks) revising and testing sourcework questions on medieval and renaissance medicine. The Interview was tape recorded and notes were made during discussions. Some dialogue was difficult to decipher due to poor sound quality.*

	Interview Text
Interviewer (I)	Can you start by telling me about the content of the lesson you just taught? Why did you teach a lesson on Medieval and Renaissance medicine today?
Respondent (R)	I have to get the students ready for a year 11 exam. They start by looking at prehistoric medicine and follow a chronology. One of the questions they'll have to answer is about anaAnthonyy - next summer. I've started to ask what are they picking up and what areas may need further clarification.
I	Do you mean from the lessons you've been teaching recently?
R	Yes. I realised I have to make links to medieval history regularly. This is all in a very mixed ability context. I also need to consolidate their understanding of source based questions.
I	What do you know about the topic? How do you know about the history of medicine - Medieval, Renaissance, etc ?
R	I've never learnt it myself - at school or university. I've also never taught it before. My own understanding has come from the established schemes of work and departmental handbook. From that I just use the textbooks. I also get knowledge from talking to others in the department - they've helped give me an overview. I get by - but I do worry though about higher ability pupils - I worry about doing them a disservice ... I do spend a long time preparing for lessons ... I'm stopped by dearth of time and resources
I	It didn't come across in this lesson - that you were letting anyone down.
R	Thanks
I	How typical is this experience though?
R	What do you mean?
I	How far are the limits of your subject knowledge in this topic the same for others you teach?

R	Not typical - especially in modern history. The problem is I knew nothing until now and that is difficult for confidence. I do spend a long time preparing for lessons - some [kids] are very sharp. They can really challenge when they ask questions outside of the chronology. I'm stopped by dearth of time and resources. The main thing I feel is not to give the kids a disservice - a naive dream. [Laughter].
I	[Laughter] Beyond the content how else where you developing their historical understanding? What about skills - second order concepts?
R	You mean analysing sources.
I	Yes
R	This is linked to source-work they have done on Brighton railway. They have done plenty of this before for local history coursework.
I	What about you? - How do you know about approaching sources?
R	I've learnt from colleagues and drawn upon from my own experience at GCSE.
I	What about your PGCE?
R	Not from my PGCE. Well actually there are some things - the evidence burger and layers of inference.
I	You talked about the importance of provenance. Have you ever heard of 5 bums on a bed? I learnt it from a trainee in my first year as curriculum tutor - How - was it produced - H is the bed - the bums - what, when, why, where, who
R	[Laughter] That's great
I	Let's move on to your teaching. Why did you start with the review at the beginning of the lesson?
R	Other than the fact you were coming and I didn't want to just say - off you go here is the practice exam paper? [Laughter] My catch up marking has revealed they are making repeated mistakes. I've looked at their basic answers and they are basic do you know what I'm saying? I knew I had to revisit how to approach sources - plug some gaps! I decided on whole class teaching - build upon the criteria for marking. This is good practice - I've seen it done before by my mentor and now I do it.
I	What about the last activity? After the test - in the last 10 minutes you gave them a grid on the Renaissance to complete.

R	I wasn't sure about the time left. I was going to put on a video but you were coming! Its actually a year 8 activity - to fill in a grid which gives an overview comparing the changes in society from the medieval times to the renaissance. I guess also because so many lessons lack the long term context. The pace can be dramatic - one week Galen - the next Harvey.
I	Would you have done something differently if I wasn't there?
R	I suppose my gut reaction would have been to get some feedback on the test - gauge their experience. They had worked so hard - I let many of them go off [task] - I wanted to reward their good behaviour.
I	You made repeated references to their prior learning - why did you do this?
R	I'm a big fan of prior learning. I haven't forgotten Christine Counsell. Pupils experience so many singular lessons - for example a lesson renaissance in Year 8 - it is important to remind them - I think it gives them a sense of purpose. Telling them that they have done sourcework before. It boosts their confidence. They find sourcework difficult so returning to remind them of what they have learnt makes them feel better.
I	You made really good use of the whiteboard - are you able to explain how you learnt to do this?
R	I learnt it on teaching practice. I feel confident in turning my back to this class now and getting their ideas down. I'm still able to ask questions as I write. I also got ideas about layout from an NQT colleague - especially setting out key ideas - he helped me move headings around for best effect.
I	Why do you write up the lesson aims?
R	It is the Key Stage 3 strategy Simon! - it really helps me keep track - only takes a minute and then the kids know what we are doing. I started doing it with RE, then History. It has become so popular the whole school are meant to do it - it is a strategy about linking aims to success criteria. I suppose also I learnt how important it was with a year 7 class - when the aims were not there one lesson - it all went wrong. All pupils need to know what they are doing.
I	About the spider diagram?
R	I find them friendlier than lists and I think kids do to. You can link

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	points together whereas lists are so final. It is about being accessible - we are all in the learning process together.
I	Do you remember when you first used one?
R	No. But I think it was instinctive. Can't recall when or where - but I must have seen them again and again.
I	The environment played a big part in the lesson didn't it? How aware were you of this?
R	I feel comfortable in the class - they should too. I like the class layout I prefer the regimented dual desks to the cafeteria style. It can change the atmosphere - I also feel if it is my decision it gives me ownership. I have my rules - I could enforce a seating plan but I'm aware of the need to balance this approach - I'm friendly autocratic! But I'm also aware of the need to compromise.
I	That is really interesting. I actually meant the stuffiness of the room. I
R	Oh well I suppose in this room there is a trade off between noise and heat.
I	What do you think of the exam paper you gave them?
R	I had a dilemma - do I talk through the questions or not. I did emphasise key words and where to pick up on problems.
I	*[some question about suitability]
R	I guess it is appropriate to what is taught. Some of the wording is problematic. I really didn't want them to be disheartened by their failure to understand what is meant by reliability - that is why I went through it again even though I planned not to. I knew that word would cause them problems. It is a language issue - I got that at *****. it is not what I would do in a real exam.
I	*[some question on how lesson seemed driven by assessment]
R	I want to enthuse pupils. This is a contrast to the Brighton Station project. I struggled to engage them on that. They didn't get it.

