Exploration of History Teachers' Expertise in Teaching Historical Thinking

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DECLARATION

I would like to confirm that this work is my own and that any material used from other sources is acknowledged and cited properly.

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to explore the perspectives and approaches of history teachers in England towards teaching historical thinking. This research contributes to our knowledge by providing an understanding of how history teachers conceptualise historical thinking within the current educational climate and by also linking this to their professional knowledge and decision-making processes.

In this research, a qualitative approach, using constructivist and interpretivist paradigms, has been adopted. Ten history teachers were chosen using convenience sampling and have been interviewed twice using online applications. As data collecting tools, semi-structured interviews, mind maps, and narrative interviews have been utilised. Additionally, in order to gain better understanding of teachers' practices for historical thinking, examples of their scheme of work have been collected and analysed. A mixture of deductive and inductive analysis has been adopted for twenty interview transcripts. The similarities and differences between the teachers were evaluated by comparing, interpreting, and grouping their answers regarding the relevant codes.

The teachers' understanding of historical thinking was similar, and it was mainly based on teaching historiography and second-order concepts. There was also a close relationship between the different knowledge bases teachers used and the extent to which they promoted historical thinking. It was found that three of the knowledge bases - subject, pedagogy, and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) – were most likely to inform teachers' approaches to historical thinking. Additionally, influential factors in teachers' decisions were both internal (beliefs, values, and self-efficacy) and external (accountability, time, network. schools and community of practice (CoP)) factors. In this research, teacher agency is associated with teachers' decisions and actions in relation to improving their teaching based on the new ideas

and changes – more specifically historical thinking. The participants were found to be driven by ecological factors and the ongoing relationships between their internal and external contexts.

Overall, four groups emerged showing teachers' attitudes towards teaching historical thinking. In the first group (Content Orientated), there were two history teachers who were found to be less engaged with teaching historical thinking. These teachers appeared to be disconnected from communities of practice and historical organisations, and they attributed their disengagement with teaching historical thinking to accountability and timing pressures. In the second group (Exam Orientated) were two history teachers whose engagement with historical thinking was limited and shaped by an exam-oriented approach, and felt restricted by a content-heavy curriculum and high accountability pressures. The third group (HT [1] Practitioners) represented three teachers who showed a better engagement in teaching historical thinking. Finally, there were three teachers whose approach to teaching historical thinking seemed more sophisticated (HT Innovators). Analyses showed that their success was connected to their strong subject knowledge, personal enthusiasm for teaching, high level university and CoP engagement and individual and collective agency and self-efficacy.

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[1] HT stands for historical thinking.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Various reviews of history education over the past couple of decades have generated significant debates about teaching school history (see, e.g., Counsell, 2011; Seixas, 2006; Wineburg, 2001; Young, 2009). As will be discussed in detail in the following chapter, there are extensive discussions in the literature regarding the rational and purposes of school history (e.g., Barton & Levstik, 2004; Nakou & Barca, 2010). These debates mainly focus on issues arising from the need to avoid nation-building purposes in history teaching, to balance the conflicting claims of knowledge and skill-based history teaching, and deal with problems related to disciplinary-based history teaching (Fordham, 2012). This is not surprising, since the characteristics of societies in the world today, e.g., increasing diversity, rapid change, and the demand for critical and intelligent minds, have forced educational circles to focus on and review school history, due to its inherent nature (Whitehouse, 2015). After all, history is one of the most suitable school subjects for teaching about global and national actors, mechanisms, and issues, and the acquisition of sets of procedural thinking such as designing and implementing sequential strategy (Zajda, 2015). Although there are still obsessions with school history's role in fostering national identity, especially among politicians worldwide (e.g., Gove, 2010; Putin, 2014), significant advances towards teaching disciplinary history have been achieved over the past two decades, especially in England (Lee, 2001; Parkes, 2012; Taylor & Guyver, 2012).

This shift to disciplinary history teaching was necessary, as Lee (2001) states, students can only learn about the past by understanding the discipline. Understanding the discipline of history lets students have more critical engagement with its substantive nature, and allows them to do things with their historical knowledge (Lee, 2001). At this point, the need for teaching historical thinking plays important role since the acquisition of a set of competencies in disciplinary history teaching, such as questioning the given sources of information, constructing narratives by analysing and interpreting the given information, and understanding

methodologies, will help young people to gain critical insights and understanding of how historical knowledge can be constructed (Korber, 2015).

In addition, according to Seixas (2010), teaching students how to think historically may provide a helpful way to improve both their cognitive abilities and social skills. Thanks to multiplicity and contradiction in historical sources and accounts, critical history teaching may provide "a rational way, on the basis of evidence and argument, to discuss the differing accounts that jostle with or contradict each other" (Seixas, 2002 as quoted in Clark, 2020, p. 50). Thus, this set of acquisitions will help students to develop 'life skills' which enhance their ability to understand and participate in the world in which they live (Lee, 1992). In addition to this, developing historical thinking also helps school history to remain relevant to the present day, helping to prepare students for life in the twenty-first century (Fordham, 2012), as they live in a world full of contradiction, multiplicity, and diversity.

Furthermore, according to Wineburg (2001, p. 109), historical thinking is "fundamental historical understanding" since it helps to explain the ways in which the past differs from the present. One of the most interesting aspects of his theory is the idea that the capacity for fundamental historical understanding is "unnatural": he maintains that historical thinking is "neither a natural process nor something that springs automatically from psychological development. Its achievement […] actually goes against the grain of how we ordinarily think" (2001, p. 7). According to Wineburg (2001), historical thinking is not an innate ability, therefore, it requires systematic study, involving considerable time and effort, as well as expert guidance. So, it is very important to teach historical thinking in history lessons often and systematically.

Other important benefits of teaching historical thinking are related to teaching life skills through the study of conceptual and procedural factors, such as the use of evidence and the ability to question and interpret given information (Barton & Levstik, 2003). For example, in

Canada, Lévesque (2016) explains why students should learn about thinking historically and what competencies they can expect to gain through this education. In concluding his study, Lévesque states:

 It is because the twenty-first-century world in which they live demands it. In an age in which 'history' is easily confused with 'commemoration' in the public space, today's learners need the knowledge and competencies to deal with and use the experiences of past actualities for the purpose of their life orientation. Instead of simply accepting an official story of the past for national celebration, students who have developed historical thinking habits of mind will be in a better position to question the value of such narratives, examine their own preconceived historical ideas and sense of belonging, and ultimately generate their own stories of the past based on scholarly rules of argument. Perhaps more important and pragmatic to them, they will also learn the difference between these forms of history and know how to use them so as to participate in the full range of human culture (Lévesque, 2016, p. 8)

As can be seen, there are disciplinary, cognitive, and social dimensions and benefits of teaching historical thinking. For this reason, there is an undeniable need for school history, and it warrants a significant place in the National Curriulum. With this, as the extensive research by Lévesque and Clark (2018) reveals, there are also slightly differing understandings of the nature of historical thinking. It is therefore important to develop a working definition of historical thinking for this study. Within the scope of this study, the definition of historical thinking comprises second-order concepts such as causation, change, and significance (Lee, 2005) and cognitive-procedural skills such as the process of reconstructing the past and using sources critically (Shemilt, 2010). The term 'historical thinking has been found to be useful since it can cover both the disciplinary and social dimensions of history teaching.

