

From Novice to Effective Teacher: A Study of Postgraduate Training and History Pedagogy

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Abstract: *The question of what makes for effective initial professional development of teachers is both complex and contested. From 1992 in England there have been major changes to the pattern of initial teacher training [ITT], changes that have been centrally imposed with minimal or no consultation with the Higher Education Institutes' [HEI] teacher training community involved. The revolution has seen initial professional development move its locus from HEIs to schools and colleges, with a downgrading in both the role and status of HEIs in the process. The study reported below is a longitudinal one from 1996-2000 into the factors that affect the professional development of teachers of history to 7-11 year olds. Because of the disruption caused by changes in government policy towards both schools and HEIs the research adopted a case study approach, examining the career paths of 18 initial trainees within the context of developing their professionalism. The findings are accordingly tentative but suggest that professional development in terms of the teaching of history is a highly complex long-term process that has two dominant influences: the students' prior experience of both learning and being taught history and the Initial Teacher Training within the HEI. The paper examines within the ITT course the affect that an Intervention Strategy for the teaching of History had upon the student teachers. The conclusion is that where students have a well developed and syntactic understanding of the discipline prior to the course that the Intervention Strategy builds upon and complements, they are able to develop many of the features of proto-expert teachers of history. Where their prior experience of history as an academic discipline is limited, both the overall college course and the Intervention Strategy have a relatively superficial impact upon their development as teachers of history.*

Keywords: Knowledge Bases, History Teaching, Initial Teacher Training, Teachers' Professional Development, Harland & Kinder Typology, Pedagogical content knowledge, Syntactic knowledge, HEIs and Initial Teacher Training

Introduction

History is a relatively minor element in the post 1992 English National Curriculum for 5-11 year olds. At the heart of the primary curriculum are three core subjects: literacy, numeracy and science. History is one of an outer ring of 7 foundation subjects which were accorded a virtually non-statutory status from January 1998 to August 2000 when the Statutory Order and programmes of study were temporarily suspended. Inevitably there is limited time to prepare postgraduate students on one-year training courses to teach history, the main focus of this paper. In crude statistical terms c. 12 hours out of 470 teaching hours are allocated to all trainees for history at the College of St Mark and St John, the research site for this paper, i.e. 0.25%. For trainees who take a Humanities specialism there were an additional 12 hours or history. Since 1992 professional development for the teaching of history has had to take into account the different needs and expectations of the student in relation to the demands of the English National Curriculum for History, (see Appendix 1).

This paper is based upon research carried out from 1997-2000 into the professional development of initial teacher training students teaching history to 7-11 year olds. The research programme was based upon findings from a 1992-96 pilot study and a literature review. These indicated that the specialist history teaching course was a

major factor in the development of students' history teaching pedagogy. However, the course was one in a highly complicated set of factors that influenced student development as teachers. Crucial was its relationship to students' overall professional development and the prior academic, educational and life experiences of the students. The pilot study identified three overlapping categories of student on the specialist history teaching course. The first groups required the course primarily to provide them with the academic and related teaching subject historical knowledge that they needed. The second set of students wanted pedagogic guidance, i.e. ideas, activities, processes and protocols and related resources and guidance on how to teach National Curriculum history. The third category's focus was upon a theoretical rationale for the teaching of primary history grounded in both epistemology and psychology. This set was mainly drawn from students with strong academic history profiles. To different degrees all students wanted all three elements, but most emphasised a need for either subject or pedagogic knowledge.

How to meet the needs of these three contrasting yet overlapping categories of students provided a focus for the development of a research programme from 1996 built around a revised history teaching course that took the form of an *Intervention Strategy* for the professional development of student teachers of history to 7-11 year olds. The evolving *Intervention Strategy* aimed to enhance and enrich the overall ITT provision. As such, it had two foci: the development of the students' understanding of the syntactic nature of history, i.e. its skills, processes, study protocols and second order concepts, and related pedagogy that focused upon a connectionist model of teaching, see page 7 below. The *Intervention Strategy* was the central feature of our practitioner research programme from 1996. However, we need to recognise it was only a minor component of a full time one year ITT programme for teaching 5-11 year olds whose overall ethos the *Intervention Strategy* shared and complemented.

The Research Problem, Question and Foci

The post 1996 research problem was how most effectively to develop students' professionalism to teach history. The students were both specialists with history degrees and non historians taking a one year primary postgraduate course. The majority of students were non-historians, seven out of eighteen. Using practitioner research that directly involved RG we aimed to investigate the factors that enabled the students to become effective teachers of History. The practitioner research focused upon the *Intervention Strategy* and its impact upon the student teachers' history teaching praxis. The research into the students' pedagogy resulted in eighteen individual 'cases' that investigated the factors that influenced their professional development as teachers of history. On the basis of these 'cases' we hoped to be able to make recommendations for the improvement of the ITT of all student teachers intending to teach history. Our initial focus was upon the academic syntactic and substantive and related pedagogical content knowledge bases involved in history teaching, drawing upon the findings of Shulman and subsequent researchers (Shulman, 1986, 1987).

The principle question that the research addressed was:

*How effective is an **Intervention Strategy** in a one year ITT postgraduate course in influencing the professional development of ITT students as teachers of history?*

Supplementary questions were:

- a) *Were there any significant differences between history graduates and graduates from other disciplines in the history teaching pedagogy that they developed?*

- b) *What knowledge bases [factors] do ITT students need to develop in an effective pedagogy for the teaching of history?*
- c) *What are the implications of the study for knowledge base theory?*
- d) *What are the implications of the findings of the case studies for teacher training?*

These questions helped us to develop and refine from 1996-98 the history teaching *Intervention Strategy*. The *Intervention Strategy* related closely to a literature review of the role and nature of teachers' knowledge bases in their professional development.

Teachers' Knowledge Bases

Background

Research since the mid 1980s argues that teachers' knowledge 'bases' largely determine their professional identity. Knowledge bases collectively constitute the professional craft knowledge of the teacher, i.e. pedagogical content knowledge. They covered:

1. substantive subject knowledge
2. syntactic subject knowledge
3. beliefs about the subject
4. curriculum knowledge
5. general pedagogical knowledge
6. knowledge/models of teaching
7. knowledge of learners: cognitive
8. knowledge of learners: empirical
9. knowledge of self
10. knowledge of educational contexts
11. knowledge of educational ends (Turner-Bisset, 2001, pp. 13-19)

Findings strongly indicate that there is a close relationship between pedagogical content knowledge and teacher effectiveness (Askew *et al.*, (1997), Bennett (1993), Grossman, Wilson and Shulman (1989), Nichol and Turner-Bisset (1998), Shulman (1986, 1987), Turner-Bisset (1996), Turner-Bisset (2001)). The literature specifically highlighted the importance of teachers' syntactic subject knowledge base, i.e. their understanding of the nature and structure of an academic discipline, in relation to the development of effective teaching strategies and approaches. Interestingly, this is a central feature of the 1995 version of English National Curriculum for History used in this project, (DFE, 1995), see Appendix 1, that stresses syntactic subject skills, processes and concepts in the teaching and learning of history.

Syntactic subject knowledge

Syntactic subject knowledge consists of the intermeshed skills, processes, study-protocols and second order concepts involved in studying an academic discipline or subject domain like history. Such syntactic historical knowledge covers:

- the identification of an historical problem or issue;
- the framing of questions to investigate the problem or issue;
- the reviewing of existing hypotheses about the problem in relation to the questions;
- the planning of the historical enquiries / investigation;
- the gathering of all relevant data from available sources, both contemporary and subsequent commentaries that help resolve the enquiry or investigation;
- the processing of data in order to extract and collate relevant *evidence*;

- the reviewing of the *evidence* drawn from the sources that the investigation has examined in relation to the original questions and hypotheses;
- consideration of the original questions and hypotheses in relation to the data;
- the use of the informed imagination to develop an understanding of the people who are agents in the historical situation being investigated;
- the reaching of conclusions;
- the communication of findings.

(Marwick, 1988, Collingwood, 1946, Carr, 1987)

Pupils' syntactic knowledge develops through engaging them in different facets of historical enquiry. To undertake an historical enquiry school children both draw upon and develop second order concepts that give history its identity as an academic discipline, i.e. chronology, cause and consequence, evidence and historical accounts. Within the context of Initial Teacher Training, academic syntactic subject knowledge provides a bridge between the trainee's subject knowledge and how to teach it, i.e. pedagogy. Academic syntactic knowledge underpins syntactically based teaching subject knowledge to develop pupils' historical thinking, skills, procedural knowledge and related second order conceptual development. The academic syntactic enhances the substantive when the student can understand, reflect upon and explain upon what his or her substantive knowledge is based.

Indeed, the validity of substantive [propositional] knowledge arises from its relationship to and dependence upon syntactic [procedural] knowledge (Rogers, 1979). Rogers relates what is involved in history teaching to Ryle's (1949) categorisation of knowledge as Know That [propositional or substantive] and Know How [procedural or syntactic]. Rogers argues that substantive and syntactic historical knowledge are closely and dynamically inter-related. Interestingly, Rogers created a highly sophisticated teaching programme about English campaigns in Ireland in the late Tudor and early Stuart period to test the hypothesis that pupils' Know That knowledge is developed through their syntactic Know How learning activities. 'Propositional' knowledge is provisional and tentative, grounded as it is in the culturally determined 'second record' of the historian, see page 11 below. Indeed, history is 'an ongoing conversation that yields not final truths but an endless succession of discoveries that change our understanding not only of the past but of ourselves and of the times in which we live' (Moynihan (1995, p. 311).

Oakeshott also emphasises the importance of syntactic knowledge, arguing that: 'the rules of art are there, but they do not determine the practice of the art; the rules of understanding are there, but they do not themselves endow us with understanding' (Oakeshott, 1965, in Fuller, 1989, p. 56). This corresponds with A.J.P. Taylor's views on the nature of historical scholarship: that history is more than scholarship, more even than a method of research. It is above all a form of understanding in its own right based upon engagement with the record of the past (Wrigley, 1980).

The division between the syntactic and the substantive academic subject knowledge bases is significant because of the critical role that syntactic subject knowledge plays. McNamara stresses that there is a causal link between the sophistication of a teacher's syntactic and substantive subject knowledge and his or her teaching:

Teachers' subject matter knowledge influences the way in which they teach and teachers who know more about a subject will be more interesting and adventurous in the ways they teach and more effective. Teachers with only a limited knowledge of a subject may avoid teaching difficult or complex aspects of

it and teach in a didactic manner which avoids pupil participation and questioning and fails to draw upon children's experience' (McNamara, 1991, p. 115).

Grossman, Wilson and Shulman (in Reynolds, Ed., 1989, p. 30) highlight the importance of syntactic subject knowledge as a key factor in shaping in teaching styles. They note the link between inadequate syntactic subject understanding and effective pedagogy:

Novice teachers who lack knowledge of the syntactic structures of the subject matter fail to incorporate that aspect of the discipline in their curriculum. We believe that they consequently run the risk of misrepresenting the subject matters they teach. Students need to learn that mathematics is more than algorithms and that chemistry is more than the periodic table. Teachers who do not understand the role played by inquiry in their disciplines are not capable of adequately representing and, therefore, teaching that subject matter to their students.

A lack of syntactic knowledge may also seriously limit prospective teachers' abilities to learn new information in their fields. Without a firm grasp of the syntax of a discipline, prospective teachers may be unable to distinguish between more and less legitimate claims within a field. Teachers may find themselves unable to counter effectively a specious argument, even if they are aware of its dubious nature. As knowledge within a field changes, teachers need to be able to evaluate new theories and explanations on the basis of the evidence. In fact, in our sample of novice teachers, a firm grasp of the syntactic structure of a discipline proved most valuable in helping teachers acquire new knowledge within their fields.

Pedagogical content knowledge

Teachers' syntactic understanding of a domain like history relates closely to the pedagogical content knowledge that is central to their professional craft knowledge. In the mid-1980s Shulman identified pedagogical content knowledge as the missing educational paradigm. Shulman's stressed the relationship between representation and practical skills, 'the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others' (1986). He was aware not only of the place of research in formulating a teacher's repertoire, but also of the 'wisdom of practice' (1986). Rosie Turner-Bisset describes representation as 'a key notion, which might be said to be the summation of all the knowledge bases in action' (2001, p. 125). She describes pedagogical content knowledge as 'the special province of teachers: their own form of professional knowledge and understanding' (2001, p. 125). This corresponds with Peter John's (1991) notion of professional craft knowledge that was based upon the Shulman paradigm. The stress in Shulman's original definition was on the relationship between how we can in an academic, abstract sense represent and articulate our understanding and hands-on practical skills, 'the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others' (1986).

Initially through the Leverhulme Primary Project, Turner-Bisset was able to develop Shulman's knowledge base theory to include the idea of interacting sets or amalgams of knowledge bases. This concept is linked to the seminal thesis of her book, that 'in an expert act of teaching, all of the knowledge bases are present in the amalgam' (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p. 125), see Appendix 3. By contrast, a feature of less effective teaching is the partial amalgam of knowledge bases. She sets out four interacting and to some extent overlapping, sets of knowledge bases (pp. 129 – 130). The first set consists of substantive and syntactic subject knowledge, beliefs about the subject, and curriculum knowledge. The second set includes models of teaching and learning, general pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of contexts. The third

set is predominantly about knowledge of learners (cognitive and empirical). The fourth and last set again includes knowledge of self, learning outcomes and curriculum knowledge.

Turner-Bisset links the amalgam of knowledge bases with Bruner's theory (1966) about different modes of knowledge representation, the enactive, iconic and symbolic. Investigation of the nature of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge was central to an analysis of two parallel British government funded 20-day courses for teachers of history in England that directly influenced the creation of the *Intervention Strategy* (Turner-Bisset and Nichol 1997a, and 1997b; Nichol and Turner-Bisset, 1998). They examined two different approaches to primary history twenty day long in-service courses, courses A and B. The courses were aimed at teachers with little or no historical knowledge. Course A stressed building up the teachers' substantive knowledge. The course director did this through both lecturing and through analysis of the potential for teaching of a full range of contemporary sources. This training model shared elements of Knight's (1991a and 1991b) exposure model of teaching that was grounded in the 'discovery' approach to teaching and learning (see Askew *et al.*, 1997 below). As such, course A only partly fulfilled the function of transforming substantive academic subject knowledge into a form suitable for teaching.

Course B emphasised both the substantive and syntactic nature of history. It introduced teachers to the concept of history as a process of enquiry through involving them in a number of historical investigations. The course aimed to develop teacher understanding and expertise through them experiencing learning activities from the learners' perspective. Teacher engagement was based upon the cognitive apprenticeship cycle of demonstration, modelling, enactment, review and reflection that involved extensive coaching, i.e. professional apprenticeship (Collins *et al.*, 1989; Clancey, 1992; Nichol and Turner-Bisset, 1998). The Course B tutors involved the teachers in the modelling, demonstration, enactment, implementation and review of effective teaching and learning approaches to teaching history, with the teachers in the role of pupils. Course members constructed their own understanding of historical situations, their causes and consequences. They had to adapt and implement course teaching ideas and approaches in their own classroom and report back on these to the other course members. The tutors consciously challenged the existing beliefs of course members on the nature of history and how it should be taught.

Accordingly we developed and refined the *Intervention Strategy* from 1996 so that it incorporated a range of interactive and stimulating teaching approaches. These aimed to develop both students' substantive and syntactic subject knowledge and their pedagogical content knowledge as well, i.e. how to teach historical topics to pupils, see pages 70 - 71. The *Intervention Strategy* also drew upon Lave and Wenger's (1991) notion of legitimate peripheral participation, where in a situated cognition context students worked intensively alongside a master of his or her craft. As such the *Intervention Strategy's* was built around an expert 'model' of teaching that would enrich students' novice 'models'. Our aim was to enable students to adapt and transfer the principles, strategies and teaching approaches of the expert model to analogous teaching situations during their teaching practice. The 'expert model' was meta-cognitive. Students had to demonstrate to their peers how they had implemented the *Intervention Strategy* in their own teaching to the other students.

Knowledge bases and effective models of teaching

Of particular influence upon the development of the *Intervention Strategy* and subsequent analysis of the research data was Askew *et al.*'s (1997) research into teachers' knowledge bases for the effective teaching of numeracy. The UK Government's Teacher Training Agency had commissioned this research in relation to the development and implementation of a national numeracy strategy. The numeracy research was based at King's College, London. The King's team argued that there were three contrasting models of mathematical teaching and related teacher orientation, the connectionist, transmission and discovery. These models were grounded in the relative role and importance of the teachers' knowledge bases. The model that resulted in the most effective teaching in terms of pupil learning outcomes was the connectionist. This model was based on the development of a constructive, interactive dialogue between the teacher and pupils within the context of active whole class teaching. Dialogue was crucial in mediating the flow of knowledge and understanding between both teacher and student: its absence in the transmission and discovery models produced an impoverished learning environment in which the student was *de facto* cut off from the teacher as a mediator of mathematical knowledge. Conversely, the absence or impoverished nature of discourse meant that the teacher was unable to develop an understanding of the students' learning, learning needs and learning problems.

The connectionist teacher places a strong emphasis on developing understanding that is grounded in the skills, processes, procedures and protocols of the academic discipline. Reasoning about number is as important as its application, and, as such, becomes integral to the effective teaching of number. (Askew *et al.*, 1997, pp. 27 – 28). The connectionist model involves elements of transmission, the organisation of discovery opportunities, and making connections between the different elements of teaching and learning. The King's College team concluded that highly effective teachers believed that being numerate requires (a) having a rich network of connections between different mathematical ideas, and (b) being able to select and use teaching strategies which are both efficient and effective (1997, p. 1).

Support for the history teaching *Intervention Strategy*'s effectiveness can be found in Harland and Kinder's (1992, 1997) typology of effective learning outcomes from professional development courses. They discovered that the long-term impact and effectiveness of such courses was closely linked to 'values congruence' between course members and tutors and course members' acquisition of high-level 'knowledge and skills.' The *Intervention Strategy* emphasised both these factors. Other elements in the Harland and Kinder typology were also central to the *Intervention Strategy*: The more elements that were present, the more likely was it to succeed, see Appendix 2. Values congruence encompasses the values, attitudes and beliefs that directly affect the teacher's orientation that underpins how they teach.

Orientation: Values, attitudes and beliefs

The pre-1996 research data and literature review indicated a direct correlation between student teachers' beliefs about the nature of History and related values and attitudes that affected how they taught the subject. Such knowledge was often tacit and implicit, grounded in untested beliefs and assumptions about the subject assimilated during the students' own education and through the folk pedagogy of the staff room. Values that history can develop, attitudes towards its study and beliefs about its nature were a strong determining factor in influencing the students' teaching styles and approaches.