I	That's a shame I think its [local history project on Brighton Station] is great.
R	Yes but they didn't like it. Medicine offers more opportunities. But because it is an exam I feel I have to stick to the scheme of work. Especially as I lack any knowledge greater than GCSE medicine. I have strayed off the Scheme of work. I did a group roleplay on the big three - they did a "this is your life" and a renaissance big brother. Every play covered the key points – so they really learnt something and had fun too. But I have to say mainly I stick to exam requirements.
I	You seem to really like this group. * [some question on how well do you know them?]
R	I'm fairly confident. I see them four times a week. I do struggle with RE lessons - I only see them for 45 minutes. I've seen the troublemakers around school. We use the networks in the staffroom. There is data available - I use this when I have to work with specific individuals. Otherwise I'm getting a feel for the whole class in mixed ability teaching.
I	Can I move on to your beliefs about teaching and teaching history specifically. I've talked to you about an ideology. I'm interested in yours. What are your views on history? How do they influence your teaching?
R	I'm not sure what I believe. I believe History is a way to tackle ignorance. History of the World wars is important - you can get so much anti-German prejudice - it is upsetting - but history can tackle this. It is important to be honest with pupils about where this negativity comes from. I often tackle individuals in this way. There has to be a purpose to why they are learning what they are. There is a lot of relevance in studying European dictators - it engages them and pushes them to think about rights and wrongs.
I	* [Question about what about teaching in general?]
R	I think it is a privilege to teach. I'm in a position to open minds and get them to tackle what they don't know about. In Year 7 - they don't know about the Holocaust yet - I'll be the one to open their eyes. I don't take it lightly - look at the bags, the grey hairs [laughter] I take it seriously - I don't have the arrogance to wing it and they don't deserve it.
I	Thanks Ravi - that is really great. I have a few more things to ask. I asked you after the briefing session to identify two or three key

	learning experiences which you think have helped shape your knowledge - in the broadest sense - of teaching history. Firstly you talked about working at ***** [see profile sheet for written comments].
R	Yes I think it was cutting edge. They had fresh ideas -especially the Head of Department and my mentor. They were not afraid to take risks and I had the opportunity to do this. I was encouraged to try new ideas all the time. For instance, I had to teach a lesson on King John and highlight to the pupils that there were different interpretations of him in history. To get this point across, as a starter, I played the group a song by the band Blue and asked them to write down a comment on the song. I then took their feedback. It worked fantastically as I received a real mixed back of reactions. This showed them implicitly that they had all heard the same song but they all had different opinions. An idea like taking examples from their world and applying it to history - this was greatly encouraged. I learnt from them - by talking to them - how to be reflective - to make it better. And how to tailor it to different groups.
I	You mentioned the importance of your own history teachers [see profile sheet] - you said they had unique and opposing styles. What were they?
R	One was very old school. She had been teaching for 20 years but she made us feel that she was discovering the subject for the first time. I remember clearly her stories of Boudicea. The depth and breadth of her subject knowledge was awesome. She was enigmatic had charisma in her lessons. But when the lesson was over - that was that - she wanted us out of the classroom. I'm not sure I ever talked to her. The other one was in her early career. She was so organised all her notes were prepared for us - really structured learning. She had an open door policy. Offered individual support and encouragement. They were very different. Both very dedicated though.
I	Your last box contains lots of thoughts - family, friends, colleagues here [PCC] and rather embarrassingly - me [laughter]. Do you want to elaborate on them (not me) [laughter]?
R	[laughter] OK family have always been in the background and have given me confidence - always. That family support has always been important. Also my closest friends - its important to have someone outside of teaching - reminding me of my ambition. When I told my friends that I wanted to teach history they thought I was mad. But when I tell them things they say "you have made me want to learn".

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I	OK - not so much me - I find this difficult and don't know how to respond to this comment [see profile sheet]
R	Its true
I	but what about your PGCE university course then - rather than me
R	I suppose when we got bogged down with theory. if I'm honest I thought this isn't going to help me on a Friday afternoon with a Year 9. At the time it wasn't always appreciated. Only now do I get your ideas about source analysis or interpretations. Its hard to relate at the time. Not now though and I'll use it even more next year. There is a difference between surviving and learning - which is what you do on a PGCE. And now which is about teaching and professional development. But not in the first term [in NQT year] - that is about surviving too. It is your support too. Especially accessibility. You had an open door policy - always email a response to a problem or follow up problems. You helped me rationalise and focus on what was important at different times. I knew that at the time.
I	Thanks Ravi - I don't know how I'll use that. But its nice to be appreciated. You have given me so much to think about. really helpful. Is there anything else you'd like to raise?
R	No that is it. [Interview ends]