Based on these discussions, it is clear that historical thinking has a definite place in the teaching of history. The acquisition of historical thinking, as outlined above, is a necessary tool for developing students' cognitive, disciplinary, and social abilities. For this reason, the study that is presently being conducted will make important contributions to the relevant knowledge, by presenting examples of how history teachers in England comprehend and engage with historical thinking. As there has been a long tradition of focussing on teaching historical thinking in England (since the Schools Council History Project [SCHP and later SHP] in 1972), it would be interesting to explore how historical thinking works in the practice of history teachers who are more embedded in such a context.

1.1. Policy and Curriculum Context

In England, one of the aims of history education has often been associated with improving pupils' understanding of the nature of history as a discipline (DfE, 2013; Husbands *et al*., 2003). According to this purpose, history education is supposed to develop specific disciplinary thinking and competencies by examining specific concepts (named as second-order concepts) such as significance, continuity and change, cause and consequence, interpretation, use of evidence and making comparisons to construct historical knowledge (Lee & Ashby, 2000). Students are also expected to ask and answer critical questions, use historical evidence, interpret historical events, consider multiple perspectives and make reasonable judgments in the history lessons which will make an important contribution to their personal development (Lee, 2005; Shemilt, 2010). These ideas and objectives have provided a basis for defining and discussing what historical thinking refers to in this study.

When history policy and curriculum developments in England have been examined, it is possible to see with great clarity the place of historical thinking and its disciplinary concepts in the process (see, e.g., DfE, 1995, 1999, 2008, and 2013). The roots of teaching historical thinking can be seen in the Schools Council History Project in 1972, from where it gained wider

attention and found a place respectively in the national examination specifications (GCSE, or General Certificate of Secondary Education) and in the National Curriculum (Lévesque & Clark, 2018). The SCHP was the first attempt to systematically examine history and create teaching materials to promote better teaching in this area. Following this, disciplinary concepts of history became a part of the GCSE introduced in 1986. When the first National Curriclum for history was introduced in 1991, the place of historical thinking and associated concepts was embedded in the attainment targets. Although the process of the inclusion of historical thinking in history policies and curricula evolved slowly, it continued to develop steadily. In the 1995 version of the National Curriculum, disciplinary concepts were labelled as Key Elements. In 1999, 'aims' related to historical thinking concepts were identified in the section on 'The Importance of History' (Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) & Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), 1999, p. 14), which said that history was beneficial in terms of developing "valuable transferable skills ('to be able to research, sift through evidence, and argue for their point of view – skills that are prized in adult life')."

In the first years of the 21st century, there were intense discussions and demands for the development of general education competencies and competency-based curricula rather than the development of subject knowledge (Mitra, 2014; Young, 2008) and the National Curriculum for history was influenced by such debates. In the 2008 version of the national curriculum, there was a shift towards competency-based history teaching with less emphasis on the substantive content. For instance, the roles of history were still seen in terms of stimulating pupils' imaginations ("fires pupils' curiosity and imagination, moving and inspiring them" (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority [QCA], 2008, p. 111) and developing valuable transferable skills ("equipping them with knowledge and skills that are prized in adult life, enhancing employability" (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority [QCA], 2008, p. 111). The competence-based history teaching trend mainly emphasised shaping students' values and

attitudes toward history and encouraged mutual understanding and questioning of the world around them using historical thinking. The emergence of alternative competence-based curriculum ideas such as 'Opening Minds' may have supported this shift at the time (RSA, n.d). The Opening Minds curriculum suggested a focus on developing children's broad "competencies that would help them thrive in the real world" (RSA, n.d), such as "managing information and relating to people" (Yates *et al*., 2017, pp. 23–26).

However, in the new version of the history National Curriculum introduced in 2014 (DfE, 2013), this shift has reversed and the place of content gained more attention. Although this new curriculum reuired a rich amount of content to be covered (mainly focused on British History), the place of historical thinking remained as one of the aims of studying history, and was explained as follows:

> "understand historical concepts such as continuity and change, cause and consequence, similarity, difference and significance, and use them to make connections, draw contrasts, analyse trends, frame historically valid questions and create their own structured accounts, including written narratives and analyses" (DfE, 2013, p. 1)

In addition to these requirements, the necessity of using historical enquiry and evidence, interpreting different sources and contradicting arguments, and making different claims has been emphasised (DfE, 2013). Although it could be said that historical thinking has had a strong place in the official papers since the first National Curriculum was created for history teaching in England, it is important to research the current situation regarding how the teaching of historical thinking happens in history lessons, and what form it takes, now there has been a shift towards a greater emphasis on teaching substantive historical knowledge.

1.2. Rationale for the Research

Although increasing attention is being paid to improving students' historical thinking competences, the existing literature gives very little considerations to history teachers' concepts

of teaching historical thinking and its influences on their practices. Teachers, however, play a vital role in this process as they are the meditators responsible for interpreting and enacting the curriculum (Harris & Reynolds, 2018; Monte-Sano *et al*., 2014). Although teachers' role in this process is highly critical, the literature on how history teachers adopt these official policies into their school curricula is quite limited (Harris & Reynolds, 2018). Therefore, it will be important to focus on teachers' views aand actions with regard to teaching historical thinking, in order to provide further insights into this field. One of the few comprehensive studies exploring history teachers' thinking was conducted by Husbands *et al*. in 2003. Since then, however, the field of history teaching has seen many changes. Therefore, a new and updated study exploring history teachers' perspectives, specifically for teaching historical thinking, will make an important contribution to the field.

This research draws together the key and updated bodies of literature to investigate history teachers' comprehension of history teaching relating to historical thinking. By doing so, it not only articulates teachers' conceptualisations about the place and value of historical thinking in the curriculum and examinations within the current educational climate in England, but also explicitly elaborates practical and theoretical discussions on teacher knowledge and professional development within this process. Lévesque and Clark (2018) examined the definitions of historical thinking and its educational applications and, as a result, they found that four countries (England, Germany, Canada, and the U.S.) have developed leading standards for teaching historical thinking over the past few decades. It is highly beneficial to examine how history teachers in one of the most leading countries in terms of researching historical thinking conceptualise and teach historical thinking. This study therefore makes two main contributions to our knowledge. It, firstly, offers a way to categorise the history teachers in terms of teaching historical thinking. In this way, it shows the place of historical thinking in the practice of history teachers in England by establishing the differences in teachers

comprehensions and approaches towards the topic. Secondly, the study also seek to understand what promotes or prevents history teachers' engagements with and developments of teaching historical thinking. As a result of this, the study shows the need for professionally developed history teachers with strong subject-specific knowledge.