Student values, attitudes and beliefs ranged across a wide spectrum; within the spectrum we can identify clusters that draw upon a shared set of beliefs. Thus, at one end of the spectrum before experience of the *Intervention Strategy* there were students who argued that historical knowledge is made up from first-hand contemporary sources that the historian interprets to create his or her own 'history'. This cluster thought that if a history task for children reflected this view of history, then pupils will assimilate skills and develop understanding through constructing their own interpretation of the past. Conversely, at the spectrum's other end were students who claimed that history was a body of knowledge for transmission to pupils, embodying an implicit set of values and attitudes towards personal and national identity and the nature of government and authority. They, accordingly, adopted a radically different pedagogic model. The implications of research findings for the existing training pattern were clear: we needed an *Intervention Strategy* to fundamentally re-orientate student values and beliefs about history as an academic and pedagogic discipline and its teaching.

The research data's targeting of student beliefs about history was mirrored in the research literature. Grossman, Wilson and Shulman recognised the importance of teacher beliefs, values and attitudes (orientation) in influencing how teachers think about academic subject knowledge, both syntactic and substantive, and its teaching (Reynolds, Ed., 1989). Of particular value for developing the *Intervention Strategy* was research into the values and beliefs of students training to teach history. R.W. Evans's analysis (1994) was significant as was its use by Virta (2001) who used R.W. Evans's categories when categorising Finnish student teachers of history.

R.W. Evans identified five different kinds of history teacher orientation in a sample of seventy one secondary history teachers, orientation grounded in their syntactic understanding:

1. storyteller	8 out of 71 (11.3%)	4. cosmic philosopher	2 out of 71 (2.8%)
2. scientific historian	13 out of 71 (18.3%)	5. eclectic	16 out of 71 (22.5%)
3. relativist/reformer	32 out of 71 (45.1%)		

storyteller The importance and value of storytelling for teaching primary school pupils is well established. Knight praises its use and recognises its power. John Fines used it as a prelude to drama and role-play (see Fines and Verrier, 1974), and Bage quotes a positive example of a story-telling teacher (Bage, 1999, p. 68). Stories themselves are full of potential for a primary school teacher of history. 'Storied traditions of pedagogy' is the title of chapter 5 of Bage's (1999) book, *Narrative Matters*. As a *dominant style* story-telling is problematic if it results in a transmission model of teaching that fails to engage students in developing their own understanding of the topic, i.e. to build upon the foundations that the story created (Cooper and McIntyre, 1996). With the advent of the National Literacy Strategy students regularly teach lessons based upon stories, often historical ones. The National Literacy Strategy's stress on genres supports placing story-telling at the centre of history teaching. Story telling facilitates pupil engagement with a whole range of genres, for example, developing pupils' ability to write in a diary genre after being told the story of the Great Fire of London (1666) via Samuel Pepys's diary.

The great exponents of re-creative history have always been masters of dramatic and vividly evocative narrative. Modern classics of narrative history include Steven

Runciman's *History of the Crusades* (3 volumes, 1951–54) and C.V. Wedgwood's two books on the reign of Charles I, *The King's Peace* (1955) and *The King's War* (1958). In a phrase that sums up the aspirations of the narrative tradition, Wedgwood defined her obligation to the people of the past as being 'to restore their immediacy of experience' (Wedgwood, 1955, p. 16). Simon Schama's highly readable best-seller, *Citizens* (1989), aimed to achieve a similar effect with regard to the French Revolution. Schama explicitly returned to the grand narrative tradition of the French historians who wrote their narrative epic accounts of the French revolution during its aftermath.

scientific historian R.W. Evans's definition of a scientific historian (interpreted by Virta, 2001, as an 'academic historian') has aspects in common with Collingwood's analysis of historical methodology. To R.W. Evans, the scientific historian is a liberal empiricist; liberating pupils through empowering them to understand upon what historical claims are based. They engage in a process of critical enquiry from initial questioning through the course of the ensuing enquiry as objective rationalists. This kind of teacher draws upon 'the scientist's scepticism about knowledge, and with it a questioning attitude' (R.W. Evans, 1994, p. 205). A problem is identified, questions are asked, evidence is processed, data is analysed and hypotheses are formed and tested. This process begs the question, 'is history a science?' R.J. Evans in *In Defence of History* (1997, p. 27) quotes from Droysen (in Stern, 1956, p. 138), who stated that history is the only science that is required to be at the same time an art.

relativist reformers The distinguishing feature of R.W. Evans's category of relativist reformers was a view of history as contemporary thought about our past (another link with Collingwood), as well as their commitment to help students draw lessons from the past for the future. This approach is oriented to the present with an emphasis upon relating the past to current issues. Its vision of studying the past to build a better future places this category in the reflective enquiry tradition. It also implies more specifically an orientation towards reconstruction (R.W. Evans, 1994, p. 200). It is useful for classifying primary teachers of history as 'reconstructionist'. Reconstruction is often a key focus of primary history. Rogers (1979) considered that relativism is strongly linked to an emphasis upon historical explanation and change - two of the main underpinning criteria for English National Curriculum history. Of the eighteen ITT postgraduates at the College of St. Mark and St. John (one was a Newly Qualified Teacher) in the case studies the majority were predominantly reconstructionists.

cosmic philosophers R.W. Evans argued that the 'cosmic philosopher has most in common with the speculative philosopher of history. The cosmic philosopher sees all experience as connected, part of a larger pattern. For these teachers, the human persona remains unchanged, the key elements of existence are perennial. Cosmic philosophy has elements of atavism: backward looking, desiring a return to an earlier time, even to a golden age. The drawing upon history for models of personal behaviours has echoes of cosmic philosophy, indeed, at the end of the 19th century this was a major factor in the teaching of history in British state schools via the medium of class readers, a major element of which were historical stories (Yeandle, 2003).

eclectic teachers of history No dominant factor shapes and forms the eclectic teachers' views about the purpose of history.

When asked about the purposes for studying history, each of the eclectic teachers gave multiple answers. All mentioned knowledge or appreciation of the past. Each teacher also mentioned at least one other purpose, such as interest,

telling stories, relating the past to the present, helping the community, or mental exercise. The key similarity is that each of these teachers seemingly had no dominant tendency. Although they differed on their thoughts about patterns and generalizability, a second important area of similarity was in teaching style. Each of these teachers emphasized variety and student (*pupil*) interest. In fact, the common element seems to be a very practical orientation toward getting students interested. (R.W. Evans, 1994, p. 200)

R.W. Evans (1994, p. 204) concluded that teacher orientation is a heady brew that combines numerous ingredients. Among these are

- family background,
- religious convictions,
- political beliefs,
- the influence of individuals, in particular teachers at school or university,
- the impact of particular teaching styles.

Interestingly, those R.W. Evans classified as storytellers seemed to be from more conservative backgrounds with strong religious convictions; relativist/reformers and some scientific historians tended to have more progressive and liberal upbringings. The apparent importance of teachers' values, attitudes and beliefs about history and its purpose, their orientation, that R.W. Evans stressed, played a major part in refining the *Intervention Strategy*.

Orientation: a case-study

Wilson's and Wineburg's case study of a history graduate's, Jane's, orientation, was particularly influential in the thinking behind the *Intervention Strategy*. Jane was one of four students that Wilson and Wineburg (1988) analysed. The other three had degrees in anthropology with an emphasis upon archaeology, international relations & political science and American Studies. (Wilson and Wineburg, 1988, p. 526). Jane had a thorough and extensive grounding in history as an academic discipline that involved rigorous and systematic patterns of study and enquiry. For Jane, history formed a rich 'tapestry' of classic questions and themes, great men and women, geography and natural disasters. Moreover, history is bound up with context: 'as a historian, I'm trained to think of things historically as contextual...I see things, I look back in the past, I see what the roots are.' Facts, to Jane, are part of history, woven together by themes and questions, and most important, embedded in a context that lends meaning and perspective. (Wilson and Wineburg, 1988, p. 526). Jane argued that interpretation went far beyond the sum of the available evidence. Interpretation was bound up with historiography, the processes and modes of inquiry of historians: 'The making of history, the task of being a historian, involves very clear thinking about argument and logic, about evidence, about how to split hairs sensibly'. She described historiography as analysis and synthesis:

History is analytical in the sense that you go and break things down. It's synthetic when you engage in the process of writing history. You take things apart and then you put them back together. You try to look for connections. You look for specifics, gather evidence, make general hypotheses. You go through all those steps in a sort of scientific spirit.

Interpretation for Jane revolved around the 'classic questions in history', questions that wove factual information into a complex and rich story. History was narrative and interpretation. It represented the products of the past as well as the processes of the historians engaged in reconstructing it (Wilson and Wineburg, 1988, p. 526).

Wilson and Wineburg's Jane shows characteristics typical of a connectionist teacher with a scientific orientation, though she seems to be describing the process of writing history, rather than the process of teaching. She adopts a simple set of six principles: analyse (break down, break apart), synthesise (bring back together), connect, find specifics, gather evidence and make general hypotheses. The findings of R.W. Evans, Virta, Wilson and Wineburg strongly indicated that we had to ground our *Intervention Strategy* in what we felt were models of best academic syntactic historical practice that in turn could inform and shape teaching through helping inform and shaping pedagogy.

Collingwood, Hexter, Oakeshott and the Intervention Strategy

Particularly influential in developing the syntactic subject dimension of the history teaching *Intervention Strategy* were Collingwood's, Hexter's and Oakeshott's publications on the nature of history.

Collingwood Collingwood analysed (1946/1989) the epistemological basis of history as an academic discipline. Three elements of Collingwood's analysis influenced us; his emphasis upon the role of questions and questioning in driving on historical enquiry; his metaphor of the historian working in a similar way to the detective and the central role in historical thinking of the role of the informed imagination and its classroom outcome, reconstruction. Collingwood used the term 're-enactment' to describe such thinking.

My historical review of the idea of history has resulted in the emergence of an answer to this question: namely, that the historian must re-enact the past in his own mind (p. 282).

If we raise the question, Of what can there be historical knowledge? The answer is, Of that which can be re-enacted in the historian's mind (p. 302).

Reconstruction is widely accepted as a legitimate activity of the historian. Historical writing is characterised by a wide range of literary forms. The three basic techniques of description, narrative and analysis can be combined in many different ways, and every project poses afresh the problem of how they should be deployed. Recreation is more than a purely intellectual exercise: it involves the senses and emotions. That the re-creation of the past – 'the reconstruction of the historical moment in all its fullness, concreteness and complexity' (Butterfield, 1951, p. 237) – is more than a purely intellectual task is plain to see from its most characteristic literary form: description. Here historians are striving to create in their readers the illusion of direct experience, by evoking an atmosphere or setting a scene (Tosh, 2002, p. 141).

Hexter Hexter was the second historian who influenced us. Hexter (1971) illuminates the work of an historical scholar with a sensitivity to those being taught. He does this by reflecting on his own work as a historian, and on how this developed. He stresses that history is a personal creation, and that historians are human, using not just professional judgement and knowledge, but also common sense and their own life-experiences to seek to understand how people thought and acted in the past. He gives the example of how he began to understand why Thomas More in the early 16th century took a post in the royal court apparently against his previous ethical principles. Hexter at the beginning of his career with a growing family of his own realises that More also had a large family and an extended household of servants and fostered children (who became his pupils) to support, and this is why he took the court post (Surtz and Hexter, 1965; Hexter, 1965). Scholarship, like all attempts to impose any understanding on the past, includes an element of what Hexter calls 'the

second record'. By the 'second record' Hexter means 'everything that historians bring to their confrontation with the record of the past' (Hexter, 1971, p. 103).

Potentially ... it embraces the historian's skills, the range of his knowledge, the set of his mind, the substance, quality and character of his experience – his total consciousness. (p. 104)

Each historian's second record differs from that of every other historian: it is '... personal, individual, ephemeral, and not publicly accessible' (p. 104). However it becomes publicly accessible when a historian '... moves from the record of the past to a historical assertion about the past he is drawing on his second record'. In this way the historian is claiming that 'he has and, if necessary, can produce from his second record grounds for him making some part of his second record, hitherto private and inaccessible, open to criticism and evaluation' (p. 106). As a world famous academic Tudor historian Hexter had a highly sophisticated grasp of the sources and context related to the example he gives, his biography of Thomas More.

The twin notions of sophistication and scholarliness, balanced by a need for teachers to use their second records in interpreting the past for children, provided yet another clue for creating an *Intervention Strategy* that would provide a positive orientation of history students towards teaching history. Dean (1995) uses the idea of the teacher providing a 'surrogate' second record for pupils to compensate for their immaturity. The teacher's second record relates to the first record that they draw upon to plan their teaching and provide resources for pupils.

Student teachers often claim that their first records are impoverished because they do not have time to read outside a narrow range of prescribed texts. The development of an enriched first record for teaching needs access to as wide a range of sources as possible; contemporary materials and subsequent commentaries, fiction, narratives, debates and interpretations drawn from a wide range of genres and teaching materials.

Oakeshott: The role of dialogue

The connectionist model of teaching emphasises the role of dialogue, an emphasis that receives support from Oakeshott. Oakeshott stressed that there is a strong relationship between teaching, learning and conversational discourse. He argues that the essence of a university should be to teach an understanding of the conventions of conversationally based education (Oakeshott, 1950, in Fuller, 1989, pp 95 - 104). Oakeshott reflects the classical model of a liberal humanities education where students engage in Socratic discourse. In the training of teachers of history such dialogue is crucial. Trainee students have to be capable of sustaining dialogue between themselves and their tutors, peers and pupils built around questioning and enquiry. Such dialogue draws upon a range of knowledge bases; for example, the substantive, knowledge/models of teaching, curriculum and knowledge of learners (Turner-Bisset, 2001, p19). In the development of the *Intervention Strategy*, it was necessary to create conditions where all three kinds of dialogue could occur, i.e. between student-tutors, student-peers and peers and student-pupils.

Models of Effective Teaching

The creation and implementation of the *Intervention Strategy* and collection of research data related closely to work on effective models of history teaching. Particularly influential were the ideas of the Nuffield Primary History Project and government funded research into the effective teaching of literacy in the late 1990s (Fines and Nichol, 1997, and Medwell and Wray, 1998). The Nuffield Primary History

Project argued that there were seven criteria for the effective organisation of teaching:

<i>Principles</i>	<i>Classroom Implications:</i>
1 Challenge	You challenge pupils at all points of learning.
2 Questioning	You pose questions to deal with the challenge, both your questions and those that the pupils generate.
3 Authenticity	You use authentic sources when possible, as genuine sources bring children face to face with the past. Sources can be both contemporary material or subsequent histories, i.e. interpretations of the past, in whatever shape or form.
4 Depth	Your pupils can only acquire genuine understanding from study in depth.
5 Economy	You use the minimum number of sources needed to promote understanding.
6 Accessibility	You make the past accessible to the pupils through teaching strategies that enable children to 'do History'.
7 Communication	You ensure that pupils communicate the 'histories' they create to others.

The Teacher Training Agency commissioned a study of what factors resulted in 'Effective Teachers of Literacy' (Medwell and Wray, 1998). The research produced a model of effective teaching that we incorporated into the *Intervention Strategy*, with particular emphasis upon contextualisation, pace, modelling, immersion of students in the topic and clear procedures for assessment linked to detailed record keeping. The key features in relation to teaching the *Intervention Strategy* were:

<i>Aspect</i>	<i>Features</i>
Discursive	Characterised by high quality oral work
Interactive	Pupils contributions are encouraged, expected and extended
Well-paced	There is a sense of urgency, driven by the need to make progress and succeed
Confident	Teachers have a clear understanding of the objectives
Ambitious	There is high optimism about and high expectation of success

Literature on effective teaching was also used for the analysis of teaching; in particular Kyriacou's (1997) categorisation:

1. clarity of teachers' expectations and directions;
2. making use of a variety of learning activities;
3. encouraging pupil participation and getting all pupils involved;
4. delivering a well-structured and well-organised lesson;
5. ensuring coverage of the learning objectives;
6. making good use of questioning techniques;
7. establishing a task-oriented classroom climate;
8. establishing and maintaining momentum and pace for the lesson;
9. monitoring pupils' progress and attending quickly to pupils' needs;
10. providing pupils with positive and constructive feedback.

The findings of Fines and Nichol, Medwell and Kyriacou all influenced the development, refinement and teaching of the *Intervention Strategy* from 1997.

The History Teaching *Intervention Strategy*, 1996-98

Teacher knowledge bases, teacher orientation and models of teaching combined to influence the development and refinement of the history teaching *Intervention Strategy* from 1997. The research data from 1992-96 clearly indicated that to focus on the transmission of substantive subject knowledge unrelated to its development through syntactic engagement with sources and related pedagogic materials produced relatively impoverished models of history teaching, mirroring both Askew *et al.*'s (1997) transmission model, and what Knight (1991) called the 'exposure' model (see above page 11). In the latter, teachers using a discovery pattern of teaching, exposed their pupils to a wide range of historical sources without any clear focus or organising ideas based in an understanding of the nature of history as a discipline.

The history teaching *Intervention Strategy* changed radically from the pre-1997 History course when we realised the role that syntactic subject knowledge played in students' professional development. We hypothesised that the effective training of students would be based on their ability to make connections not only between the syntactic, substantive and pedagogic elements in their preparation but also between children's understanding and their own, providing the children with a surrogate second record. Central to the final *Intervention Strategy* was a study pack on Boudicca's rebellion drawn from as wide a range of sources as possible; the contemporary, the academic, the populist and those aimed at teaching. Our aim was to enable the students to create in their own minds a detailed understanding of any historical topic. As such, they would have to engage in reconstruction and re-enactment. We adopted an approach incorporating role-play, student presentations and discussion of sources.

The Boudicca study pack also provided the maximum opportunity for students to create interactive and stimulating teaching strategies for teaching history to 7-11 year olds. Accordingly the *Intervention Strategy* was based upon models of expert teaching in which dialogue played a major part. The *Intervention Strategy* illustrated the importance of teachers developing knowledge and understanding through systematic enquiry and study. As such, it was meta-cognitive, providing a model for students' future mastery of the syntactic, substantive and pedagogical knowledge bases that underpin effective teaching.