Additionally, this study reflects history teachers' ideas about contemporary debates. The debates over the place, purpose, and content of school history have been thoroughly reviewed in the following chapter (see Chapter 2.1.). Furthermore, the Black Lives Matter protests, which started with the murder of George Floyd, have demanded that history teachers re-think the diversity of their curriculum and the narratives they teach. The effects of these protests were evident in the discussions of participating teachers and it seemed to influence them to ways to diversify their curriculum further (e.g., Chapter 4.2.2.2.) This study has consequently been conducted at a time when history teachers had to reconsider their practices and curriculum. Therefore, I consider this research to be helpful in filling potential gaps in the literature in relation to historical thinking, as well as producing some data for new and contemporary debates, as outlined above.

1.3. Personal Motivations for Conducting This Study

I became interested in teaching historical thinking after I came to the UK for my MA studies. Before that, I studied history at one of the most prestigious universities in the field of social and educational sciences in Turkey. I still remember an interesting discussion I had with one of my tutors as if it were yesterday. My tutor said that since there were no clergy in the Ottoman Empire, it could not be seen as a theocratic state. However, I raised my hand and said I disagreed with this. I continued and claimed that Ottoman Empire might have a theocratic nature, as one of the attributes (shadow of God on earth) used by sultans implied that they received their right to rule directly from God. My tutor's answer was brilliant. He said I might be right, but 'we' just accept some things. And he moved the lesson on but left me with many

unanswered questions such as who we are, why we accept that things are 'so', what our rationale is for accepting what we is 'so', and why cannot have a different idea.

This was my first year, and at that moment, I understood that I needed to form my answers in exams according to what the relevant subject tutor expected, because otherwise, I felt that I would not be able to obtain satisfactory results. After that, I no longer questioned my tutors: I recorded carefully what they dictated, and in exams, I just reproduced what they said in lessons. Eventually, I graduated with an honour's degree. But unfortunately, I used to think that, because I had graduated with distinction, I had learned the discipline of history and was ready to teach it. Just after my graduation, I was selected for a scholarship funded by the Turkish Ministry of Education, which enabled me to pursue postgraduate education in the UK. I started to study in the Master's programme at the UCL Institute of Education, one year after my graduation.

My encounter with harsh reality occurred in a meeting I had with my tutor on this programme. I was taking a course named 'effective teaching in history', and, for the assignment, I was expected to create a lesson plan for a subject topic using effective teaching methods. I chose the reform of the Turkish Alphabet as my topic and wrote in the assignment proposal that I would prepare a plan to teach the students the precise facts about the subject. After receiving this proposal, unsurprisingly, my tutor arranged a one-to-one meeting with me. The first thing she told me was that absolute facts did not exist in history; instead, history consisted of interpretations, perspectives, and personal accounts. As a result, what should have been in my proposal was how I would guide students in forming their own accounts, what type of evidence I would introduce, how I would present the knowledge, and so on. That was the moment when I realised that my knowledge about the discipline of history, historical thinking, and teaching history was limited.

From this point, I tried to improve my knowledge and skills in these areas. Studying for my Master's degree was a challenging process because I had to learn almost everything from scratch. However, I graduated and kept thinking that I had learned a lot in a year. The subject of my Master's thesis was teaching sensitive and controversial issues in history. This process helped me to understand better why we need historical thinking and why we should gain a disciplinary understanding of the past in order to enhance our understanding of both the world of the past and the world of today. After this point, I knew that I would conduct research to explore historical thinking in my Ph.D. project to improve my understanding further and keep making significant contributions to this important field. This is where my motivation lies for doing this research.

1.4. Research Questions and the Structure of the Thesis

Based on the discussions above, this thesis aims to investigate history teachers' perspectives on historical thinking and their approaches to teaching the subject. This thesis also aims to understand and evaluate their ideas in relation to the aims of history teaching as well as their knowledge bases and decision-making processes, which may influence their teaching of historical thinking. Thus, the primary research questions of my current study are:

RQ$_1$: What do history teachers understand by historical thinking?

RQ$_2$: What types of knowledge inform teachers' approaches to teaching historical thinking?

RQ$_3$: What influences the decisions teachers make in terms of teaching historical thinking?

To be able to answer these questions, Chapter 2 reviews and discusses the related literature on the purposes of history teaching, historical thinking, teachers' knowledge bases, and their decision-making processes. Following this, Chapter 3 introduces the methodological decisions of the research by discussing its philosophical stances. Additionally, the processes of

data collection, data analysis, and sampling are explained in detail. Chapters 4, 5, and 6 present the findings according to the research questions above. Chapter 7 provides a discussion of the main findings of the research and tries to answer the research questions. Finally, Chapter 8 concludes the thesis by summarising the findings, highlighting the contributions, and making further implications as well as recalling the limitations of the research.

2. LİTERATURE REVIEW

This chapter seeks to review and discuss the relevant literature to construct a theoretical background for this study. The chapter starts with introducing and discussing the purposes of history education to delineate the important debates in the field. Then, an overview of historical thinking, and why teaching it is important, will be discussed in light of the existing literature. After that, the literature on teachers' knowledge bases which may support the teaching of historical thinking will be outlined. The chapter will conclude with the impact of teachers' decision-making processes while teaching historical thinking in the classroom.

2.1. THE PURPOSES OF HISTORY EDUCATION

The importance of teaching history in schools cannot be overstated. Several important studies have been conducted to define the philosophical, theoretical and practical underpinings of teaching history in schools (e.g., Barton & Levstik, 2004; Haydn, 2015; Lee, 1992; Slater, 1992; Stradling, 2003; Taylor & Guyver, 2012). Different definitions of the nature of history have been reached and these can be grouped into two categories: history as a body of knowledge, and history as a discipline. While some purposes of school history are clearly linked to teaching disciplinary-based history, some of them tend to be structured around traditional and ideological purposes. For this reason, teachers' understandings and views of the purposes of teaching history may theoretically impact their choice of concepts when teaching historical thinking. Therefore, investigating and evaluating the purposes of history education, as well as understanding the existing knowledge debates in the field will be beneficial for this study.

2.1.1. National purposes of historical teaching

With the construction of modern nation-states, history has become one of the key subjects in school: this development was the product of the original intent of building national identities (Shibata, 2015). Even though the purposes of school history can vary according to time and the needs of societies and countries, school history has been mostly accepted as a

vehicle for serving national aims (Shibata, 2015). In fact, serving a nation's aims remainsl one of the most explicit purposes in many history curricula, as history is found to be very powerful in terms of fostering and strengthening a sense of national identity. This has led to governments controlling school history for the purpose of institutionalising specific narratives that strengthen national identity (Shibata, 2015). Currently, there are ongoing debates about the use of history for nationalist aims in places such as Northern Ireland, Cyprus, and Russia, amongst others (Nakou & Barca, 2010; Shibata, 2015; Taylor & Guyver, 2012).

In almost every country, significant political attention to controlling the aims and features of school history can be seen in government policy and national curricula. Specifically, the content of school history curricula has been motivated by political intervention because there is a common tendency to see the curriculum as a vehicle for the "transmission of a common heritage, and, by implication, in an increasingly diverse society, for re-asserting that common cultural heritage" (Husbands *et al*., 2003, p. 29). Such common heritages can be structured around something that is termed the 'great tradition', where the focus is on key events and individuals, framed within a positive national story (Sylvester, 1994). A key aspect of this approach is to see history as a body of received knowledge, taught in a didactic manner and treated as uncontested (Stradling, 2003). The great tradition has remained a central idea in history education until it started to be challenged by modern history approaches in the 1970s in England. Under the scrutiny of modern history approaches, the ideas through which students at school encountered the past, in terms of pedagogy, content and purpose, were reestablished (Husband *et al*., 2003). Additionally, traditional history approaches were not suitable for teaching historical thinking. Historical thinking requires students to reach their own conclusions by using the tools of historiography such as using different sources, considering alternative interpretations of an event and discussing different ideas. In essence, it rejects the idea that history is a received body of knowledge.

Yet considerable support for teaching history according to a nation's aims and values still exists, especially among politicians. For example, in 2006, Gordon Brown, Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (UK), argued for a 'National Museum of History' that would strenghten national pride, and teaching 'Britishness' in the history classrooms (Brown, 2006). Additionally, Michael Gove (from the Conservative Party), Secretary of State for Education from 2010 to 2014, also agreed with Brown in terms of the purposes of history education needing to enforce one's pride and sense of belonging as a British citizen:

"There is no better way of building a modern, inclusive, patriotism than by teaching all British citizens to take pride in this country's achievements. Which is why the next Conservative Government will ensure the curriculum teaches the proper narrative of British History- so that every Briton can take pride in this nation "(Gove, 2009).

What Brown and Gove emphasise here is the pride and sense of belonging people experience as part of their respective communities. These discussions highlight the traditional purposes of school history, which seeks to emphasise positive and celebratory versions of national history. Several studies have outlined that such purposes can often be detected among the history teachers and students along with politicians, as history may serve well for creating, moulding, and fostering a sense of identity and national unity (e.g., Barton & Levstik, 2004; Husbands *et al*., 2003). Husbands *et al*. (2003) conducted a small-scale study with history teachers in the UK, and they found that participating teachers suggested that history content should not be prescribed. Instead, these teachers advocated teaching more content from Europe and wider world history to diversify their curriculum. Yet, when the same teachers were asked for specifics to be taught in history lessons, the majority of them suggested elements of British history. In a US-based study, Barton and Levstik (2004) find that when people hear or learn something related to their nation, religion and culture, they tend to create an identification

stance. The reason for this stance is that people have strong emotions towards their personal, family, local and national past (Barton & Levstik, 2004). Additionally, Barton and Levstik (2004) argue that focusing on identity formation is more engaging and meaningful for students. For this reason, while history is studied at school, the impacts of national values and identities can be brought into the classroom consciously or unconsciously. However, fostering an identity through the study of history can become problematic, because the national identity to be created and whose identity would be chosen is not clear. As Barton and Levstik stated "establishing who we are also mean establishing who we aren't" (2004, p. 60), so prioritising the creation of national identity may cause exclusive teaching and alienation. Similarly, traditionally structured school history may severely limit the acquisition of the pluralistic social, civic, and intellectual requirements necessary for the twenty-first century (Haydn, 2012).

Recent history textbooks in the Russian Federation exemplify this issue. Although the main aim of history textbooks in Russia is to strengthen national identity, the narratives of these books are still monolithic and intolerant of other ideas and identities (Zajda, 2015). Russian President Putin clarified this in one of his speeches. In 2013, he said that history textbooks must not include "inner contradictions and confusing interpretations", and they need to "instill respect for all periods of our history" (cited in Zajda, 2015, p. 37). Although this comment can be seen as very problematic by history educators and historians, interestingly, these ideas have received considerable public support from Russian citizens (Zajda, 2015). What is problematic about this view is that the removal of "confusing" or allegedly harmful interpretations of the past will also deprive students of any chance of investigating, analysing, interpreting, and forming unique accounts. History is a very appropriate subject for engaging students in decision-making processes, promoting their search for evidence, and supporting their critical and analytical competencies (Haydn & Harris, 2010). In the absence of these features, history cannot be rescued from being just a storytelling lesson for students.

Unfortunately, when the main motivation for teaching history is to impart positive stories about a nation's past to increase students' sense of loyalty to their countries and foster a powerful and positive sense of identity and belonging, issues such as exclusion, alienation, misconceptions or lack of knowledge may arise in students. If history teachers are heavily influenced by these traditional purposes, they cannot be expected to involve the use of evidence, interpretation of different perspectives, and historical enquiry in their teaching. Therefore, these views about the purpose of history may not be beneficial for teaching historical thinking.

2.1.2. Social and citizenship purposes of history teaching

Another common purpose of history teaching is to gain some social, democratic, and citizenry values (see, e.g., Barton and Levstik, 2004; Tosh, 2008; White, 1992). While politicians tend to use history for their own political interests such as promoting national solidarity or providing a rationale background for their political decisions, people who cherish liberal educational visions work very hard to promote a literate, engaged and critical citizenry by using history (Seixas, 2017). White (1992) argues that the main purpose of teaching history in schools is directly related to the cultivation of some personal characteristics such as "self-knowledge, self-determination and concern for the well-being of others", and he states that those qualities will enable students to be effective citizens in a liberal-democratic society (White, 1992, p. 19). He argues that making citizenship an objective for history teaching is necessary and valuable for preparing young people to become conscious members of a liberal, pluralist democratic society. White (1992) emphasises the necessity of students' understanding of democratic institutions and their values. To be able to reach these understandings, students will need some historical understanding of how things have changed and developed to date, and how it might have been different under other circumstances. Barton and Levstik (2004) also argue that history teaching in schools should develop students' democratic consciousness.

The questions of what history is and what it is for cannot be answered simply through pedagogical lenses as these answers also include partly political and fundamentally philosophical concerns (Slater, 1992). Therefore, Slater (1992) argues that social and disciplinary aims of history should be targeted together. According to Slater (1992), preparing students to participate in the pluralist, liberal-democratic societies can count as an aim for teaching history at school. Thus, he distinguishes between two types of aims for history.