The Boudicca Study Pack and related tasks and rationale

We chose Boudicca's Revolt, AD 60 because it was central to the English National Curriculum for History's Key Stage 2 study unit on Romans, Anglo Saxons and Vikings in Britain that included as an option an in depth study of the Roman conquest of Britain:

1. Pupils should be taught **in outline** about the following

the Roman conquest and occupation of Britain
the arrival and settlement of the Anglo-Saxons
Viking raids and settlements

2. They should be taught in greater depth about ONE of the following (Romans, Anglo-Saxons or Vikings):

a. Romans: the Roman conquest and its impact on Britain

e.g. Boudicca and resistance to Roman rule, the extent to which life in Celtic Britain was influenced by Roman rule and settlement, the end of imperial rule
(See DFE, 1995, pp. 73 - 83)

The students were each given a Boudicca Study Pack which consisted of a selection of contemporary, juvenile and scholarly writings relating to the revolt of AD 60. The *Intervention Strategy* was designed to provide the circumstances in which the students would actively engage with these sources to discuss the issues as an historian would and then to present the material in a role-play reconstruction as if they were examining the event 'from the inside'. This deliberately modelled a connectionist and reconstructionist approach to teaching, first developing a greater awareness of the importance of syntactic knowledge, and then encouraging creativity and empathetic imagination as underpinning factors in their understanding and presentation (for an analysis of Collingwood's principles of re-enactment see Hughes-Warrington, 2003). The Hexterian concept of the second record and Rogers's notion of the contextual frame of reference (also rationalised in the Vygotskian sense as scaffolding) were also significant in this strategy where the students could bring their own life-experience to the role-play and work with fellow students to ensure that the context was fully understood by their peers. The class was split into 4 groups, and each group would study the sources for one of four possible parts of the narrative. The contemporary (or near contemporary) sources were from Cornelius Tacitus (c 100 - 110 AD) and Cassius Dio (c. 214 – 226 AD), the juvenile sources (i.e. from texts originally written for children) from Henrietta Marshall (c. 1904) and from Robert Unstead (1957). The scholarly source was a sub-divided chapter on Boadicea (Boudicca) in Michael Wood's *In Search of the Dark Ages* (1981) (see Guyver, 2001). There was an attempt to introduce the refining category of sophistication to the development of students' substantive knowledge of this event, and the principle of examining contemporary sources alongside scholarly ones was translated to other sessions.

The combination of role-play, discussion and student presentation in the Boudicca scheme of work was used alongside other teaching approaches in the rest of the history teaching *Intervention Strategy*. Role-play, discussion and student presentation were used separately in the Tudor session (discussion about Tudor chronology and family trees or about Tudor exploration or about Tudor home-life, followed by Tudor dance). In other sessions interpretation and connections were seen as important, especially in the time spent on Ancient Egypt where different interpretations of who built the pyramids, how and why, were discussed, and connections were made between Egyptian myths (especially the myth of Osiris), the physical conditions of Egypt, and the role and status of pharaohs. RG's awareness of scholarship in this field was enhanced when a specialist graduate student gave him her recent University of Birmingham course reading list. He applied the principle of drawing upon recent academic scholarship to the curriculum strength session (for Humanities graduates only) on the Reformation. RG also consulted with a University of Exeter academic whose specialism is that period and received the names of two recently published books on the Reformation (Duffy, 1992; and Haigh, 1993). Local history was used in the session on Britain since 1930 where a video about the Plymouth Blitz was shown and discussion about how to teach evacuation using real and imaginary letters followed. This was linked with the story of Anne Frank. In the Roman, Tudor, and Britain since 1930 sessions children's fiction was examined, including the books used by Jane [case study 3b] and Denise [case study 4a] (Childs, 1992; and Magorian, 1998).

The history teaching *Intervention Strategy* meant the students had to create their historical understanding of any topic through a systematic and rigorous investigation

of the available historical sources and teaching materials, starting with questioning. We hypothesised that the effective training of students would be based on their ability to make connections not only between the syntactic, substantive and pedagogic knowledge bases in their preparation but also between this preparation and a knowledge of learners, both cognitive and empirical, see Appendix 3. This capacity to connect with children's understanding is at the heart of Hexter's concept of the 'second record' (1971) (see above). In applying these ideas to the *Intervention Strategy* we focussed on activities that combined the development of syntactic, substantive, pedagogic and curricular knowledge bases for teaching history to 7-11 year olds. Students would be able to thoroughly investigate and engage with a wide range of sources and related teaching materials and approaches on any topic that they were teaching. Transferability was the key concept.

The Research Site

Introduction

The research was carried out at the College of St. Mark and St. John, a Higher Education Institution in England that offered a number of teacher training courses. The research was conducted mainly in the context of the one year Postgraduate Certificate of Education [PGCE] Primary course, although it involved one four year B.Ed student. The research programme from 1997-2000 involved four sets of students, eighteen in all. The outcome was eighteen separate case-studies.

The research sets

Set 1 In the academic year 1996 – 1997 evidence was gathered on eight postgraduate students taking the one year primary PGCE course. Evidence on the first set was gathered in 1996-97.

Case study no. and name	Degree
1a. Catriona	BSc Psychology
1b. Robert	BSc Biology
1c. Peter	BSc Regional Science (Geography and Economics)
1d. Elizabeth	BA Education Studies and Linguistics
1e. Caroline	BSc Environmental Science
1f. Laura	BA History
1g. Susan	BA History
1h. Thomas	BA History with Sociology

Set 2 consisted of a single student, James who had taken a BA in history and an MA in Library and Information Studies. The research data was collected after he had completed one year of teaching.

Set 3 was made up from two postgraduates, one with and one without a degree. The research was carried out in 1997-98.

The final set, Set 4, was a set of seven postgraduates on the primary PGCE course from 1999-2000.

Case study no. and name	Degree
4a Denise	BA (Hons) English Language Studies with Literary Studies
4b Tamsin	BA (Hons) English and Psychology, MSc Computing
4c Christine	BA (Hons) English (with Media)

4d Mark	BSc (Hons) Biological Science
4e Donna	BSc (Hons) Environmental Science and Technology
4f Jessica	BA (Hons) History/Archaeology
4g Ted	BA (Hons) History with Media Studies

National influences: impact on the research site and programme

The research period from 1997-2000 was one of rapid curricular change in primary history teaching and training that radically altered the national framework in which the research was carried out. There was constant disorientation and disequilibrium that effectively wrecked our research plans. The extent of the problem is indicated by the fact that from 1997-2000 there were seven separate statutory measures and government requirements, each of which directly affected the teaching of history in primary schools and related initial teacher training provision. A key factor in affecting the research programme was the introduction of the National Literacy and Numeracy strategies and the January 1998 government suspension of the requirement for schools to teach in detail the non-core foundation subjects of the National Curriculum, including history. The years 1998 to 2000 also saw the proliferation of non-statutory advice from the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) that shapes and implements English government educational policy in schools. For primary History the QCA produced detailed teaching guidance, its Schemes of Work. These impacted upon our research because of the constraints they imposed upon ITT students because many schools implemented them as a prescribed way of teaching the national curriculum to meet OFSTED imperatives (Bracey, 2001).

These measures meant in effect that from January 13th 1998 to August 31st 2000 the students within the 1997 – 1998, 1998 – 1999, and 1999 – 2000 cohorts did not have to follow the national curriculum history programmes of study. This affected students in the fourth set of case studies; all seven faced a drastic reduction in the amount of history on their timetables.

Accordingly the research methodology had to reflect and adapt to the rapidly changing and disruptive set of factors that affected the research programme.

The Research Methodology

The research plan

We initially decided that the students were to be divided into two sets, one with history degrees, the second without. Both sets were to be compared to a control set whose members did not experience the history teaching *Intervention Strategy*. However, the rapid and radical changes in government policy see above, and its impact on schools made the plan impossible to implement. A comparative approach of history graduates with other graduates gave way to a comparison of any graduates who were both doing the course *and* teaching history. This radically affected the nature of the original research design, resulting in a set of 18 case studies.

Research methods: The archive of evidence

The research focused upon collecting for subsequent analysis an archive of evidence about:

- students' beliefs and attitudes on beginning their ITT course,
- their responses to the *Intervention Strategy*,
- observations of the teaching of a sample cross-section, with
- follow up interviews to investigate what the main influences on their teaching had been,

- the relationship of their knowledge bases to their teaching style and performance, and
- any changes in beliefs, values and attitudes during the course.

The archive included opinions, beliefs, reflections on experience, the students' own internal interpretation of history in the form of the historical sources and resources used and reflected upon during both coursework and teaching practice, and external judgements of the students, based on observations of their teaching. There was a strong link between the literature review underpinning this paper and its methodology because it was through a review of the literature that the criteria were identified for interpreting the data. The archive consisted of evidence drawn from the eighteen case studies, see page 75.

Case study

The archive was the basis for the writing of individual case-studies on the eighteen students. The notion of *case study* informed and shaped the research programme. It underpinned and defined the uniqueness, particularity and individuality of each participating student and sets each in a context bounded by the nature of the course, the extant chronological conditions of the training institution, the various placement schools, the taught curriculum, and the details of the institutional objectives of teacher training. Adelman, Kemmis and Jenkins (1976) saw case study data as 'strong in reality' but difficult to organize, down-to-earth and attention-holding, in harmony with the reader's own experience, and providing a 'natural' basis for generalisation. The comment about difficulty of organisation finds resonance in the current set of case studies as they involved multi-site work in a number of schools, and were underpinned by efforts to co-ordinate observations of students' history teaching with other timetable demands. The reader would be able to employ the ordinary processes of judgement by which people tacitly understand life and social actions around them. Case study allows generalisation either about a single or a set of cases. The peculiar strength of case study research lies in its attention to the subtlety and complexity of each case in its own right. It recognises the complexity and 'embeddedness' of social truths. By attending to social situations, case studies can represent a range of viewpoints held by participants, even if there is conflict or discrepancy within or between them.

Case studies can produce alternative interpretations to the norm and may cumulatively constitute a sufficient body of information to challenge accepted opinions. Case studies are 'a step to action' beginning in a world of action and contributing to it, their insights available for staff or individual self-development, for within-institutional feedback, for formative evaluation, and for educational policy-making. Case studies present research data in a more publicly accessible form than other kinds of research report. The case study is capable of serving multiple audiences. It moves away from reliance upon unstated implicit assumptions (necessarily underlying all types of research) and makes the research process itself accessible. Case studies, therefore, contribute towards the 'democratisation' of decision-making (and of knowledge itself), and, at its best, case study allows readers to judge the implications of a study for themselves (Adelman *et al.*, 1976).

Golby (1994) offers a different view to that of Adelman *et al.* in that he suggests that although the ordinary processes of judgement by which people tacitly understand life and social actions around them can be used to understand a case study, 'case study suggests an academic approach to practical problems can be of real, practical significance' (p. 16). For Golby 'case study refers only to the determination to relate a single phenomenon to the collective understanding by means of systematic study' (p.

15). According to Golby (p. 14) 'the hypothesis is a judgement concerning the nature of a case. It must also be a judgement capable of being tested by investigation'.

The value of case study research in this context was in its ability to examine a set of key professional issues in real-life settings and the facility it provides for the illumination of student teachers' self-perceptions and professional development. The case studies focused on what is behind the person and that person's teaching rather than on the teaching or output. Shaw (1996) summarises how this kind of research can impact on institutions:

They need to try to get inside the shared reality of the institution. To do this requires interpretation, which in turn depends initially upon awareness of qualities in situations and performances. (p. 319)

These two elements of analysis, 'the art of appreciation' and 'the ability to make fine-grained discriminations amongst complex and subtle qualities' apply to the case studies under consideration, and there is a need for discrimination in interpreting how in the minds of the trainee students the requirements of national curriculum history are translated into action.

This research is about recording and analysing the voices of postgraduate students who have both taught and been taught during their one-year course. These voices are captured in the context of a bricolage of case studies over a period from 1995 to 2000 (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, wrote of the researcher as *bricoleur*).

Sources of evidence

The sources of evidence upon which the case studies were based were:

- pre-course questionnaire;
- data collection in schools, 2000;
- post-teaching practice data collection: interviews;
- post-teaching practice data collection: questionnaires;
- student's written records and reports.

The pre-course questionnaire was completed in the first session of the *Intervention Strategy*. The principle behind the questionnaire was to use it as a pre-test and as a basis for a post-test, to identify continuity or change in the relationship between orientation, previous experience and practice. The questions gave students the opportunity to state or to reflect on:

- their definitions of history;
- their qualifications in history; and/or when they gave it up;
- the methods by which they were taught history;
- what history they had found interesting (or not) at school;
- a typical history lesson during their own school days;
- how they think history should be taught in primary schools;
- a range of teaching qualities possessed by their own teachers;
- the learning of facts and dates;
- a range of teaching strategies and resources;
- the role of content and story-telling;
- the place of skills development;
- the importance of a range of concepts;
- the relationship between concept-development and subject knowledge in and teacher and pupil;

- the overall importance of subject knowledge in relation to pedagogic skills.

Data Collection in schools, 2000 Data collection for the seven 2000/01 set four students during teaching practice supervision was severely disrupted by RG's viral illness for six weeks in the summer of 2000. Despite this, RG managed to observe Denise [student 4a] teach one history lesson (Britain since 1930: the Blitz and evacuation) early in her practice, and observed Jessica [student 4f] teach history (Victorians: Victorian school day) during her middle teaching practice. RG observed Ted [4g] teach a Maths and an English lesson in a previous teaching practice. Mark [4d] had been teaching in the same school as Jessica when we had been supervising her. Thus we had surveyed four out of the eight students during their teaching practices.

Post-teaching practice data collection: interviews The post-course views of students, i.e. either just after or towards the end of their final teaching practices, were investigated either by direct interview or by postal questionnaire. RG interviewed all of the students in the first set of case studies, and both students in the third set (Richard and Jane). The second case study, conducted in July 1997, consists almost exclusively of the analysis of an extended interview of a student who had left the previous summer, though reference is made to James's pre-course questionnaire. However, because of a long viral illness in the summer of 2000, only one of the last set of case study students Denise [4a] was interviewed face-to-face, and all of the rest completed questionnaires that were posted to them and returned to the College. The questionnaires were twofold, a general questionnaire, encouraging reflection about knowledge bases used during the teaching experience, and a specific one that cross-referred to the pre-course questionnaire.

Post-teaching practice data collection: questionnaires The questionnaire overlapped with the pre-course questionnaire that was used as a basis for the interview. The postal questionnaire aimed to identify the students' knowledge bases used in the preparation and teaching of history. The questions focused on:

- identify history taught – topics and time spent;
- previous knowledge;
- preparation completed;
- how the teaching was organised and introduced; plan or scheme if any;
- what was taught and the structure/scaffolding/context/background given;
- what the children did;
- examples of aspects of the study unit for which further explanation was given;
- whether any questions were asked of the children;
- whether any enquiries were conducted by the children;
- in questioning or enquiries whether any sources were from the period being studied (i.e. contemporary materials); identification of these;
- whether the children were provided with any books or photocopies of books (or parts of books) written by historians; (identification of whether these works were written for adult or child readers, naming the reference);
- whether the children were asked any questions related to the key concepts: causes and consequences; change and continuity; similarity and difference; specification of some examples;
- how the children were asked to address these concepts;
- whether there was a relationship between the teacher's ability to provide the historical background and the pupil's ability to answer questions relating to the key concepts (especially causes and consequences); request for exemplification;

- exemplification of pedagogic knowledge (knowledge of skills of teaching) bases:
- techniques, strategies; activities; classroom awareness; what knowledge about teaching was necessary in order to be able to teach this history.

The postal questionnaires, occasional observations (i.e. not of all the case study students' teaching) and subsequent interviews which probed the beliefs, experience and reflections of the students in the current study examine Kyriacou's features of effective teaching points (Kyriacou, 1997, p. 120). Some but not all of the aspects of Farmer and Knight's (1995) and Fines and Nichol's (1997) aspects of effective teaching were addressed. Of Falmer and Knight's, points 4, 5 (partly), 6, and 8 were examined:

1. subject understanding (Farmer and Knight 4);
2. key concepts (Farmer and Knight 6);

Data Analysis: Models of Teaching

Two aspects of Askew *et al.*'s research into models of effective mathematics teaching, (see page 6 above) proved seminal for the analysis of research data. They provided a model of the relationship between teachers' knowledge bases and effective teaching and a listing of the most influential and significant features of effective teachers pedagogical content knowledge. This enabled us to create 'models' of history for the analysis of data from the 1997-2000 research programme.

Devising diagrammatic models of student teachers' of history knowledge bases

The analysis and interpretation of the data focuses on the strength and relative dominance of the various influences on the development of the seventeen ITT students' and one newly qualified teacher's knowledge bases. For each this could be plotted at the start of the ITT course and its end. We modified the Askew *et al.* mathematical model for use in the context of pedagogical content knowledge for the teaching of history. The major element in the data drawn from our eighteen case studies was the students' reflections on the factors that influenced their professional development. Key features were:

1. academic substantive subject knowledge of history from school;
2. academic substantive subject knowledge of history from university;
3. academic syntactic knowledge of history;
4. assimilation and adaptation of teaching and learning styles, i.e. connectionist/constructivist, discovery, transmission;
5. curricular knowledge, i.e. national curriculum monitoring, recording, assessment, reporting;
6. history teaching subject knowledge;
7. knowledge of primary history teaching approaches;
8. knowledge of primary teaching approaches;
9. pedagogic knowledge of history from school practice;
10. prior experience of primary schools;
11. student's orientation, beliefs, values, attitudes;
12. student's own views on practice.

The differences between history specialists and those with degrees from other disciplines were logged. Key factors were GCSE and A level history courses and the influence of studying history as undergraduates. In the models the strength of the influence has been reflected in the type of line used.

a dotted line - no influence,
a solid line - some influence,
a thick line - much influence: [the thicker the line the greater the influence].

For each of the individual case studies we produced a separate model that reflected the unique blend of influences that resulted in each student's pedagogical content knowledge.

This analysis was based upon the construction of three representations: Appendix 4 of the factors involved; and of the differences between historian, Appendix 5; and non-historian course members, Appendix 6.

Findings

The research evidence concerning the main research question *How effective is an Intervention Strategy in a one year ITT postgraduate course in influencing the professional development of ITT students as teachers of history?* enabled us to identify changes in student teacher values, attitudes and beliefs, and their orientation during the period of their course from its commencement to the end of their teaching practice. These changes relate to the set of knowledge bases that constitute their pedagogical content knowledge, see Appendix 3. The influences upon them were multiple, varied, complex and of different importance at different times. As such, the *Intervention Strategy* was only a minor element in their total experiences: the findings however help us to tease out, no matter how tentatively, its influences upon their professional development. The findings fall into two categories: overall patterns and trends and individual case studies. For this paper we have concentrated upon two contrasting case-studies, Mark's and Jessica's, from the seven cases studies that resulted from the 1999-2000 cohort, set 4, of students. Mark and Jessica had contrasting academic backgrounds: Mark had a science degree, biology, while Jessica had studied history and archaeology.

Overall findings

The eighteen case studies indicated that the taught ITT course at St. Mark and St. John, including the history teaching *Intervention Strategy*, and associated teaching placements, empowered postgraduate students to identify and reflect upon key factors in their development as effective and, in some cases, expert teachers of primary history. Here they drew upon a range of pedagogical content knowledge bases that they developed during teaching practice – knowledge bases that had been situated, socially constructed and experiential (Lave and Wenger, 1991). There are some significant findings when an attempt is made to establish a link between their (a) initial beliefs about history and (b) initial beliefs about how history should be taught in primary schools and (c) post-experience beliefs and reflections. Below we report findings from the 1999-2000 case study set 4's seven students, including Mark's and Jessica's, as this group experienced the *Intervention Strategy* in its finally developed form.