The first category, which has been called intrinsic aims, focuses on the specialised requirements of the subject: for instance, knowledge and understanding of the Trans-Atlantic slave trade and its impacts on the British Empire, or knowing and using some historical terms such as 'feudalism', BC, and AD (Slater, 1992). The second category focuses on extrinsic purposes, which are fundamentally related to educational and transformative aims. Slater (1992) argues that educational aims can be wider and while they do not need to depend on history, they should not be totally separated from it. These aims can help educators support students' understanding of their countries' cultural, and national roots or raise them to be effective democratic citizens.

It is, however, important to note that the practice of labelling the aims of history education as intrinsic and extrinsic has been widely debated and usuall condemned because it requires an overly simplistic approach to separate them from each other (e.g. Lee, 1984; White, 1992). For instance, Lee (1984, p. 13) asks what would happen if "something that expands one's conception of the world does not fall exactly into either category." In fact, some conceptions do belong to both intrinsic and extrinsic categories, such as being able to think independently and critically or evaluating all the evidence before judgment. As can be seen in the literature, learning to think historically has been interpreted very differently by history educators and researchers. For instance, while Lee and Ashby (2000) equates this term with tools that construct disciplinary historical knowledge, Wineburg (2001) argues that historical thinking is

a way of thinking which can make people more humane. In this case, historical thinking can be interpreted as both an intrinsic and extrinsic aim of history teaching. Thus, it would be better to investigate the various possible purposes of history teaching on their own merits, without being overly concerned about labelling them (White, 1992).

Because of the effects of globalisation and increasing socio-cultural diversity, other education systems are using school history to promote "appreciation of cultural diversity, celebrate cultural pluralism, and combat racism" (Haydn *et al*., 2015, p. 24). In the USA, for instance, Barton and Levstik (2004) argue that school history should have well-thought aims and targets in order to raise students as desirable citizens according to the 21st-century requirements. They also insist that the main and overarching purpose of public education in the USA is to prepare pupils for being effective citizens in a democratic society (Barton & Levstik, 2004). Furthermore, as discussed above, teaching historical thinking has also been seen as important for achieving the generic aims of education, which are generally linked to the societal concerns. History teaching based on the development of historical thinking therefore provides opportunities to improve students' social, cultural and moral aspects, thus making an important contribution to education for citizenship. Consequently, some educators may accept that the demands and purposes of school history are both related to both academic and social aims (Barton & Levstik, 2004).

Practical research conducted with history teachers tend to strengthen these theoretical arguments above. Husbands *et al*. (2003) conducted research with eight history teachers via in-depth interviews and lesson observations in English schools. They found that the majority of teachers stated that the main purposes of studying history are linked to the development of citizenship. Minding that the timing of this study is critical as it was conducted at the time where Citizenship was developed as a school subject, the findings emphasized the importance of citizenship purposes in history teaching. According to this research, the shared aims were

mostly teaching history to develop empathy, promote tolerance and respect for diversity (Husbands *et al*., 2003). Five of the participating teachers referred to historical 'skills' while discussing the goals of history in schools. They specified these skills as "questioning the world around them, thinking independently and critically, evaluating all the evidence before reaching a judgment and striving for balance" (Husbands *et al*., 2003, p. 130). For instance, one teacher's aim for history teaching was to raise questioning students, and another teacher responded that they wanted to use history to foster enquiring minds by using history. In another study from Austria, Bernhard (2017, p. 8) found that teachers who participated in his research saw elements belonging to historical thinking as significant aspects of history education, such as "fostering critical thinking, understanding the present by dealing with the past and participation in political discourse and historical culture". Although these purposes seemed to align with historical thinking to some extent, they mainly echoed the generic educational ways of thinking rather than being history-specific. The purposes and examples mentioned here were lacking in suggestions about how historical phenomena and events need to be approached, how to use primary sources to understand events and contexts better, and how to develop overall chronological sense and awareness. Adopting teaching based entirely on social and civic purposes can also lead to deficiencies in the teaching of the disciplinary aspects of historical thinking.

2.1.3. Learning history to be historically literate and to develop historical consciousness

Academic studies which empower and encourage disciplinary dimensions of school history started to dominate the literature on history teaching, especially during the last two decades. According to Lee (1992), for instance, students should not learn about the past for social engineering or political propaganda purposes, but for 'its own sake.' Therefore, history teaching should aim to develop acquisition of information about the past with an understanding of its disciplinary nature. Lee states that the reason for "teaching history is not that it changes

society, but that it changes pupils, it changes what they see in the world, and how they see it" (Lee, 1992, p. 23). Although Slater (1992) suggests history also has educational, social and even political purposes, he agrees with the idea that using history as a primary tool for changing society could be limited and insufficient. Specifically, history teaching cannot guarantee that people will be more tolerant, respectful, or open-minded after learning it, though, it may provide some intellectual tools for opening minds (Slater, 1992).

Lee's (1992) idea of changing students' views by educating them to be historically literate is different from changing their views by shaping them as democratic or patriotic citizens. According to him, history is a pathway to reach rational knowledge and to understand what happened in the past. History suggests a way to be able to see some particular problems in human behaviour, regardless of feelings and emotions people may have. Lee (1992, p. 24-25) also states that history is "taking on a set of second-order understandings, together with the rational passions (e.g. for truth and respect for evidence) which give historical understanding a universality that patriotism does not have".

Lee also clarified that what White (1992) offered as the aims of history teaching can be possible outcomes of learning about history. He stated, however, that they should not be considered as objectives because, after learning history, students are could be less patriotic or democratic than they were before. Moreover, he notes that what democracy includes and excludes, or what it means to be a democratic citizen, are not yet certain, and these concepts may vary according to different situations or points of view (Lee, 1992). For these reasons, Lee (1992) indicated that students need to understand the methodology of historiography and they should be able to examine some concepts such as change, difference, and significance, which should be given much higher priority among the purposes of school history.

From this point of view, one might argue that if the main focus is the grasp of second-order concepts such as cause and consequences, explanation, and students' historical accounts

related to the discipline, then these objectives may support better learning and historical thinking. Lee (2011) explains that second-order concepts are more likely to shape people's capability to do history. He insists that historical literacy is significant because it enables students and teachers to understand the essence of history education. According to him, to have sufficient historical literacy, students should acquire some knowledge and understandings, as follows.

First of all, students need to understand that history can help them see and comprehend the world (Shemilt, 2010). It requires understanding and learning related to the discipline of history that makes knowledge of the past possible (Lee & Ashby, 20011). This will enable them to understand how historical information can be acquired and how it can be tested. Students should also be aware of a set of attitudes such as a concern for validity and truth, and respect for evidence in their arguments, as well as respect for people in the past (Korber & Meyer-Hamme, 2015). Moreover, students need coherent substantive knowledge to be able to locate themselves in time and to see other possible points on different scales (Young, 2008). Thus, Lee (2011) states that historical literacy requires learning how to think historically. If a teacher views the purpose of teaching history as helping young minds to be historically literate, then this teacher will probably aim to improve students' historical thinking competencies.