Pre-course views Significantly, six out of the seven came to the PGCE course with a belief in active and enlivening methods of teaching history. Pre-course, all except Denise [4a] expressed specific belief in the importance of making history come to life. Three out of five of the chosen cohort of non-history graduates had given definitions of history that included elements of the syntactic as well as the substantive. Tamsin [4b] stressed her belief in history being about daily life and about 'objects from daily use'. Denise's [4a] definition was purely substantive ('anything that happened in the distant or recent past'). Her journey during the course was the most dramatic. She proved that she could operate almost as an expert history teacher with a balanced

and appropriately disciplined range of knowledge bases supported by imaginative role-play and the use of discussion. Christine's [4c] definition was substantive but present-oriented. Her insight into history as a discipline had deepened as a result of the *Intervention Strategy*. Typical of a number of English graduates, she understood before the course really started that history should give children the 'feel' of a period, and her teaching, observed by OFSTED, included questioning and letting the children investigate. Mark's [4d] definition showed that he understood that history was not only what had happened but also included how it had been recorded and who did the recording and how. His post-course questionnaire revealed his developing insights into history as interpretation. His strong belief in teaching about 'normal' people rather than just 'important' ones is confirmed in his teaching experience and post-course reflections. Donna's [4e] definition also presented a balance of syntactic and substantive subject knowledge ('history is finding out about things and people that happened in the past'). She subsequently wanted to add that it should be related to the present day and taught in chronological order. Both Mark and Donna came from Science backgrounds.

Post-teaching practice views Both of the history graduates in case studies set 4 already believed in using creative methods. Jessica [4f] was convinced of the importance of cross-curricular work. The course had given Jessica additional insight into the importance of developing historical skills though planned objectives (using here her own words). Her original definition of history was almost purely syntactic: 'exploration of documented evidence of our past ...'. Post-course, she saw activities as ways for children 'to present and consolidate their knowledge'. On teaching primary history in general she had moved from a blanket scattergun vivid teaching approach to a focused view that:

Children should feel that history is 'real' and 'exciting'. This can be achieved best through deductions made from artefacts and quality primary sources. (Jessica, 4f, 2000)

On substantive history subject knowledge Jane's thinking coincided with Rogers' (1979) views on contextual frames of reference: 'children should not learn a lesson in isolation – it should be taught after a child has been given an overview'. Her pedagogy had been refined through the course.

Ted [4g] is an unusual case for a history graduate. He had for his BA dissertation completed a local history study on the Arkwrights of Derbyshire and related it to working class industrial history. Pre-course, he was well aware of both the substantive and syntactic elements of history. However, he seemed to see primary history as a totally different animal. He seemed to be concerned, quite legitimately for his two tough inner-city placements, mainly with interesting the children and maintaining his own credibility. His definition of history stresses personal identity and a kind of cumulative view of the past rolling up to the present. The course and his own instincts evidently helped him develop an effective 'survival' pedagogy in his relationships with children, but has not convinced him that he could use his expertise to introduce a wider range of contemporary sources. His methods however included questioning and discussion on some significant issues about key personalities and events. Yet even here we see a student shaping pedagogy through his classroom practice drawing upon his overall ITT programme and the specific, focused contribution that the *Intervention Strategy* made.

A similar pattern from the statistical data emerges across all seven of the set 4 case studies, 1999-2000. The greatest changes in the whole set were in the realisation of the importance of the use of a range of teaching strategies and of a range of

resources. On the negative side were the beliefs that neither contemporary (i.e. current/now) references nor subject knowledge seemed as important as they had originally thought. The greatest convergence between original and subsequent beliefs was related to imagination (not included in case studies set 1 questionnaires) and the ability to organise and motivate sets for discussion/role-play/drama and creative work reflecting in detail the *Intervention Strategy*. Least change in the whole set between pre- and post-course positions were in (a) understanding of the methodology of the subject and (b) enthusiasm. Understanding of methodology had been almost universally dismissed as unimportant whereas, by contrast, enthusiasm had been unanimously highly rated. The reaction to the methodology question is puzzling: we can only explain it through its meaning not being clear and it being regarded as an abstract academic concept unrelated to teaching.

In the set 4 case studies the greatest change in non-graduates was in their rating of the use of contemporary (i.e. current/now) references, which was downgraded, but by a greater rate than any other knowledge base-related quality (minus 12). Significantly, the next quality up on this scale was subject (substantive) knowledge at minus 10. On the positive side, the greatest changes in belief were for the use of a range of resources and a range of teaching strategies (both up by plus 8). Least changed were belief about imagination, ability to organise and motivate sets for discussion/role-play/drama/creative work and ability to listen.

The history graduates in case studies set 4 experienced the greatest changes in favour of the use of a range of teaching strategies (plus 4 for set), and in personality (plus 4 for set). Changes in beliefs that worked against qualities were related to ability to listen (minus 8), the use of contemporary sources (minus 6), self-confidence (minus 4), and ability to simplify (minus 4). Least change, in fact no change, was identified in four areas: use of a range of resources, enthusiasm, sense of humour/fun/natural enjoyment of the subject, and imagination. The greatest differences in the range of change between historians and non-historians (from pre-course to post-course) in set 4 was in their estimation of ability to listen, subject knowledge, use of a range of resources, ability to tell a story/set a situation in context, and charisma. The greatest similarity in the range of change was, in order, ability to ask searching questions, imagination, and self-confidence.

The questionnaire and other research data suggest a highly complex process that is multi-faceted in the professional development of the students. There is a correlation between the views, attitudes and beliefs that the students brought with them to the ITT course and the congruence between these views, those that underpinned the history teaching *Intervention Strategy* and the students' professional development within their teaching practice schools.

Illuminative Case Studies, Mark, 4d and Jessica, 4e

Two contrasting case studies from set 4, Mark's and Jessica's, illuminate the formative influences that affected the professional development as teachers of history.

Introductory comments The illuminative case studies of Mark and Jessica help us tease out the possible influences that affected their professional development. We chose them because their teaching practice occurred in the same school and because of the contrasting nature of their academic subject knowledge: Mark was a scientist with a B.Sc in Biological Science while Jessica had read History and Archaeology.

<i>Case studies set 4 Differences between students without and students with history degrees</i>	<i>Without history degrees</i>	<i>With history degrees</i>	<i>Difference</i>
d. ability to listen	+ 1.33	- 8	9.33
a. subject knowledge	- 10	- 2	8
f. use of a range of resources	+ 8	0	8
h. ability to tell a good story/set a situation in context	+ 6	- 2	8
q. charisma	+ 6	- 2	8
b. contemporary (i.e. current/now) references	- 12	- 6	6
c. understanding the methodology of the subject	- 4	+ 2	6
j. ability to simplify	+ 2	- 4	6
k. ability to explain	- 4	+ 2	6
m. willingness to let pupils contribute actively	- 7	- 2	5
g. use of a range of teaching strategies	+ 8	+ 4	4
p sense of humour/fun/natural enjoyment of the subject (cf. is this the same as enthusiasm?)	- 4	0	4
i. enthusiasm	- 2	0	2
n. providing structure in the lesson	- 4	- 2	2
o. personality	+ 2	+ 4	2
e. ability to organise and motivate sets for discussion/role-play/drama/creative work	+ 0.66	+ 2	1.34
r. self-confidence	- 5	- 4	1
s. imagination	- 0.67	0	0.67
l. ability to ask searching questions	+ 2	+ 2	0

Table 1 – Case studies set 4 – comparison of range of change between those without and those with history degrees

Case study 4d Mark, BSc (Hons) Biological Sciences (see Appendix 7)

Initial orientation and beliefs RG helped Mark in his pre-course planning and accordingly as a practitioner researcher had a detailed insight into factors that influenced him. Mark had had previous experience of working with children in his role as a warden at an environmental centre on the South Devon coast. He was responsible for managing the marine conservation area there. He had also been a tutor in a residential field centre in Wales. He had worked with staff in inner London schools planning for visits and had led activities in the field. He had won a fellowship in 1998 which enabled him to participate in a study of land crabs in Tobago. Mark brought to the course a detailed, sophisticated and elaborate understanding of factors involved in teaching children.

Mark's pre-course questionnaire contained a definition of history that showed some awareness of history as a record of the past and of the crucial role played by the viewpoint (or interpretation) of the recorder or author.

What has happened, and been recorded in some form. The recounting of it can vary, dependent on who has recorded it and how.

His ability to reflect on this aspect of history can be seen in his perceptive responses to questions on the Boudicca texts completed as part of the *Intervention Strategy* (see later in this case study). His definition shows syntactic subject awareness through an insight into different interpretations, and into the reliability of so-called primary sources. In the light of his teaching practice experience he did not wish to modify his original definition of history. His post-course thoughts on how history should be taught in primary schools (largely supporting very similar beliefs held before the course) show an orientation towards 'normal' people and social history.

I still believe it must be taught in context, looking at normal people, how they would have been affected by major historical events. This would need to involve role-play, looking at food, music, day-to-day lives etc...'

His own pre-course experience of being taught history at school

Mark's experience of history teaching as indicated in the pre-course questionnaire was predominantly in the transmission mode that Askew *et al.* analysed in detail (1997):

Didactic/formal/traditional/passive learning (chalk and talk): (Secondary, almost all. Some Primary); textbook-based (Secondary, Primary); resource-based (i.e. wider resources than one textbook) (Primary to a degree).

In secondary school history was taught from textbooks, with a lot of copying from the board. There was no fun within the history lesson. He learnt more history in Latin. In primary school he could recall mainly textbooks, but also displays and talks from the archaeologist (or archaeologists) based on a Roman archaeological site which was nearby.

Mark revealed that informal learning outside his history lessons had played a key role in shaping his positive attitudes towards the teaching of history:

Romans – lived near a Roman dig – was active site. Also in Latin we obviously had a great deal of interest in Roman Empire.
First World War – not through history lessons, but through poetry in English – poems were evocative, lots of class discussion.'

Conversely, there was a highly negative reaction to the formal teaching he had experienced. These were the periods/topics that he had found most boring during his own schooldays:

Periods of Kings and Queens. Learnt by rote – dull!

Mark's development and the Intervention Strategy

Mark's response to the *Intervention Strategy* Boudicca exercise throws light on its impact that upon his development as a teacher of history. Mark was given part one of a possible four parts of the story. For each of the 5 sources (Tacitus, Dio, Unstead, Marshall, Wood) he completed a range of tasks. The research data revealed that Mark had developed a sophisticated and critical understanding of both the syntactic and the substantive knowledge bases associated with the Boudicca story that are typical of a history graduate. But he has a science degree. What emerges is that Mark has a coherent and multi-faceted understanding of the inter-relationship of the sources.

Course experience of teaching primary history

In the spring teaching practice term Mark had taught Tudors – Henry VIII and Elizabeth I, a topic which he taught over a 4 week period. In the summer term he had taught local history in which he had focused on Plymouth, the Barbican in Plymouth and on the fishing industry. These two were obviously linked, as the Barbican has Tudor buildings.

He described his previous knowledge of these topics as:

Tudors – a general knowledge.
Barbican – little.

To prepare for teaching them he found resources and decided upon how his pupils could best learn about the subjects. Mark organised his teaching of the Tudors to his year 6 class by following the class teacher's plans and incorporating a range of teaching ideas that reflected his syntactic understanding of the discipline in a teaching context that the *Intervention Strategy* had stressed. As for the Barbican study he introduced the area, looked at changes and events, including current events. The background he gave the children consisted of introducing the Barbican as a central part in Plymouth's development, as a major business, current and past. (Mark's work on this was presented in the form of a PowerPoint presentation he submitted with Ted [case study 4g] as part of the College coursework). He also referred to major events in Plymouth's history. The children went on a field visit to the Barbican. The contemporary sources they studied were census materials, maps and photos. For major events the class looked at textbooks, many of which had been provided by Plymouth Library Services, though the books were mainly for adults.

Mark provided the class with a surrogate second record: he helped the class by explaining how to interpret census information. For questioning, they were asked to find information and facts from the sources (census, maps, and photos). Why would fishing boom in Plymouth? How might fishing change over time? This was supposed to develop into an enquiry in which they had to decide their course of investigation, but this did not work well! Questions related to key second order historical concepts included causes and consequences – over-fishing, and similarity and difference – between now and points in Plymouth's past. To get the children to address these concepts was difficult. Mark found that these year 6 children were good at discussion, but not at written work.

Mark described his own history teaching as being:

Child-centred/informal/active learning; a combination of formal and informal; resource-based (i.e. wider resources than one textbook).

The topic he found most interesting to teach was:

Local history – able to go visit the Barbican and get a hands-on idea. Was more 'real' to the children.

This was the period/topic he found most boring/least interesting to teach:

Tudors – only taught some of the lessons in the unit and so it was disjointed.

How had he originally thought that history should be taught in primary schools?

A context would be good. Looking at how people would have lived – normal

people, not just important ones. Trying to recreate aspects of life. Comparison with present day. Interaction, role-play, dress up. Make it come to life. (From pre-course questionnaire)

Mark implicitly suggests that he is a reconstructionist. Now that he had had some teaching experience how did he think that history should be taught in primary schools?

I still believe it must be taught in context, looking at normal people, how they would have been affected by major historical events. This would need to involve role-play, looking at food, music, day-to-day lives etc...

Changes in orientations and beliefs

Mark's pre- and post-course assessments of the qualities prized in a history teacher were 7 - very important ; 5 – important; 3 – quite important; 1 – not very important.

<i>Mark BSc Biological Science Case study 4d</i>	<i>Pre- course</i>	<i>Post- course</i>	<i>Change</i>
ability to tell a good story/set a situation in context	3	7	+ 4
charisma	3	5	+ 2
personality	3	5	+ 2
use of a range of resources	7	7	0
ability to organise and motivate groups for discussion /role-play/drama/creative work	7	7	0
enthusiasm	7	7	0
imagination	7	7	0
use of a range of teaching strategies	7	7	0
willingness to let pupils contribute actively	7	7	0
providing a structure in the lesson	7	5	- 2
sense of humour/fun/natural enjoyment of the subject	7	5	- 2
(self-) confidence	7	5	- 2
ability to ask searching questions	7	5	- 2
ability to explain	7	5	- 2
ability to listen	7	5	- 2
subject knowledge	7	5	- 2
understanding of the methodology of the subject	3	1	- 2
ability to simplify	7	3	- 4
contemporary (i.e. current/now) references	7	3	- 4

Table 2 – Changes in beliefs about qualities needed by teachers of history in Mark (case study 4d) BSc Biological Science

Overall, there was limited movement in his views. It is perhaps significant that he had upgraded the ability to tell a good story/set a situation in context in the light of experience, and he has not surprisingly perhaps, upgraded charisma and personality. Downgraded are the ability to simplify and (the making of) contemporary (i.e. current now) references. Virtually at the bottom is the core of the syntactic knowledge base, understanding of the methodology of the subject. The other case studies revealed

that this was usual in non-history graduates, perhaps because the meaning of 'methodology' was unclear in relation to teaching. Mark's answers show that he does have a clear understanding of what the nature of history is and how this can be translated into a teaching protocol involving questioning, pupil investigation of sources, discussion and debate.

How important did he think were the teaching and learning of facts and dates in history (e.g. about people (famous or otherwise) and events)?

It depends at what level. The order of events can be important. An over-emphasis on dates will make that the important issue, instead of what happened and the how and why and consequences. (Pre-course comment)

Had there been any situations in which he had used facts and dates for the teaching and learning of history?

Tudors – Henry VIII, Queen Elizabeth I etc ... to put events in sequence.
Local history – learnt about events and then put them in sequence on timeline.

Mark set out both his initial thoughts on the importance of a range of sources/resources and teaching/learning strategies in the context of primary history, and his experiences of using the same during teaching practice. There emerges a sense of a non-specialist struggling with helping children to make sense of some of the sources, possibly handicapped by his own lack of knowledge of the contexts. This applies to the portraits of Elizabeth I and to the census returns.

Pictures

Pre-course questionnaire: 'Will depend on if they are 'real' representations. Will the image inform or mislead?'

During or after teaching practice: 'Used photos of Plymouth – children loved them. Pictures of Queen Elizabeth I – children found it hard to interpret.'

Simulation and role-play

Pre-course questionnaire: 'Again, this could make it real and come to life.'

During or after teaching practice: 'They enjoyed it. Got children to make a Barbican game to play.'

Books

Pre-course questionnaire: 'Fairly important for finding information on own, not so that facts can be regurgitated.'

During or after teaching practice: 'A whole variety of books – fact, fiction, pictures.'

Story-telling

Pre-course questionnaire: 'Is brilliant if done well, but can fact and fiction blur? Might allow easier understanding of how people lived if their lives are followed in a story.'

During or after teaching practice: 'Yes – to set scenes, create mood. Good.'

Documents

Pre-course questionnaire: 'If documents from the time studied, yes.'

During or after teaching practice: 'Census returns, old maps. Children did not like this.'

Site-visits

Pre-course questionnaire: 'If it adds context or additional dimension.'

During or after teaching practice:

'Went to Barbican – children enjoyed and able to place studies in to context.'

In the rest of the questionnaire on objects, museum, archaeology, drama and music

Mark revealed a sharp critical awareness of some factors in the use of these resources or strategies. He was aware of the central importance of historical sources and their limitations in terms of developing pupil understanding. His reflection on the blurring of fact and fiction in the use of story-telling is also significant. What role had he originally thought that telling the story (content) should have in the teaching of history? He commented by questioning whether a story should be told or history discovered.

Does this show a 'discovery' orientation (along the lines suggested in the report by Askew *et al.*, 1997)? Not necessarily, but this answer (with his post-teaching follow-up) does show the level of criticality at which Mark is reflecting. Did he now have anything to say on the subject of telling the story (content) in the light of his teaching experience?

I used 'stories' to set a scene or create a mood, **to generate discussions of fact v fiction and distortion of the truth.** (our emphasis)

This certainly provided further evidence of a growing awareness of syntactic subject knowledge. The stories are being problematised, and used as a basis for discussion. There is a subtle mix of transmission and discovery, and more than a hint of latent connectionism (cf. Askew *et al.*, 1997) rather than of an unreconstructed dominant 'discovery' orientation. His pre-course views on the role of skills development in the teaching of history were not modified by subsequent experience. 'In developing of skills of research, fact-finding etc. Developing ...'

In his pre-course questionnaire he listed change and continuity alongside similarity and difference (two sets of key concepts) as being 'very important', but has not commented subsequently on their use in teaching. Similarly in the original questionnaire he lists a number of concepts as being 'important'. Mark indicated his pre-course beliefs and subsequent use of the following concepts:

Causes and consequences:

Pre-course: 'Very important'

During teaching practice: 'Henry VIII –Tudors. Protestant and Catholicism'.

'Year 6 children quite good at looking 'behind' the events for reasons'.

Power

Pre-course: 'Yes (important)'.

During teaching practice: 'Tudors, Henry VIII – absolute power'.

Justice, Democracy (same answer)

Pre-course: 'Yes (important)'.

During teaching practice: 'Tudors'.

Monarchy

Pre-course: 'No (not important)'.

During teaching practice: 'Tudors'.

Environment

Pre-course: 'Extremely (important)'.

During teaching practice: 'Change in fish catch over time'.

Mark's pre-course comment on the relationship between conceptual development and subject knowledge is reflected in the above:

One can aid the other – subject knowledge can help in developing concepts and vice versa.

That Mark had developed a clear understanding of the central role of *syntactic*

subject teaching knowledge is reflected in his comment:

I think that as a teacher you need to be able to aid children to ask questions and find own answers. Not tell them what you know.

Mark's reply to the questions on the teacher's subject knowledge suggests that by the end of the course he was adopting a constructivist, connectionist stance:

Do you think that the greater the teacher's subject knowledge of history the more likely it is that a pupil will understand/learn? (Yes/no/yes-and-no)?

No (at time of pre-course questionnaire *and* after teaching practice experience). It is in the teaching that can allow pupil to understand.

After his teaching experience he elaborated on this crucial idea:

I would hope that I could facilitate children to learn and ask questions, not just learn what I knew and believed.

He develops the notions of transformation and discovery in contrast to the temptation that faces all teachers – just to expect children to regurgitate their teacher's knowledge or views.

I believe that the teacher must have an understanding of the subject, but being able to facilitate the children's own discovery and teach them how to find out is more important.'

This goes to the heart of the debate over the importance of teachers' knowledge bases. The importance of the teacher's subject knowledge seems glaringly obvious, i.e. if you don't know it you can't teach it, but Mark has recognised the dynamic link **between syntactic knowledge and being able to teach the children to think** and develop a related set of procedures, skills, concepts and study protocols.

Summary of the amalgam of Mark's knowledge bases

The qualities Mark prized most after his teaching practice were:

... ability to organise and motivate groups for discussion /role-play/drama/creative work; ability to tell a good story/set a situation in context; enthusiasm; imagination; use of a range of teaching strategies; use of a range of resources; and willingness to let pupils contribute actively.

These suggest an increasingly sophisticated understanding of the syntactic teaching subject knowledge base. His definition of history

What has happened, and been recorded in some form. The recounting of it can vary dependent on who has recorded it and how,

his ideas on pupil questioning, his views on concepts being appropriate for organising content and vice versa, his use of discussion in relation to fact and fiction in stories, and his perceptive answers to the Boudicca questionnaire are all factors which show that he did not see history merely as information, and confirm that Mark's orientation or amalgam is a mix of the substantive and syntactic. Mark appreciated the wider view given by engagement with the work of scholars in a teacher's preparation (cf. Rogers, 1979; VanSledright, 1996; McAleavy, 2000).

Although the evidence for Mark's actual teaching was limited due to the disruption of RG's research programme, his own evaluations and reflections suggest a mature understanding of the teacher's role (including empirical and cognitive knowledge of learners) and an 'expert' profile in relation to his syntactic and substantive understandings in the amalgam of his knowledge bases.

Influences on Mark's knowledge bases

Mark shows graphically the different complicated factors that influence the development of a teacher. Mark brought to the course a great deal of experience of teaching from working with children and teachers and organising outdoor activities. He had a scientist's ability to observe in detail and was able to transfer his scientific orientation to the domain of history. Historical observations are based on a different kind of record but do nevertheless still depend on the eye of the beholder. There are similarities here with Richard [case study 3a] who also had a science degree which he subsequently used professionally for work in Outdoor Education. Richard was also aware of the theoretical relationship between knowledge and interpretation, though there was little evidence of his implementing it in practice. The dry scepticism which characterises Mark's reflections show a deep commitment to a constructivist approach in which children are given every opportunity to develop their own views and beliefs and not just regurgitate those of the teacher. Mark's history teaching needs to be set within the context of the overall values, beliefs and attitudes he brought to the one year ITT course and the range of experiences he had elsewhere on the course (see Appendix 7). The college's history teaching *Intervention Strategy* included the opportunity to enhance syntactic subject awareness through the Boudicca exercise at which Mark excelled. In the absence of history lesson observations it is difficult to be specific about the link between his reflections, the actual practice and the influences on that practice. Mark tried a number of approaches and found that discussion worked better than writing. He used site visits in conjunction with questioning on change and causation, just as James had [case study 2]. Mark did not need the *Intervention Strategy* to convince him of the value of site visits, but enhanced awareness of local history sources and Tudor history may well have been as a result of the *Intervention Strategy* and even a consequence of his friendship with Ted [case study 4g], the history graduate with whom he worked closely (see Appendix 7).

Case study 4f Jessica, BA (Hons) History/Archaeology (Appendix 8)

Jessica's academic background was radically different to Mark's; she had an 'A' level in History and had taken a History and Archaeology degree. Jessica's case study was based upon:

1. pre-course questionnaire;
2. postal questionnaire (completed towards the end of the final teaching practice);
3. observation of teaching during first longer teaching practice (including session observation notes);
4. post-course questionnaire (with a comparison of post-course with pre-course views);
5. Boudicca study pack coursework questionnaire;
6. Information from final College reference.

Pre-course orientation (values, beliefs and attitudes)

Jessica's definition of history in the pre-course questionnaire was:

Exploration of the documented evidence of our past (as opposed to archaeology – physical evidence).

In this remark Jessica reveals a far more subtle and sophisticated view of the subject than Mark, reflecting debates about the essential differences between history and archaeology.

As Nichol points out:

In terms of perspective, the methodology of academic historians is eclectic, drawing upon a range of related disciplines such as art, sociology, archaeology, anthropology and economics (Nichol, 1998, p. 33).

Jessica's definition coincides partly with a category noted by Virta (2001) in his research in Finland on students' definitions for history. This is history as research, as science focusing on the past events and background and consequences.

During her degree course Jessica had received a best project of the year award for her work that was related to a school project 'Ancient Greek homes'. She had worked in administration with an aerospace company, sometimes having to deal with customer problems, before deciding to train as a teacher. She had also undertaken voluntary work for a Bristol-based trust where she sorted archives into different schools' folders to give local schools easier access.

Her own pre-course experience of being taught history at school

The pre-course questionnaire asked how she would she describe the method by which she was taught history at school? Was there any difference between the way she was taught at primary and secondary? Her response was similar to Mark's: she was taught by teachers using didactic, formal, traditional, passive learning (chalk and talk) methods. At the secondary stage (specifically mentioned) the teaching and learning was textbook-based.

My experience of History in Secondary School was very dry and boring – I hated it and didn't take it at GCSE. Every lesson we would read out sections of a textbook.

The periods/topics in history she found most interesting when she herself was a pupil at school were:

The Pilgrim Fathers and Eric the Red captured my interest at Primary School – but I can't remember why.

The topic she found most boring (when she herself was at school) was:

We had lots of cards belonging to a detective series – we were supposed to find out what had happened to a man found in a bog – it was boring because there was no input by the teacher and we didn't know what we were doing.

What is interesting is that this activity is a central element in the Schools Council History Project, designed to involve pupils with history as a syntactic form of learning (Schools Council History Project, Blyth *et al.*, 1976). As such, the body in the bog activity was a purely syntactic subject exercise in which pupils are supposed to create their own knowledge and understanding with teacher guidance and support. What appears to have been missing from Jessica's teaching was the teaching protocol needed to transform a set of meaningless cards into a rich and rewarding learning experience. She was in fact being taught [?] in an extreme form of the 'Discovery' model, i.e. literally being left to her own devices!

The teacher kept leaving the room to go back into the Humanities staff room that adjoined the classroom – he would appear now and again to restore order – (or try to). He would not know what we were supposed to do with the teaching materials.

This corroborates her earlier comment about the importance of teacher-knowledge, both substantive and syntactic, for providing a framework for study and a structure for learning that builds upon clearly focused questioning.

Jessica was determined to develop a contrasting pedagogy to the one that she had experienced at school. As such, she tacitly, intuitively rejected both the Askew et al.'s transmission and discovery models of teaching. Interestingly, she had not experienced the richness of a positive informal learning of history that Mark had enjoyed.

Teaching practice experience of teaching history

Before her teaching practice Jessica already had a clear orientation towards teaching history grounded in the academic disciplines of history and archaeology and the pedagogical content knowledge she had developed on her ITT course, including the *Intervention Strategy*. The history components of Jessica's teaching practices consisted of:

Spring Term Year 5/6

Victorians – one session per week. Focus on engineers of railways – Stephenson, Brunel. The school attempted to use raw data for children to interpret (e.g. name and other details of their occupations etc) – this was not successful.

Summer Term Year 4

Combined geography/history topic of Dartmoor through the ages supported by series of visits to Dartmoor to see hut circles, menhirs, stone rows, longhouses. Periods covered in detail – Bronze Age, Medieval longhouses, tin mining, clay working.

Her previous knowledge of these topics consisted of:

Spring – Victorians – my degree and A Level in History have never included the Victorians – I knew something of them from reading in preparation for PGCE.

Summer – I knew nothing specifically to do with Dartmoor – but knew about the Bronze Age/ 'Beaker people' and of Medieval Longhouses generally.

What preparation did she need to do before teaching it?

I used the local library for information specific to Dartmoor, e.g. clay working, Bronze Age Man on Dartmoor. My degree was in such detail over such a broad span of time that much of it was a blur – I had to refresh my memory about the dates and basic facts of the Bronze Age for example.

How did she organise her teaching of this topic/study unit? How did she introduce the topic?

The (*school's*) 'plan of work' was very poor – with just headings such as Medieval Longhouses etc... spread over a number of weeks – the intended content/progression were not specified. It was as if they had looked at the topics

covered by last Year 4 teacher and split them up equally across the week's resources – content extremely poor. I introduced the topic by revisiting a large timeline I had created around the classroom.

What did she teach? (What was the structure/scaffolding/context/background she gave the children?)

Spring – Dartmoor. I am sad to admit that by following the school's medium-term plan and moving from one period to another (separated by 100s/1000s of years) rather than planning what should be progressively achieved – my teaching lacked structure apart from taking them in date order. Each lesson followed the lines of 'This is a longhouse', 'This is what you would find in a longhouse', 'What do you think it was made of?' etc... 'Now draw a picture/ make a cut-out model and write a few lines about what you have learned'.

But what had the children done?

See previous answer. I had intended to give the children more access to making authentic models of Bronze Age huts and of using a model to show how tin mines worked – constraints of time made this impossible.

These are some examples of aspects of the study unit for which Jessica had to give/provide further explanation.

Bronze Age – very shallow/general – including 'Beaker People', production of bronze, impounding, farming, detail of how their homes were constructed.
Medieval – limited to the contents of the Longhouse and its appearance.
Tin mining – the process of mining – appearance of blowing house, etc

These were the questions she asked of the children:

'What do you think a Bronze Age hut was made of?'
'Why do you think animals were kept inside a medieval longhouse?'

Were the children asked to conduct any enquiries? If so what?

Unfortunately not – usable resources, e.g. children's books on Dartmoor/ Bronze Age not accessible. ICT/ Internet not used.

In her questioning or in their enquiries did they have to use any sources from the period being studied (i.e. contemporary materials)? If so what? In what form?

For Bronze Age we had photographs (very small) of axe heads that had been loaned from a museum a few years ago (I did not have time to order them). The field gave them an idea of physical size/scale and situation of the hut circles. The menhirs, stone rows, and kistvaens (*Chambers 20th Century Dictionary definition, 1983 – kistvaen: a chest-shaped burial-chamber made of flat stones*) led to children thinking what they might signify and why they had been created. Victorians – slates borrowed etc.... The school had some domestic artefacts e.g. scrubbing board, beater etc.

Did she provide the children with any books or photocopies of books (or parts of books) written by historians? Although she was asked to specify if these works were written for adult or child readers, and name the reference, she avoided this.

I compiled large A3 cards (1 per table – double sided), full of pictures taken from various secondary sources – e.g. pictures of models wearing Bronze Age clothes, artist impressions of settlements etc.

Victorians – children carried out an investigation of Victorian philanthropists using secondary sources and the Internet.

She seems to be describing a situation where she had been ‘encultured’ into the dominant pedagogic practices of the schools based on a transmission style with a dominantly substantive view of history. In each practice Jessica gives the impression of being an able specialist with her own sophisticated model of teaching that is at variance with that of the schools. She accommodates to this situation through seeking to supplement, develop and incorporate the school’s own planning, resources and approaches. RG’s notes upon her teaching of a lesson corroborates this judgment:

I observed Jessica teach a history lesson (Victorian school day role-play) when she had been on her first longer teaching practice. Empathetic involvement of the pupils involving role-play and contemporary sources was a central feature. She had used slates and pens for handwriting practice, and had taken the children through a drill session on the playground.

In terms of the conceptual awareness that her teaching developed Jessica was aware of both her goals and the influence that her teaching may have had. Her post-course questionnaire revealed:

Were the children asked any questions related to the key concepts?

causes and consequences	yes;
change and continuity	to a lesser extent;
similarity and difference	yes.

Supporting evidence related to both teaching about the Victorians and the Dartmoor study:

Spring – Victorians – causes and consequences – causes of railway revolution – consequences children asked to think about ‘fors’ and ‘againsts’ – what would contemporary people have felt about losing their land or their loved ones building the railways.

Summer – Dartmoor – e.g. the similarities and differences between Bronze Age homes and lifestyles and our own.

How did she get the children to address these concepts?

Victorians – cause and consequence: the children were asked to write newspaper articles expressing the viewpoints, e.g. that of the railway workers, people losing land. For the change and continuity since Bronze Age we brainstormed collectively on the board.

Jessica reveals a sophisticated approach to teaching and learning that links the substantive content of the English National Curriculum to its syntactic requirements, the second order concepts of chronology, historical interpretations, causation and continuity. RG asked her:

‘Did she think that there was a relationship between the teacher’s ability to provide the historical background and the pupil’s ability to answer questions

relating to the key concepts (especially causes and consequences)?'

Jessica: '... children need a firm foundation of knowledge in order to make considered judgements rather than guesses, based on facts that they have learned. I found my background knowledge lacking in both the Victorians and Dartmoor and had to read a number of secondary sources before feeling confident to teach.

'I believe that a teacher's background knowledge will enable him/her to ask pertinent questions which will guide and help them to draw realistic conclusions from the evidence available'.

Jessica was aware of the symbiotic relationship between the substantive and syntactic: indeed, that good practice depended upon the dynamic tension between them. Her detailed explanation specifically related subject content knowledge to a teaching approach grounded in developing second order conceptual understanding. This is significant evidence that corroborates the findings of Grossman, Wilson and Shulman (1989) and McNamara (1991) about the link between specialist knowledge and the ability to foster deeper enquiries in pupils. It also reflects Oakeshott's thinking (1965) about the importance of the development of judgement.

These are the examples provided by Jessica of her pedagogic knowledge bases (knowledge about teaching):

(I feel quite weak in this area – in fact in teaching history itself.) These are guesses. Techniques, strategies, ideas for activities: Victorians – I knew that children would be able to gain a better sense of life at school through role-play – hence the Victorian school day.

Awareness of what was going on: Unable to answer.

Her comments on what she needed to know about teaching show an emergent constructivist style of teaching:

I knew that children would be more likely to learn from 3D models and practical activities such as making a Bronze Age hut. I knew that they needed a 'skeleton' or overview on which to hang the facts they were learning and to make some sense of the number of years between each period (very difficult for 9 year olds). I knew to elicit their existing knowledge/common sense first before introducing new knowledge.

Reflections on her own teaching of history

In the light of her teaching practice experience Jessica did not wish to modify her original definition of history. She identified these methods to describe the way she had been teaching history during teaching practice:

a combination of formal and informal and resource-based (i.e. wider resources than one textbook).

The period/topic she found most interesting to teach was:

I preferred teaching about the Bronze Age/Medieval period on Dartmoor as I was learning at the same time – I feel a bit tired of the Victorians. Furthermore there was more scope to carry out practical work, building models, drama etc.

Her experience and interest coincided with her degree subject orientation (archaeology). She probably had a great deal of 'fingertip' residual knowledge which she could draw upon (Counsell, 2000).

Her comments on the period/topic she found most boring/least interesting to teach were:

There is a lot more detailed information about the Victorians – which tends to lend itself to be a very 'paper-based' experience where you are stuck on the same area for a long time.

Asked, 'Is there any relationship between the way you were taught history at school and the way you have been teaching history?' she answered:

I would think so – other than that I make sure that history lessons are not boring and dull.

How did she originally (i.e. pre-course) think history that should be taught in primary schools?

It should be taught in a vivid way, so that it doesn't appear to be a dry, redundant subject, e.g. through Drama, Art, Music etc.

What was her view of the same issue now that she had had some teaching experience? Her answers show both thoroughness and considerable insight into curriculum and subject-related issues:

Planning: I think that rather than focussing entirely on the content – the skills (to be built upon progressively) should be planned in a logical manner. Teachers appear to be using the topic name in planning rather than the learning objectives.

Teaching: Children should feel that history is 'real' and 'exciting'. This can be achieved best through deductions made from artefacts and quality primary sources.

Activity: Activities should allow children to present and consolidate their knowledge in a variety of ways: model making; drama/role-play; art; creative writing etc.

Overview: Children should not learn a lesson in isolation – it should be taught after a child has been given an overview.

Some of these remarks are also a critique along the lines of Knight's research into primary history teaching where an objectives-led model was alien to many teachers, hence Jessica's comment:

Teachers appear to be using the topic name in planning rather than the learning objectives.

The use of an overview has resonance with Rogers's (1979) thinking on the provision of a contextual frame of reference, and with Lee's views on frameworks (1991).

Changes in Jessica's orientation

The qualities possessed by the teachers at her own school/schools, etc., who in her opinion taught history well were identified in the pre-course questionnaire as these:

subject knowledge; ability to listen; ability to organise and motivate groups for discussion/role-play/drama/creative work; use a range of resources; use of a range of teaching strategies; ability to tell a good story/set a situation in context; enthusiasm; willingness to let pupils contribute actively; providing a structure in the lesson; personality; sense of humour/fun/natural enjoyment of the subject; charisma; imagination.

The qualities that Jessica did not choose in her original questionnaire were:

contemporary (i.e. current/now) references; understanding the methodology of the subject, ability to simplify; ability to explain; ability to ask searching questions; (self-) confidence.

In a sense this was a hypothetical exercise as she wrote, to support her former statement, 'My teacher was not interested in teaching history'.