In order to investigate different forms of historical consciousness, Rüsen (2006) focused on the application of students' narratives to moral reasoning in real life. He has investigated the concept of historical consciousness and developed a four-part typology of attitudes to the past as a tool for establishing moral orientation in the present. The first element of this typology is the traditional type of historical consciousness that supports the sustaining of fixed and unchanging moral responsibilities, without accepting the occurance of any considerable change over time (Rüsen, 2006). The second, or exemplary, type of historical consciousness focuses on events and people from the past by considering them as cultural universals only slightly

differing from themselves: history is used to provide beneficial examples and role-models. Accordingly, this form of historical consciousness means deriving lessons and messages from the past and applying them to life in the present day. Exemplary historical consciousness is oriented by rule-focused concerns, which means that historically derived and accepted rules from specific cases should be applied to actual situations. Furthermore, this type of historical consciousness attempts to make a considerable contribution towards moral reasoning. Rüsen (2006, p. 74) argues that "exemplary historical thought discloses the morality of a value or value system culturally embodied in social and personal life by proving its generality." Essentially, history attempts to teach a moral argument by applying some consideration of principles to particular and concrete situations. Consequently, as the above instances show, the traditional and exemplary types of historical consciousness cannot be linked to historical thinking.

Critical historical consciousness is the third type. According to this view, history may turn back to the past in order to change perspectives on problematic issues: one example is feminist history, that tries to shed new light on the oppressive gender discrimination of the past. Critical historical consciousness can make a contribution to moral values by its ethical evaulations: it also challenges the morality of one period by focusing on and investigating opposing views. Furthermore, one variant of this form of thinking may provide moral reasoning by constructing a critique of ideologies (Rüsen, 2006); it also investigates the idea that the present could be different if something had been done differently in the past.

Rüsen's final categorisation is the genetic type that accepts that the legacy of the past is still ongoing, but also understands and appreciates that current circumstances have been changed radically. In the light of this kind of historical consciousness, moral reasoning relies fundamentally on the concept of temporal change as essential or decisive for determining the validity of moral values. Rüsen (2006) presents this typology as a hierarchy regarding cognitive

and moral complexity. Hence, this typology can be used as a lens for investigating individual and sociocultural progressions (Seixas, 2005).

However, Rüsen also mentions the limitations and potential risks of this typology. He writes, "elements of all four types are operatively intermixed in the procedure which gives practical life a historical orientation in time" (Rüsen, 2006, p. 80). Moreover, Seixas (2005, p. 8) argues about this potential "danger of an overly linear, one-dimensional model of progress that takes the cultural tools of modern Europe as the goal for all cultures". Seixas (2005) also argues that Rüsen' scheme is based on the experience of time, perceptions of historical significance, and moral judgments, values, and reasoning. Moreover, Rüsen does not explain how these orientations can be linked to the main practices of historians, like critical reading or discussing evidence. However, it can still be said that while the traditional and exemplary types of historical consciousness are more closely linked to the traditional understandings of history teaching, the critical and genetic types of historical consciousness are more closely related to historical thinking.

2.1.4. Summary

As it can be seen in this section, the purposes of history education in schools have been widely and passionately debated by many educators. Although the desirable aims of history teaching may vary according to time, place and society, it can be said that the social, civic, national and disciplinary aims of teaching history are the most common purposes for teaching about the past. Each purpose of history teaching can shape a teacher's lesson style and conceptions very differently. It has also been observed that, while national or propagandist aims of teaching history are often unsuitable to learning historical thinking, others, such as social and civic aims, may overlap with historical thinking at some generic points. This is because social and citizenship purposes tend to develop some skills for promoting tolerance, thinking independently and questioning the sources they learn. Therefore, we can assume that there is a

link between how history teachers view the purpose of history teaching and which sorts of outcomes they might want to achieve. From this point of view, the understanding and views of history teachers concerning the purposes of history education will offer an important insight for this study. Thus, exploring history teachers' understanding of the the purpose of teaching history will contribute greatly to this study as this can be linked to how they try to teach historical thinking.

2.2. HISTORICAL THINKING

In recent decades, as discussed in the previous section of this chapter, school history was the scene of many 'history wars' concerning its theoretical and ideological purposes of history teaching (Taylor & Guyver, 2012). However, alongside these 'wars', there have been also significant debates on history curriculum and pedagogy such as content vs skill, traditional vs progressive, and child-centred vs subject-centred pedagogies (Chapman, 2015). These debates reveal that, although learning about factual knowledge is clearly necessary, there are further aspects that a teaching disciplinary subject must cover. Donovan and Bransford (2005, p.1), for example, stressed the need "to develop competence in an area of inquiry, students must (a) have a deep foundation of factual knowledge, (b) understand facts and ideas in the context of a conceptual framework, and (c) organize knowledge in ways that facilitate retrieval and application". Similarly, Lee (2005) also emphasised the necessity of developing students' conceptual and procedural understanding for history teaching.

These debates influenced a shift towards more discipline-based teaching of school history by teaching historical concepts and valuing inquiry linked to historical thinking, and this tendency has been prominent in the history curricula in both England and elsewhere (see Bernhard, 2018; Levisohn, 2015). One of the main objectives of school history now is to teach historical thinking concepts (such as cause and consequence, change and continuity, and significance) and competencies (e.g., forming historical questions, analysing trends, making

connections) (see DfE, 2013), and the key point of these competencies has been acknowledged as helping students think, question, and understand the world around them (Shemilt, 2010) through the systematic study of the past. All these discussions triggered a radical change in school history in England in terms of teaching more discipline specific history several decades ago (see, e.g., Counsell, 2000; Chapman 2015; Lee, 2005).

In England, the roots of changes and reformation of attitudes towards disciplinary history education might be linked to the Schools Council History Project 13-16 (SCHP, which becames SHP), launched in 1972 (see Lee, 2014; Shemilt 1980). The core idea of the project was engaging students as active learners and adopting disciplinary approaches while studying history. As Lee (2011, p. 138) suggested, this project was "the most important landmark in both research and curriculum development in history education in the UK in the second half of the twentieth century". However, some aspects of SCHP can be considered controversial as there were some problems such as mismatches between objectives and assessments. For example, while objectives focus on conceptual understanding, the assessment criteria were related to acquisitions of core knowledge (Dawson, 1989). Specifically, when the new GCSE was introduced in the 1980s, debates related to this project arose (Dawson, 1989).