Her thoughts on the matter are more easily interpreted if they are tabulated, thus:

Jessica BA History and Archaeology Case study 4f	Pre- course	Post- course	Change
ability to ask searching questions	3	7	+ 4
ability to explain	3	7	+ 4
(self-) confidence	3	5	+ 2
ability to organise and motivate groups for discussion /role-play/drama/creative work	7	7	0
ability to tell a good story/set a situation in context	7	7	0
enthusiasm	7	7	0
imagination	7	7	0
personality	7	7	0
providing a structure in the lesson	7	7	0
sense of humour/fun/natural enjoyment of the subject	7	7	0
subject knowledge	7	7	0
use a range of teaching strategies	7	7	0
use of a range of resources	7	7	0
willingness to let pupils contribute actively	7	7	0
contemporary (i.e. current/now) references	3	3	0
understanding of the methodology of the subject	3	3	0
Charisma	7	5	- 2
ability to simplify	3	1	- 2
ability to listen	7	3	- 4

Table 3 – changes in beliefs about qualities needed in teachers of history – Jessica, history specialist, case study 4f

Jessica's pre- and post-course assessments of the qualities prized in a history teacher were 7 - very important ; 5 – important; 3 – quite important; 1 – not very important. There had been a significant shift in attitudes and beliefs towards a closer relationship between her view of the discipline and how it should be taught. After

teaching practice she recognises the ability to ask searching questions and to be able to explain. Surprisingly her answer to the methodological question does not value subject methodology highly. But, its influence as with Mark seems to be indirect through its assimilation into her approach to the teaching of the subject. Her answer to the question of learning facts and dates indicates that she has assimilated a constructivist approach to historical learning in direct contrast to a transmission model.

How important did she originally think was the teaching and learning of facts and dates in history (e.g. about people (famous or otherwise) and events)?

Emphasis on facts and dates is not a basis for teaching history in my opinion. Genuine interest and curiosity should be the starting point – facts and dates should not be the outcome focused upon – although they are a useful tool to order events.

She is a subscriber to the Macaulay view of facts as the 'mere dross' of history (1828). Had there been any situations in which she had used facts and dates for the teaching and learning of history? She was asked to give the context(s)/study unit:

The topic of Dartmoor – the use of dates to put the different periods into order (not very useful to a child who cannot appreciate 20,000 years, being only nine). Names of the Victorian philanthropists, population sizes, dates marking new inventions and advances in technology.

Jessica's pre-course and post-teaching practice comments on a range of sources/resources and strategies in the teaching and learning of history in primary schools reflects her development of a constructivist stance grounded in her understanding of the nature of the academic disciplines of history and archaeology.

Pictures

(pre-course) Children's own visual images made through g) (story-telling), will be much more powerful – but pictures are vital too in learning about the past.

(post-course) The pictures from books of the Victorian period were vital in giving children an idea of what you were talking about. Pictures hold a lot of information – I used this for the less able children.

Objects/artefacts

(pre-course) Allows children to discover the past through very stimulating and 'real' material.

(post-course) Scarce in both schools – great if you have them.

Archaeology

(pre-course) Allows children to discover the past through very stimulating and 'real' material.

(post-course) Again the pictures are informative – good for developing information collection. I also used visualisation for the Bronze age – I talked them through what they could see.

Simulation and Role-play: gaming (games)

(pre-course) Gets the children to live the experience – therefore brings it alive.

(post-course) The children were stimulated by the Victorian school day – I think its strength is that it requires children to think how their Victorian counterparts would have felt.

Books

(pre-course) Not important.

(post-course) (e.g. reference or textbooks with pictures) Again, the pictures are informative – good for developing information collection.

Drama

(pre-course) Gets the children to live the experience – therefore brings it alive.
(post-course) See Simulation and role-play.

Documents

(pre-course) Used within a structured fashion they are important in giving children an understanding of how we learn about historical events.
(post-course) Very satisfying for children to be able to detect information – good for skills of deduction.

Site Visits

(pre-course) No comment
(post-course) Dartmoor was excellent in its Bronze Age remains – children could tell how big the huts were by sitting inside them.

Both the post-course responses and the original answers show the confidence and insight of an academic specialist who has assimilated a set of teaching ideas and approaches both through her general college course and the history teaching *Intervention Strategy*. Jessica made no comment on story-telling either pre- or post-course, except her comment on 'telling the story (content)' below. The following set of sources/resources or strategies were not used during her teaching practices; therefore only her pre-course questionnaire comments are given:

Museums: You can benefit from staff with excellent subject knowledge.
Music and Dance: Gets children to live the experience – therefore brings it alive.

What role should telling the story (content) have in the teaching of history (pre-course comment)?

Content is important but just saying what happened is not a stimulating approach to history.

Did she now have anything further to say on telling the story (content) in the light of her teaching experience?

I did not use story-telling – but I believe that texts set in the period may give children a flavour of what the period was like, even if they are not completely accurate – I feel a bit wary of using them. I still agree with the first statement.

Here she acknowledges her specialist's scepticism of historical fiction, but is prepared to try it for the sake of what Donna [case study 4e] described as 'getting the feel' of a period.

What was her pre-course view of the role that skills development should have in the teaching of history?

All subjects of the curriculum develop skills – and history is an important part of that.

By the end of her Initial Teacher Training taught course, including the history course's *Intervention Strategy* and her teaching practice Jessica had an enhanced view of the role of history teaching could play in the development of pupil syntactic understanding: skills and second order concepts related to the evidential base of the subject.

I now have a more specific view – that there are particular skills to be developed

through history for history, e.g. interpretation, use of primary resources, appreciation of bias, appreciation of advantages and disadvantages of different sources.

Jane had refined, developed and extended her initial pre-ITT beliefs about first order concepts, and her subsequent experience and practice when using them in teaching:

Conflict and consensus – historical evidence (especially written) is not objective – the same event can be seen in many different ways.

Racial equality – Very important – relevant to today – how prejudice can result in cruelty which is unacceptable today.

By the end of the course she commented fully about the application of second order concepts in the teaching of specific historical situations. She had applied her academic insight into chronology, the nature of historical evidence, viewpoints and interpretations, and pupil use of contemporary sources as the basis for her teaching programme.

Similarity and difference – important to compare how life now is different to particular periods. Summer term – Dartmoor – e.g. the similarities and differences between Bronze Age homes and lifestyles and our own.

Causes and consequences: Spring – Victorians – causes and consequences – causes of railway revolution – consequences children asked to think about ‘fors’ and ‘againsts’ – what would contemporary people have felt about losing their land or their loved ones building the railways (newspaper articles expressing the viewpoints e.g. that of the railway workers, people losing land).

Change and continuity: change and continuity since Bronze Age: we brainstormed collectively on the board.

After her final teaching practice she commented on the relationship between pupils’ conceptual development, subject knowledge and progression:

Pupil: children need to have some conceptual knowledge in order to make sense of the information – good practice will involve a careful progressive combination of both.

In terms of teachers’ substantive and syntactic subject understanding she was asked:

Did she (originally) think that the greater the teacher's substantive subject knowledge of history the more likely it was that a pupil would understand/learn?

No. Unless you are able to select the relevant knowledge and apply it in a stimulating fashion you will not capture children’s interest.

Accordingly, after teaching practice she did not have any new or different views on the relationship between the teacher’s subject knowledge and the pupils’ learning.

What other factors had she identified in the pre-course questionnaire which were as important as or more important than subject knowledge in the teaching of history?

Enthusiasm, ability to set the scene, capture the imagination.

Jessica's teaching of the Victorian School Day incorporated the effective use of role-play to develop an imaginative, affective historical reconstruction. She taught with an infectious enthusiasm grounded in her own beliefs about history and her attitude towards its teaching. Jessica argued that subject knowledge, or substantive knowledge, is necessary as a pre-requisite for 'setting the scene', though Jessica implies, with G.M.Trevelyan, John Tosh, and Richard Evans (and of course David Starkey, Tristram Hunt, Simon Schama, Richard Holmes, Michael Wood and that whole community of television historians) that the effective communication of interest in history needs presentational qualities that go beyond mere subject knowledge. What she has focused on are the dynamic links between the substantive and syntactic academic subject knowledge bases and pedagogical content knowledge.

Summary of the amalgam of Jessica's knowledge bases (and reference to questionnaire on Boudicca texts)

As a specialist Jessica has confidence in her substantive and syntactic subject knowledge bases, and her answers to the Boudicca questionnaire show that she is well able to engage with, compare and contrast, and indeed study, texts at a deep and reflective level.

Some of her pre-College work was related to cataloguing local history sources, and her orientation as a joint honours graduate in the fields of History and Archaeology had raised her awareness of the potential of texts and artefacts. However, the role of sources in relation to the teaching context is reflected in the stress that she puts upon the importance of pictorial sources. The development of a sophisticated subject teaching pedagogy is reflected in her effective incorporation of role-play into her teaching of Victorians with her teaching of a Victorian lesson using contemporary resources including ink pens, slates and other supporting sources. She had even dressed up in Victorian costume in the role of a Victorian schoolmistress and taken 'drill' on the playground. She used discussion and debate in the Victorian topic in the context of land issues and the expansion of the railways. This involved the transformation of complex substantive knowledge into a form accessible to pupils, reflecting the Nuffield Primary History project's principles, see page 13.

The question of transferability of both her meta-cognitive syntactic academic understanding and the development of academic substantive expertise relates to her teaching of the Victorians. Her teaching about the Bronze Age was grounded in the academic knowledge and understanding that she had as an archaeologist. What attracted her was the potential of the Bronze Age topic for practical activities. The same link between syntactic subject understanding and classroom activities involving children in the reconstruction of a past historical situation is reflected in her teaching of the Victorians. But, in both cases, the teaching and learning was grounded in the academic record. This is reflected upon her class teacher's report:

Jessica has proved herself to be motivated and enthusiastic throughout her practice. Her planning is thoughtful and detailed with realistic objectives. She has a good relationship with the children, controls the class well and handles problems with sensitivity. The children have shown clear progress during her stay. She listens to advice and acts upon it, benefiting from support systems.
(Dated 3rd July 2000, written by school host tutor)

In Jessica's case there was a more sophisticated understanding of the role of syntactic subject and substantive knowledge matched by a practical ability and

realism in her other pedagogic knowledge bases, see Appendix 3. Her profile is that of a developing expert teacher of history.

Influences on Jessica's knowledge bases

As with Mark, her development as a teacher of history reflects a complicated number of influences. The four main ones appear to be her reading of history and archaeology as an undergraduate, her previous work experience (both paid and voluntary), the overall ITT course and the *Intervention Strategy* and her experience of teaching two different history topics, the Victorians and the Bronze Age, in two primary schools. There is evidence of greater clarity in her thinking on contextualised skills and concepts and therefore on the relationship between the academic substantive and syntactic subject knowledge bases. This articulation of professional subject-related knowledge is grounded in the relationship between her ITT course and the pedagogical content knowledge bases it developed and their application in the teaching practice context. Her orientation towards archaeology is understandably very strong, but nevertheless there is a confidence in her reflections on the teaching of primary history that comes from a familiarity with the twin disciplines.

The history teaching *Intervention Strategy* probably meant more to her as a specialist as it mapped on to a sophisticated view of history both as a discipline and how such disciplinary understanding should underpin effective pedagogy. Accordingly, Jessica was able to transfer her existing academic syntactic subject understanding and, within the context of archaeology, substantive knowledge into her history pedagogy. Her criticism of her first teaching practice school's policy of asking pupils to gather 'raw data' on famous Victorians without any clearly teaching focus is perhaps significant, reflecting the impoverished folk pedagogy of teachers with impoverished syntactic, substantive and pedagogical content knowledge vis-à-vis history. She went beyond a transmission model that included an element of discovery in terms of pupil activity to a connectionist model. This involved role-play, discussion and debate that affectively involved the pupils and gave them empathetic insights into real life issues (how lives were affected by the building of railways). Her connectionist orientation is also evidenced by her comment on wishing to build on children's existing knowledge, which implies a degree of interaction and negotiation (see Appendix 8).

Discussion and recommendations

How effective was the Intervention Strategy in a one year ITT postgraduate course in influencing the professional development of ITT students as teachers of history? was the original main research question. The supplementary research questions aimed to illuminate it. We will deal with the supplementary questions first before returning to the key question of the research study.

- a) *Were there any significant differences between history graduates and graduates from other disciplines in the history teaching pedagogy that they developed?*

The eighteen students involved in the case-studies had the following pre-course qualifications:

Science 6	English 4	Psychology 1	History 7	Masters 2
Biology 2	Language and Literary Studies	Psychology	History 3	Library and Information Studies
Geography and Economics	English and Media Studies		History and Sociology 2	Marine Studies

Fishery	Educational Studies and Linguistics		History and Media Studies	
Environmental Studies	English and Psychology		History and Archaeology	
Environmental Studies and Technology				

We can tentatively identify four distinct overlapping foci: History; Science; English; and those with a Psychology element. The level of academic disciplinary insight and sophistication of knowledge, i.e. both the substantive and syntactic, into historical contexts and sources seemed to be a key factor in influencing the nature and form of the students' teaching. Such sophistication also related to non-academic experiences, even life-styles, before embarking upon the one year ITT programme.

The history graduates who had the deepest levels of academic understanding were Laura [1f], Thomas [1g], James [2], Jane [3b], and Jessica [4f]. Laura had a highly developed substantive knowledge of (mainly early) Victorians from her degree course upon which to draw. Thomas, in finding links between Victorians and Dartmoor, developed a rich repertoire of source-based and cross-curricular activities. In his work on Romans and Anglo-Saxons he used Tacitus, Dio, and the text of Beowulf as well as gaming ideas based on the writing skills of the Venerable Bede. James had considerable insights into local history, and had the additional expertise of his librarianship and experience in the book retail trade. Jane had studied the Tudor period for her degree and could draw on 'fingertip' knowledge (Counsell, 2000) of the 16th and 17th centuries both in work on Tudors and in developing children's empathetic awareness of life as a prisoner in Carisbrooke Castle. She could bring an added extra to the study of the Tudors which Richard, despite being classed by OFSTED as a 'star' in his Maths teaching, could not manage in teaching Tudor history. Significantly Jessica showed that she preferred to teach a history topic which focused on her subsidiary subject, archaeology. Her confidence with historical artefacts and with both role-play and discussion was transferred to her teaching of the Victorians.

Susan was a history graduate strongly oriented towards a 'discovery' child-centred model of teaching, see p. 6. Accordingly she failed to draw upon both the syntactic and the pedagogic knowledge bases in her relatively impoverished teaching of Ancient Greece. Ted, another history graduate, was very aware of the affective element when teaching history in an inner city primary school, i.e. the role of enjoyment in motivating the pupils. Making sure that the pupils were actively engaged and entertained seemed to play a stronger part in his pedagogy than getting children to work with contemporary sources, although his ability to initiate and sustain a discussion based on different interpretations was marked. Thomas, another History graduate, was unlucky in one of his schools where Victorians had to be grafted on to work on Dartmoor. He had however been able to use historical sources when working with the children on Romans. Thomas was the only one of the 18 students who had used the Boudicca sources in a similar way to that of the *Intervention Strategy*. Catriona [1a], the Psychology graduate, had used the role-play ideas in her treatment of the Boudicca story and had also drawn on contemporary sources. In all cases the students *adapted teaching strategies* to their particular circumstances while drawing upon their existing syntactic understanding of the nature of history as an academic discipline. They used that expertise to inform how they developed their understanding of their topics and how they taught them. The pedagogical content knowledge was an amalgam of all eleven of the knowledge bases that make up

pedagogical content knowledge, see Appendix 3, but with different emphases and relative difference in importance of individual knowledge bases.

Conversely, the non-history graduates' subject knowledge was relatively impoverished in terms of substantive and syntactic subject knowledge. As such they did not seem to have had as deep a repertoire of teaching activities to draw upon rooted in both the syntactic and substantive understanding of a topic. However, they did draw upon the wider professionalism that both the ITT course and their subject specialisms had given them. Robert [1b] (Biology graduate) and Denise [4a] (English graduate) were able to use a range of well-chosen sources and set them in context. Donna [4e], graduate in Environmental Science and Technology, used her degree knowledge and related vocational expertise in her focus on Victorian public health, water and sewage systems. Two students with science degrees, one a biologist [Mark, 4d] and the other a fisheries scientist [Richard, 3a] understood well the importance of interpretation as part of the syntactic subject knowledge base. Mark did not want his pupils just to reproduce his beliefs. Because of his lack of confidence with the sources he had an unhappy experience when trying to get pupils to do work based on census returns, but his organisation of a visit to the Barbican and consequent discussions seem to have gone well, and this success corresponds with expertise developed during his previous vocational experience. Richard's practice fell short of his beliefs and intentions because he was unable to use as wide a range of sources in his teaching of the Tudors as he had intended.

English graduates (Denise, Tamsin and Christine) drew on their university and College courses for the English academic and pedagogic knowledge in their history teaching. All three seemed willing to use discussion and enquiry-based approaches in their work. Denise and Christine had also used role-play. OFSTED had praised Christine's enquiry approach. Tamsin's insights into Viking motivation and behaviour in war and peace, and especially her delightful and most incisive comment on the link between technology and barbarism, show that she could bring her degree expertise into analysing aspects of national curriculum history. Denise used a novel to help enhance empathetic understanding of evacuation from a child's point of view (Magorian's *Goodnight Mr. Tom*, 1998).

All of the students realised a multifarious range of highly complex and variable influences that impacted upon both their teaching preparation and their teaching. As such, it is difficult to tease out any dominant, even mono-causal influences. But we can argue with reasonable certainty that a combination of deep seated syntactic historical understanding from studying history to degree level and an *Intervention Strategy* that accorded with the values and beliefs they brought to the course was crucial. The *Intervention Strategy* provided teaching strategies, ideas, activities and sophisticated teaching protocols that mirrored and enhanced their orientation towards the teaching of history. We can argue that the syntactic academic knowledge and related substantive understanding of the history graduates meant that their teaching of history mapped more intensely and effectively on to the higher level of Harland and Kinder's typology of effective teaching than the non-history graduates (see Appendix 2).

b) *What knowledge bases [factors] do ITT students need to develop in an effective pedagogy for the teaching of history?*

Highly problematic is the establishment of any relationship between the impact of the one year ITT course and the *Intervention Strategy*, i.e. the history teaching module that it contained, and the history teaching style the students demonstrated on teaching practice. The research mainly monitored the changes in or relationship

between students' original orientations during the course and the style of teaching they developed. The research registered student views on their ITT course and its history teaching *Intervention Strategy*. They bridged and in a number of cases changed values and beliefs about the subject and its teaching. What seems to have particularly influenced the students was training in how to use a range of creative and interactive methods, including role-play, drama, and simulation together with set discussion related to a range of sources (i.e. significant knowledge bases that link syntactic, substantive and pedagogic knowledge). Also important was providing the opportunity for investigating, evaluating and sharing views on the range of sources available for a number of exemplar national curriculum study units. Despite an experiment to drop the role-play (in favour of developing a more sophisticated awareness of sources related to one specific event) with some of the students in the cohort represented by the fourth set of case studies, the use of role-play persisted in some form or other in that set of students (Denise 4a, Tamsin 4b, Jessica 4f, Ted 4g). There is no over-riding evidence that source-awareness was greater in those who did the full Boudicca questionnaire rather than the role-play.

Virtually all of the students [17 out of 18] emerged from their training with an orientation towards history teaching that reflected the connectionist-constructivist model that Askew *et al.* (1997) had identified as being most effective. Some students (e.g. Susan 1g, a history graduate) had a tendency towards a 'discovery' model of teaching. No student had a dominantly transmission style. It was not just graduates of history who could operate at the level of an expert teacher of history adopting a connectionist pedagogy. Three non-graduates, notably Robert [1b], Denise [4a], and Donna [4f], could teach and reflect on their history teaching using a sophisticated mix or amalgam of knowledge bases. Two of these had a scientific background (Robert and Donna). Robert (Biology graduate) and Denise (English graduate) researched their resources and found contemporary evidence and used it with an enquiry approach which demanded high expectations from pupils (both students were observed when teaching). Some students (e.g. Peter, 1c, and Thomas 1h) found themselves having to make compromises with inflexible or unsuitable curriculum models.

The most effective methods of training for successful teaching practice history teaching experiences that the students identified were:

- an initial opportunity to examine beliefs about history and how they linked with the students' own school experience, qualifications, interests, and limits of understanding about the meaning of primary history;
- the development of a framework of contextual knowledge (including a basic chronology) of a sample of the units planned for and taught;
- raising the awareness of related resources (including sources contemporary to the period being studied/taught) and how to use them for teaching;
 - ❖ the use of imagination and empathy in the form of role-play using the sources;
 - ❖ the use of explanation, discussion and questioning using the sources and related issues in context;
 - ❖ the opportunity to reflect on the meaning of the skills and concepts and related understandings which the teaching will seek to develop;
 - ❖ how to organise children to undertake independent source-work or guided work on sources;
- the opportunity to evaluate history lessons taught and the school experience in general.

The *Intervention Strategy's* training sessions in which these methods were used are examples of situated cognition and cognitive modelling or apprenticeship in the sense described by Lave and Wenger (1991). These training sessions involved working alongside students to achieve value congruence through acting as an agent for change (Fullan, 1993; Harland and Kinder, 1997), although in most cases the students did not have to be convinced of the value of active learning, role-play or discussion. Indeed, we can argue with some conviction that the overall *Intervention Strategy* augmented, reinforced and confirmed the students' acceptance of Teaching Ideas and Knowledge, the second crucial element in the Harland and Kinder typology, see Appendix 2. In the Vygotskian tradition (as analysed by Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976) the students assimilated the scaffolding provided in working with their own pupils.

c) What are the implications of the study for knowledge base theory?

Two key pieces of research were conducted by Knight (1991a and 1991b) investigating beliefs and practices surrounding notions of 'good practice' in the teaching of primary history. More than thirteen years of national curriculum teaching has passed since Knight conducted his research. He was admittedly equally interested in the implications of the development of statute-enforced curricula (i.e. the national curriculum) for teacher training. Knight juxtaposed two apparently irreconcilable views of pedagogy for primary history. On the one hand was the exposure philosophy, consisting of a belief that good practice consisted of engagement with content, mainly through whole class expositions, followed by related activities. This philosophy had the merit of being consistent with a dominant set of practitioner beliefs that equated being a good teacher of primary history with being a good general teacher of children, and very little else. There was no sense of an importance attached to progression in understanding of any procedural objectives or related outcomes.

By contrast there was the national curriculum philosophy, though when Knight was writing the nearest available documentation to the September 1991 Statutory Order (DES, 1991) was the 1990 Final Report of the History Working Group (DES, 1990). The driving force of the national curriculum, according to Knight's interpretation of it, were quasi-mathematical principles underpinning an objectives-based model. In this new system planning and teaching for assessment, differentiation and progression would be defined in a hierarchy of skills and concepts which would influence teaching and learning styles. It could be argued that Knight had misinterpreted the structure of the national curriculum as it developed into a jigsaw of predictable contexts that fitted into a set of syntactic and pedagogical principles initially known as 'Key Elements' (see within 1995 version of the national curriculum (DFE, 1995) (Appendix 1)). Knight was however driven by concern about the fitness for purpose of the proposed national curriculum model. His conviction was that the Cromwellian force of statute would never of itself change fundamental beliefs about what was appropriate for one of the 'Curriculum 2' (Alexander, 1984) or 'afternoon' subjects. Despite designing a research programme to give teachers opportunities to teach to three key methodological concepts (evidence, chronology and empathy), few teachers managed to keep to the focus of these concepts.

Questions must be raised about definitions of good primary history teaching praxis that are modelled on what would appear to be an inadequate mix of only two out of the three main ingredients for successful or effective primary history teaching, with the syntactic largely absent or weakly represented. The teachers wedded to an 'exposure' model of teaching seem to be lacking in an ability to provide either for themselves or their pupils a sense of the dynamic interaction between the syntactic,

substantive and pedagogic knowledge bases (Turner-Bisset, 2001). Although Knight was aware of the relationship between what he referred to as the propositional and procedural aspects of teaching history, there is perhaps insufficient attention given to the issue of what makes an appropriate historical activity, or to the range and quality of the sources available for the task, or for that matter, to the quality of the teacher's subject knowledge or the related ability of the teacher to question or interact with the pupils in teasing out the subtle relationships between contexts and sources. However, there is a middle road between the two extremes described by Knight.

The current study is a presentation and analysis of case studies of several students whose reflections show an awareness of a position that combines many, if not in some cases all, of the features of Knight's 'exposure' model but also many of the characteristics of the other model, though often with the ability to see the virtues of the former and possibilities (but also shortcomings) of the latter. The exposure-engagement approach without over-specific objectives was recommended by qualitative researchers into humanities teaching, e.g. Stenhouse (1975) and Eisner (1985), who imply that outcomes from an engagement with humanities topics can range from mere enjoyment to greater familiarity with culture, and may, but should not have to, include the development of specific skills and concepts as incidental outcomes. Effective teaching of primary history will embrace some of the best features of an exposure-engagement approach, and it is self-evident that a rich menu of activities including role-play and visits obviously has much to recommend it. But good teaching also requires sensitivity to opportunities that can be developed through a heightened awareness of the syntactic subject template than can be superimposed on or emerge out of an understanding of substantive contexts. It is important not to be seduced by caricatures of approaches where objectives or even outcomes play an important part. Good practice also includes the kind of focused questioning that develops in children conceptual understanding or historical skills arising naturally out of enhanced insight into and/or discussion of specific historical situations. A single lesson can move from chronology, perhaps in the form of a time-line or other structure of dates, to work that is based on or has the outcome of enhanced empathy and appreciation of the value or problems of evidence by encountering them both in tandem. Examples of this dual or triple approach might be a consideration of an evacuee's diary or an account by a visitor to Queen Elizabeth I's court. The chronological context would be followed by a source and then the source would be used to develop a sense of evidentiality through imaginative interpretation.

What has been found in the eighteen case studies is a development of previous work by Rogers (1979), Eisner (1985, 1991, and 1994), Knight (1991a and 1991b), Askew *et al.*(1997), Medwell and Wray (1998), and Turner-Bisset (2001). The following factors seem to be influential in combining to influence the development of highly effective and in some cases proto-expert novice teachers:

1. *balance* of crucial knowledge bases: the substantive, syntactic and pedagogic;
2. *sophistication* of the knowledge bases;
3. ability to connect or develop relationships between the knowledge bases in both self and the pupil;
4. ability to reflect this balance and sophistication in choice, range, treatment, and age- or ability-appropriateness of source material;
5. ability to connect contextual frame to resource base and related task/activity;
6. affective, imaginative or empathetic qualities brought to teaching and interpretation of context, source-material and tasks linked to intended learning outcomes;

7. awareness of how one knowledge base can *discipline* another (e.g. substantive and syntactic subject knowledge, or the link between contextual frames and the use of the resource base, disciplining imaginative or interactive approaches like discussion and role-play);
8. preference for teaching approaches and learning based upon a connectionist model;
9. orientation towards a subject-based approach to teaching primary history;
10. overall teaching style.

The new theory that emerges from the case studies is perhaps but old theory in new garb. Three prime factors influence emergent expert status: *balance*, *sophistication* and *discipline*. Balance is a concern of the authors of the reports on the effective teaching of numeracy (Askew *et al.*, 1997) and literacy (Medwell and Wray, 1998), and of Turner-Bisset (2001). Sophistication, especially in the substantive and syntactic knowledge base equates with depth, a feature of effective teaching identified by Farmer and Knight (1995), and by Fines and Nichol (1997). It is also as a prerequisite for effective enquiry-based teaching identified by McDiarmid, Ball, and Anderson (1989), and by McNamara (1991). Sophistication covers an awareness of scholarly debates (Rogers, 1979), and recommendation for the increasing acquaintance of the writings of historians and a knowledge of typical historical controversies (VanSledright, 1996; Nichol with Dean, 1997; McAleavy, 2000). The need for *discipline*, especially in restraining the effect of diffusion of focus in cross-curricular work, has been identified by Rogers (1979) and the DES (1990). Indeed, the importance of the discipline of a framework of substantive, factual information when organising drama or role-play was discussed and confirmed by Fines and Verrier (1974).

Synthesising Rogers's critique, Collingwood's statements, R.W. Evans's categories, and the reflections of the students we can see the central role that an understanding of the nature of history as a discipline and beliefs about its role and importance play in student-teachers' orientations towards the teaching of it. It is tempting merely to substitute the word 'academic' (Virta's preferred term) for R.W. Evans's 'scientific'. However it is impossible to dub just the history graduates with the title 'academic', and describe those without history degrees as merely 'generalist'. Reverting briefly to Knight's research (1991a and 1991b), what is more significant is whether or not the students are subject-centred, have a cross-curricular perspective or are child-centred. Their role as primary teachers has a professionalism of its own that both equals and transcends the subject-based professionalism of their equivalent secondary colleagues. It draws upon their overall training experience which 'encultures' them within a particular pedagogic tradition as Alexander discovered (1984). When linked to the models of effective teaching identified by Askew *et al.* (1997), knowledge base theory, and the importance of balance, sophistication and discipline, three main profiles that equate with good practice seem to emerge.

Enquirers who use questioning, discussion, and interactive methods;
 source-work is encouraged and teaching is based on 'key' and other concepts;
 substantive and syntactic subject knowledge bases are dynamically interacting with each other in both teacher and child;
 limited use of imaginative and creative methods or strategies.

Reconstructionists who use creative, imaginative and empathetic methods, including role-play, drama and simulations; creative interpretation of substantive knowledge base and related contemporary sources.

Enquirer-reconstructionists who combine features of both of the above.

Enquirer-reconstructionists balance both approaches. The enquirer-reconstructionist shares most of the features of Askew's connectionist teacher; in the context of teaching primary history he or she combines enquiry-discussion with creative approaches. Within these main categories are a number of sub-categories which have already been touched upon, but which have been suggested by the wide range of reflections in the eighteen case studies. These case studies have demonstrated that both specialists and non-specialists can develop their knowledge bases by using a combination of mini depth-studies with strategies that develop creative and constructivist approaches to teaching.

d) What are the implications of the findings of the case studies for teacher training?

The general, and perhaps unexpected finding, is the crucial role of an *Intervention Strategy* based upon a deep and sophisticated understanding of the knowledge bases that are needed for the effective teaching of history. But, the *Intervention Strategy* has to be seen as one element in the one year enculturation into a particular tradition of primary school teaching that the one year ITT course promulgates. Axiomatically, the *Intervention Strategy* is an integral element of the overall ITT course, mirroring its overarching values, beliefs and attitudes [orientation] towards teaching. The preferred teaching model for the students which emerges from these case studies is that of the 'enquirer-reconstructionist' using the teaching approaches and strategies of a connectionist/constructivist teacher. So, if such a model of effective teaching of primary history is to be implemented, then students and newly qualified teachers need to be given opportunities to engage with it, reflect on it, and to develop and assimilate it in their own practice.

The practical realisation of these recommendations for the future of teacher training in this area would include opportunities for students to:

- develop academic syntactic and substantive historical knowledge and related pedagogic historical knowledge through depth study (i.e. sophistication) on topics that are taught in schools;
- realise how sophisticated understanding of historical topics and their evidential base can be developed through studying in depth;
- develop syntactic understanding through working historically (see pp. 70 - 71 above), upon a range of sources, both contemporary and subsequent interpretations so as to discuss, debate, reflect upon and interpret those sources both through conversation/discussion with peers and through imaginative presentation i.e. drama, role-play, hot-seating, freeze-frames and even *Big Brother* techniques such as individual confessional videoing;
- exercise creativity when organising imaginative, empathetic or cross-curricular work;
- exercise discipline when organising imaginative, empathetic or cross-curricular work, and develop awareness of arguments to justify this use of discipline in defence of the integrity of history;
- explore and try a range of active and stimulating teaching and learning activities that could be used with pupils.

Crucial is the issue of transferability, i.e. the ability to adopt and adapt sophisticated teaching ideas and approaches in the form of particular teaching protocols for specific teaching situations. What the research does show is that an appreciation of the role and importance of knowledge base development means that the overall training experience of the students mapped on to all of the key factors that Harland & Kinder had identified for successful professional development. While Level 1 factors

were crucial, they argued that the greater number of elements in Levels 2 and 3 that were covered, the more likely was the professional development to have a long term and lasting impact, see Appendix 2.

These case studies have demonstrated that both specialists and non-specialists can develop their knowledge bases by using a combination of mini depth-studies with strategies that develop creative and constructivist approaches to teaching. Professionalism can be defined through the quality of developing knowledge bases. There is a close association between valuing pupils' contributions through their interactive engagement with history and having high expectations in general.

Impact on practice

The research as presented and analysed above was written up as a PhD (Guyver, 2003), and this work has had a considerable impact on the day-to-day 'delivery' of the course programmes on both the BEd and the PGCE courses. There has been a marked improvement in student evaluations of the history modules, and the relevance of the training to actual practice has been understood by students. The stress on balance, sophistication and discipline in the context of enquiry and reconstruction has given the *Intervention Strategy* a rationale that has been absorbed and appreciated by students in preparation to teach both Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2. Tutor confidence has increased and the theoretical framework has been placed through the close link with classroom practice within the grasp of the trainees. The potential transferability of the models presented in the College training sessions has been recognised and is being acted upon by students.

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Appendix 1

The English National Curriculum for History (DfE, 1995)		
Study Unit	Title	Dates
Substantive Subject Knowledge - Content		
1	Romans, Anglo-Saxons and Vikings in Britain	55 BC-1100 A.D.
2	Life in Tudor Times	1485-1603
3	a. Victorian Britain <u>or</u>	1837-1901
	b. Britain since 1930	1930-2004
4	Ancient Greece	1200-200 BC
5	Local History	
6	A past non European society	
Syntactic Content: skills, processes, protocols and concepts		
Key Element		
1	Chronology [key element 1]	
2	Range and depth of historical knowledge and understanding (including causation) [key element 2]	
3	Interpretations of history [key element 3]	
4	Historical enquiry (including historical evidence) [key element 4]	
5	Organisation and communication (including structured narratives) [key element 5]	

Appendix 2

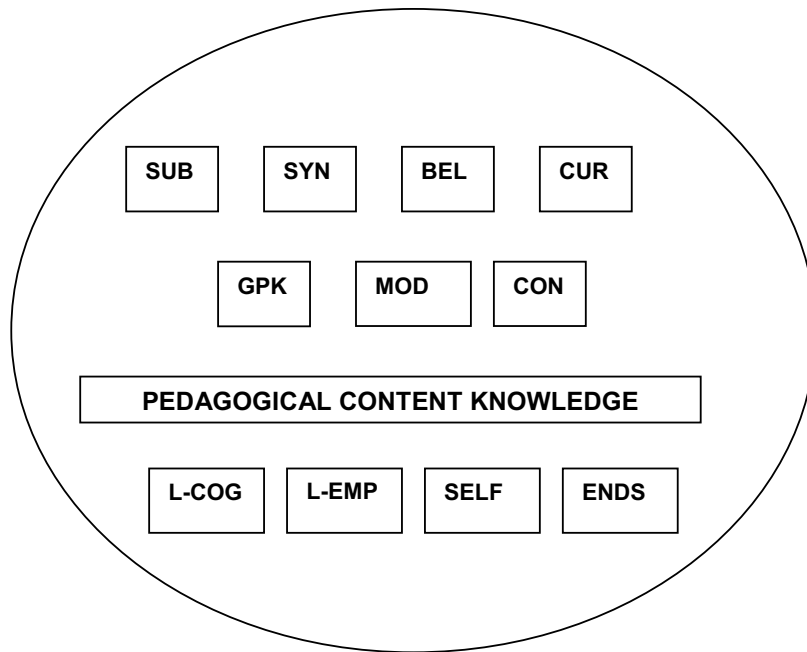
Typology or Hierarchy of Initial Teacher Training Outcomes

This can be used to map of the effectiveness of the *Intervention Strategy*.