SCHP can be considered a starting point for thinking critically about the strategies and instruments of historiography in order to reach a historical conclusion (Fordham, 2012). The success of this project can be related to the creation of more opportunities to do source analyses and interpretations in history lessons during the final part of the twentieth century (Fordham, 2012). This project has clearly challenged the idea of teaching one accepted official narrative and it has emphasised the necessity of improving historical thinking competences in young people (Fordham, 2012).

After SCHP, attempts to teach disciplinary historical knowledge became one of the main focuses of school history in England. This sort of knowledge can be defined as an

"understanding of the uses and limitations of various primary sources as evidence in reconstructing the past, and an understanding of cause and consequence, continuity and change and similarity and difference in historical explanation" (Shemilt, 1980, p. 5). Moreover, over the last two decades, British history educators and researchers have been productive in elaborating upon the theoretical and philosophical groundworks of historical thinking, and also conducting empirical studies for identifying students' conceptions and understanding of the discipline (see Lee & Shemilt, 2003; Lee & Shemilt, 2004). As a result of such studies, the place of historical thinking can clearly be seen in policy and curriculum papers (see, e.g., DfE, 2013; DfE, 2008). In the most recent version of the curriculum, some of the key purposes of teaching history are listed as equipping young people with a set of abilities such as asking perceptive questions, weighing evidence, thinking critically, sifting arguments and judgement (DfE, 2013). Additionally, understanding historical thinking concepts such as change and continuity, cause and consequence, similarity and difference, and significance, and the resulting ability to "draw contrasts, analyse trends, frame historically valid questions, and create their own structured accounts, including written narratives and analyses", have been highlighted as key aims of the current history curriculum. Furthermore, understanding procedural aspects of history such as the methods of historical enquiry, and the use of historical sources and evidence are suggested as means to conceptualise how historical claims, accounts, and contrasting arguments and interpretations of the past have been constructed.

2.2.1. Different understandings of historical thinking around the world

As mentioned in the Introduction, Lévesque and Clark (2018) investigated the different definitions of historical thinking and its educational applications in various countries. They found that among British history educators and researchers, historical thinking mainly refers to several aspects of disciplinary-based history teaching, and to determine how students develop a conceptual understanding (Lévesque & Clark, 2018). Lévesque and Clark (2018) have also

outlined the several terminologies attributed to historical thinking. The second-order concepts one of the most common ideas linked to historical thinking. Lee and Ashby (2000:199) describe second-order concepts as "ideas that provide our understanding of history as a discipline or form of knowledge … they shape the way we go about doing history". They distinguish second-order concepts from the substantive aspects of history education: while first-order concepts refer to what history is about, second-order concepts (such as *change and continuity, causation, similarity and difference, and significance*) can be described as tools that are helpful for doing history (Lee & Ashby, 2000).

Lee (2017) also introduced the term 'historical literacy'. He stated that "students need to be taught about how to choose between answers to specific questions, which may carry with them specific, if sometimes implicit, reference to criteria for valid answers" (Lee, 2017, p. 60). With this sort of approach, students can actually gain insight into how historical knowledge is constructed. He also argued that second-order concepts have an important role in promoting historical literacy because these concepts provide the necessary conceptual tools for students to understand history (Lee, 2017). In addition to second-order concepts, Lee and Ashby (2000) also involved procedural aspects such as *historical enquiry, historical interpretations, and historical evidence*, as significant dimensions of historical thinking that help to form historical knowledge.

As in the UK, teaching how to think historically has played a very important role in the development of history education in many different countries such as the USA, Canada, Germany, Austria and Spain, which have moved towards a similar approach (e.g., Cercadillo, 2015; Körber & Meyer-Hamme, 2015; Seixas, 2017; Wineburg, 2001). According to the German context of historical thinking, the teaching of history now aims to foster students' mastery of historical thinking by rejecting the traditional idea of using history to introduce nationally accepted narratives to young minds (Körber & Meyer-Hamme, 2015). Hasberg and

Körber (2003) suggested a set of competencies that teaching of historical thinking needs to involve: *competence in questioning (or enquiry), methodological competence, orientational competence (in relation to time), and disciplinary competence (historical thinking concepts)*. With that, Lévesque and Clark (2018) identify this model of historical thinking as more theoretical in nature and focussed mainly on historical consciousness. They, therefore, stated that German model is relatively more difficult to apply to the history curriculum and the assessment of the subject.

Canda is one of the leading countries within the scope of historical thinking studies. Seixas established the Historical Thinking Project (2006), which identified six historical thinking skills: *historical significance, evidence, continuity and change, cause and consequence, perspective-taking, and ethical dimensions* of history. In Seixas and Ercikan's study (2015, p. 256), historical thinking has been described as some "competencies, with four dimensions: competence in questioning, methodological competence, orientation competence (ability to relate history to one's own life), and subject area competence (knowledge about conceptual terms in history including substantive [like 'revolution'] and procedural [like 'periodisation']". Seixas (2017) states that students can claim that they know history only if they understand the nature of the discipline, such as the use of evidence, methods of making claims, explanation, and causal analysis. Otherwise, students can only acquire historical information, dictated to them by someone else, and they will not be able to evaluate and discuss this given information. Without disciplinary history teaching, Seixas (2017) also highlights the potential for students to become confused when confronted with contradictory historical claims. For these reasons, these competencies and ideas have become important resources for educators and curriculum designers in Canada and have significantly influenced the history of teaching (Seixas & Morton, 2013).

In America, the related literature shows that main focus was on improving students' disciplinary literacy and reading and writing abilities (Lévesque & Clarke, 2018). Wineburg (2001) developed the 'Reading Like a Historian' curriculum, which engages with teaching historical thinking and enquiry skills by focussing on students' understanding of primary resources and inspiring them to become critical thinkers and democratic citizens. According to Wineburg (2001), historical thinking is a systematic process of recognition that the past is different from the present, and it has several distinctive and disciplinary procedures for making meaning about the past. He also concludes, for this reason, that historical thinking is unnatural and requires systematic and well-considered teaching (Wineburg, 2001). Similarly, Barton and Levstik (2004, p. 10) also suggested a list of 'cultural tools' for 'doing history' such as "the narrative structure of history, enquiry as reflective thought, historical empathy as perspective recognition and empathy as caring". Their argument mainly suggests that emotional connection and interest are essential for caring and learning about history (Lévesque, 2012).

As can be seen, the American model of historical thinking is tightly focussed on the acquisition of democratic citizenship skills, alongside its disciplinary aspects. Educating young people with the necessary abilities to participate in the democratic society is one of the primary aims of teaching historical thinking in the U.S. (Lévesque & Clark, 2018). These citizenship concerns are also apparent in Canadian and German models, with the emphasis on ethical dimensions in the Canadian model and on the concept of historical consciousness in the German model. Although the citizenship aim is present in the English model, it is not as conopicuous as in the other models (Lévesque & Clark, 2018).