An Ordering of Initial Teacher Training Outcomes			
1 st order ↓	<i>values congruence</i> , i.e. sharing the values of the course team		<i>knowledge and skills</i> i.e. understanding what you are doing and how to do it
2 nd order ↓	<i>motivation</i> i.e. willingness to work	<i>effective</i> i.e. emotionally satisfied in the work place	<i>institutional knowledge</i> i.e. knowledge of what is expected of you in the institutional setting, and of the institution
3 rd order	<i>provisionary</i> i.e. materials, resources, ideas for teaching	<i>information</i> i.e. knowing about what is required of you	<i>new awareness</i> i.e. knowledge of recent developments

Appendix 3

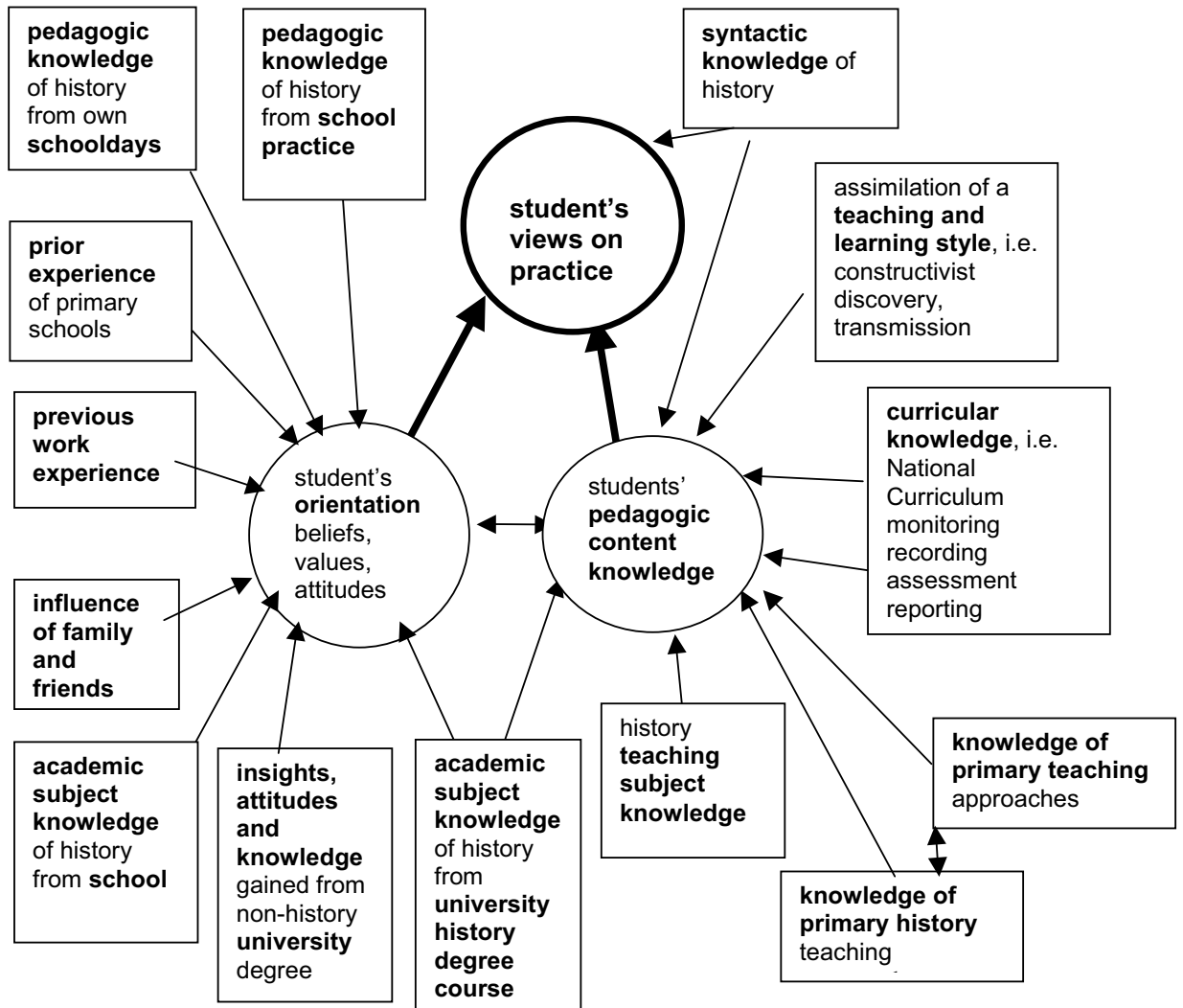
Turner Bisset knowledge bases diagram



- SUB – substantive knowledge**
- SYN – syntactic knowledge**
- BEL – beliefs about the subject**
- CUR – curriculum knowledge**
- CON – knowledge of contexts**
- SELF – knowledge of self**
- MOD – knowledge of models of teaching**
- L-COG – knowledge of learners: cognitive**
- L-EMP – knowledge of learners: empirical**
- ENDS – knowledge of educational ends**
- GPK – general pedagogical knowledge**

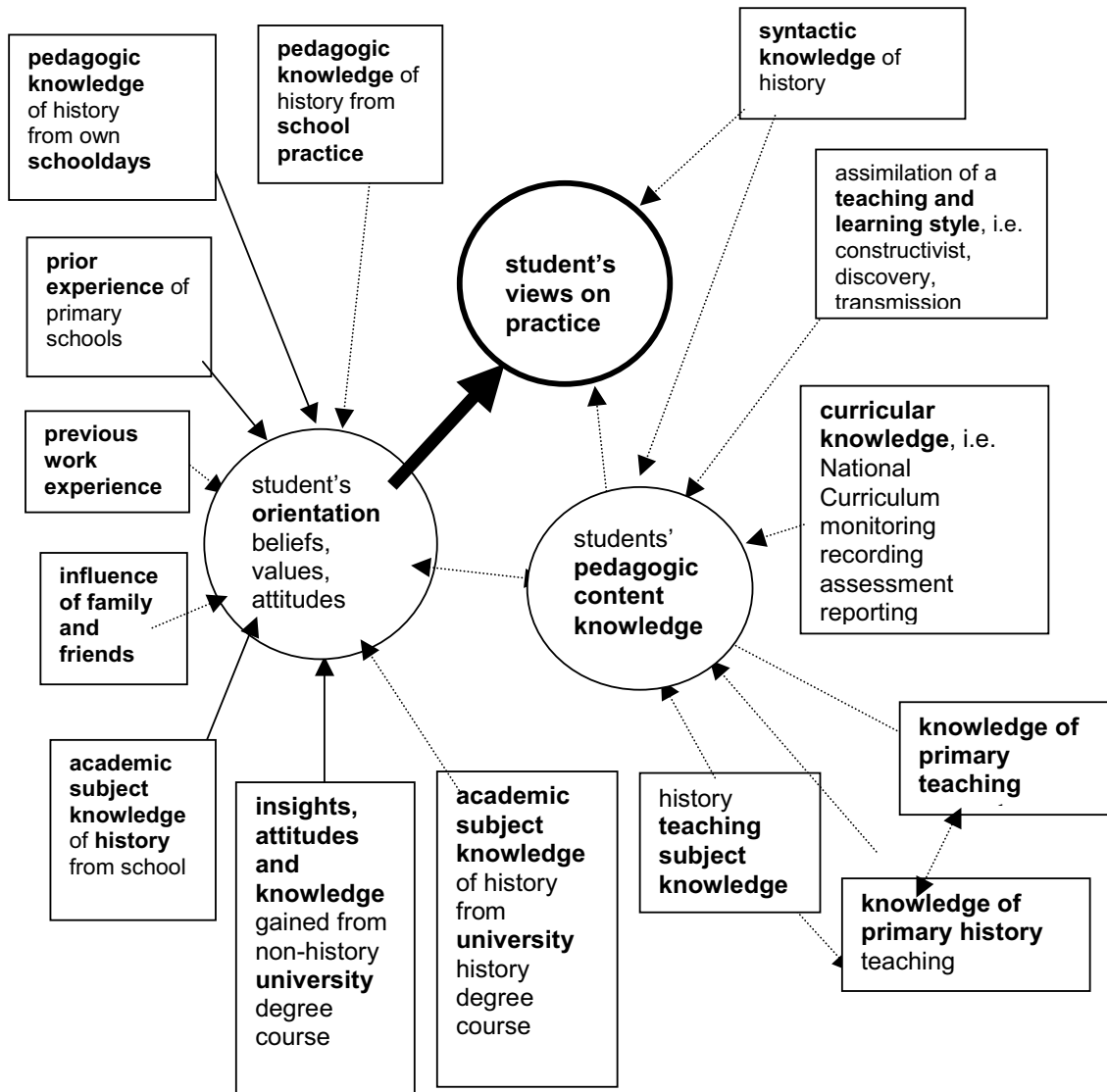
Knowledge bases for teaching: the model (from Turner-Bisset, 2001, Figure 1.5, p. 18)

Appendix 4 – Student teachers and the teaching of history: a ‘model’ of the knowledge bases of student teachers of history



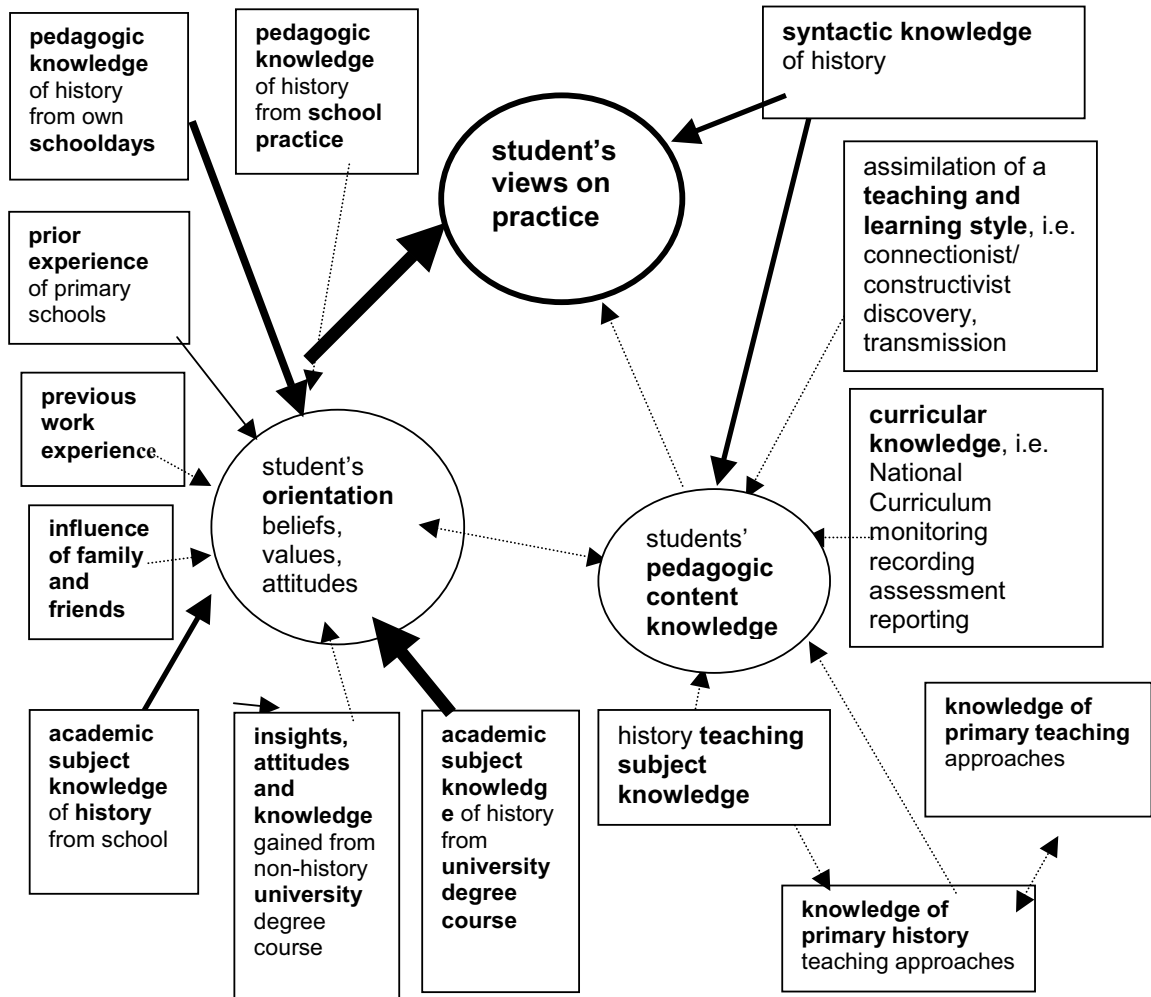
————— Solid line = influence
 Thickness of line = extent of influence
 Dashed line = no influence

Appendix 5: Student teachers and the teaching of history: A 'model' of the knowledge bases of the non-history specialists when they commenced the course



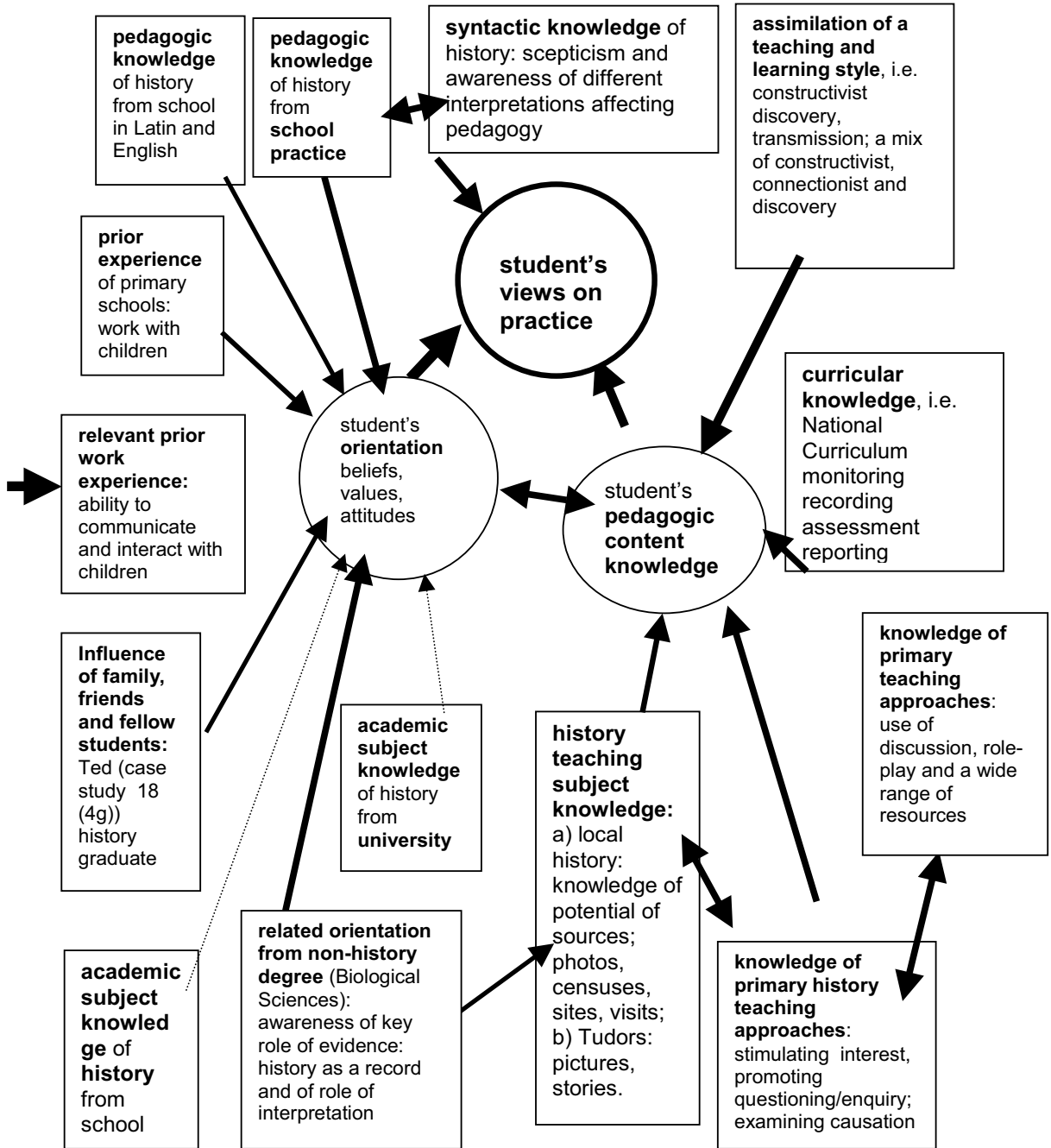
- _____ Solid line = influence
- _____ Thickness of line = extent of influence
- Dashed line = no influence

Appendix 6: A 'model' of the knowledge bases of the history specialists when they commenced the course



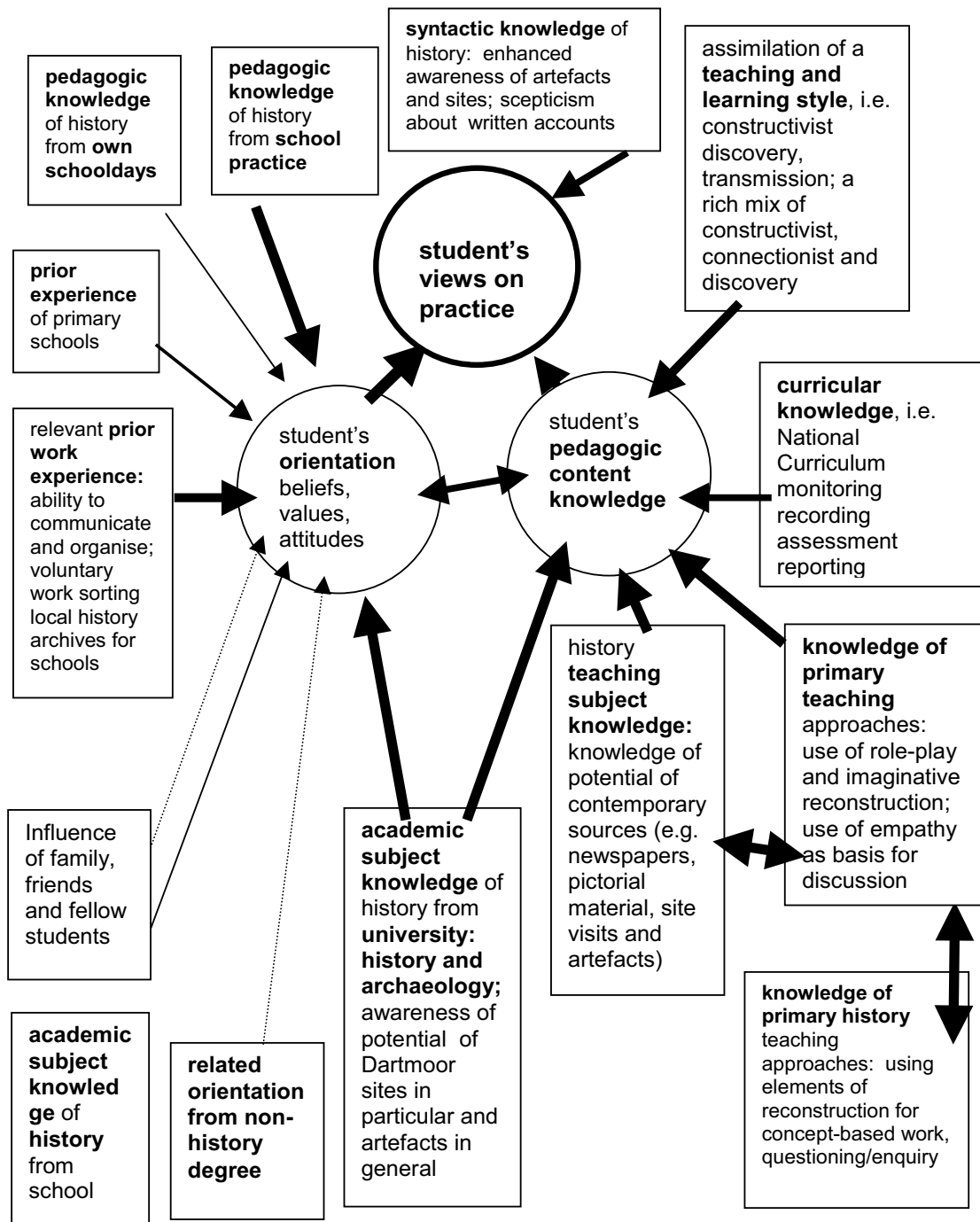
- Solid line = influence
- Thickness of line = extent of influence
- Dashed line = no influence

Appendix 7 – A ‘model’ of the knowledge bases of Mark, case study 15 (4d), non-history graduate (BSc Biological Sciences) at the end of the course



- Solid line = influence
- Thickness of line = extent of influence
- Dashed line = no influence

Appendix 8 - A 'model' of the knowledge bases of Jessica, case study 17 (4f), history graduate (History/Archaeology) at the end of the course



Solid line = influence

Thickness of line = extent of influence