As it can be seen in the discussions above, there are several definitions for and understandings of historical thinking in the literature from around the world. Similarly, the literature shows that there is a diversity of terms used for historical thinking (Lévesque & Clark, 2018). Scholars tend to use similar phrases, such as 'historical thinking skills' (Barton &

Levstik, 2004; Seixas, 2006), 'historical literacy' (Lee, 2011), 'historical reasoning' (Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2018), 'historical consciousness' (Rusen, 2006), and 'second-order concepts' (Shemilt, 2010) in order to define historical thinking. Although these terms refer to similar aspects of discipline-based history teaching, there can be small differences among them. For example, while second-order concepts refer to more intrinsic aspects of history, historical consciousness may contain aims for moral development as well (Rüsen, 2006). Therefore, understanding what history teachers mean by historical thinking is an essential point to explore in this study. For the purposes of this research, historical thinking has been defined in relation to the understanding of second-order concepts, such as cause and consequence, change and continuity, which are used to shape and explain the past (Lee, 2005) and the process of reconstructing the past, using sources critically, and investigating how and why different interpretations of the past come to be (Shemilt, 2010).

2.2.2. Disciplinary concepts of historical thinking

Although there are slightly differing understandings of historical thinking, there is some consistency when it comes to identifying disciplinary concepts in history (e.g., change and continuity, cause and consequence, significance, similarity and difference). Maybe the biggest contribution to the field has been made by Peter Seixas who identified, what he termed as the big six historical thinking concepts (Seixas, 2017). These concepts can be outlined as follows:

"Establishing Historical Significance, use of Primary Source Evidence, identify Continuity and Change, Analyse Cause and Consequence, Taking Historical Perspective, Understand the Ethical Dimensions" (Seixas, 2017, p. 595).

The literature produced in the UK, however, suggests slightly different concepts, which can be listed as follows: historical change and continuity, historical significance, historical causation, and historical similarity and difference (Chapman & Hale, 2017; Lee, 2005; Shemilt, 2010). In addition to these concepts, procedural aspects such as working with evidence,

understanding historical interpretations, and using historical sources need to be developed to understand and validate the construction of historical claims (Chapman, 2021).

One of the most important and widely accepted concepts across different history education contexts is historical significance: there is no objective measures of historical significance as it can change with time, perspective, and place. Therefore, historical significance should not be treated as some fixed narrative of an event and it should also not be regarded as something unproblematic to teach (Bradshaw, 2006). The main aim of those who advance historical significance in the history classroom has been to make its complicated assumptions accesible to students by using meaningful approaches. Cercadillo (2006, p. 7) suggests that students need to have an adequate ability to "play with the ideas, challenge and own them for genuine problematising work on historical significance to be achieved".

Another highly important concept in historical thinking is change and continuity. These concepts have started to take on an important role in history education since the Schools Council History Project. Although there is increasing interest and growing literature, teaching change and continuity is still seen as very challenging by history teachers (Foster, 2013). For example, Shemilt (2000, p. 89) states that some students tend to accept change in history as the headline of events rather than "the consequences thereof for people in general". He also expresses the view that students mostly think that historical narratives are seen as "series of changes (actions and events, inventions and discoveries) separated by periods of quiescence in which nothing happens" (2000, p. 90). Similarly, Foster (2013) wanted to prepare her students to write an analytical essay on change and continuity, but she realised that writing this essay was very challenging for her students. Students' essays were mainly descriptive instead of explanatory and their analyses were based on temporal dimensions. (Foster, 2013).

One of the most fundamental and thoroughly studied elements of historical thinking is the idea of causation. To have an adequate historical understanding, it is essential to deal with

the problem of historical causation and consequence (Seixas, 2017). For many students it can be very challenging to understand the concept of causation, "that there are multiple reasons for why historical events occurred and transpired in the way in which they did, and that there is not a neat and linear progression from start to finish for a historical event" (Waring, 2010, p. 283). Chapman (2015, p. 5) states that "unless we help them to learn otherwise, students tend to narrate when they are asked to explain, to provide lists of causes or factors without exploring how the items in the list might interrelate and to talk about causes without demonstrating understanding of what the specific consequences of particular actions, events and states of affairs might be."

In terms of the use of evidence, although there are counter-arguments as to whether historical evidence is a concept or procedural element of history, Ashby (2011) suggests that evidence is not something we practise; instead, it is something we need to understand through careful and systematic study and analysis. According to Ashby (2011), the use of historical evidence is the process of contemplating the value of a historical source "in relation to a specific enquiry, examining the basis on which a historical particular might rest or considering the ways in which facts are used within historical accounts". Lee (2005) discussed why students should learn the use of evidence in history education. According to him, "the concept of evidence is central to history because it is only through the use of evidence that history is possible" (Lee, 2005, p. 54). Historians construct narratives or arguments about the past through critical analyses of multiple sources of evidence. Students should learn how to judge different sources of evidence. He also stated, "the ability to recall accounts without any understanding of the problems involved in constructing them or the criteria involved in evaluating them has nothing historical about it" (Lee, 1994, p. 45).

Another discussion within the literature is related to whether diversity is a concept (e.g. Bradshaw, 2009; Counsell, 2009). Diversity tends to be understood as studying 'other' histories

or others' histories. In this context, a generic sense of diversity suggests the study of substantive content coming from beyond the local mono-ethnic curriculum. However, Counsell (2009), for example, argues that diversity also suggests looking at a variety of perspectives, experiences, and contexts by examining the similarities and differences within and between groups, and this may be a conceptual aspect of diversity. In this way, diversity can offer a wider meaning rather than simply making generalisations and appreciating the complexity of the past because it encourages considering the limitations of generalisations (Counsell, 2009).

Finally, historical perspective taking and historical empathy have been considered significant, yet controversial in teaching historical thinking. The term 'empathy' was used by the School Council History Project (Shemilt, 1980). On one hand, in the SCHP courses, the term 'historical empathy' has been used as "a label for historians' attempts to understand past beliefs, values and practices and to explain actions by reconstructing means-ends reasoning" (Lee & Shemilt, 2011, p. 39). On the other hand, in Canada, taking historical perspectives has been defined as "imagining oneself into the situations of people who lived in circumstances far removed from our present-day lives" (Seixas, 2015, p. 268). As these two concepts have very similar meanings, they will be elaborated upon together.

Historical empathy is built upon two assumptions: "first that people give meaning to the world, second that we can only explain what people do to the extent that we can make sense of their meanings, whether expressed in individual actions or embedded in collective mentalities" (Lee & Shemilt, 2011, p. 40). After the mid-1980s, the concept of empathy started to be a focus for reformist developments in the field of history education (Lee & Shemilt, 2011). The benefits of being able to investigate events, ideas, and attitudes of people in different times and places are debated by historians and history educators. However, although teaching empathy gained considerable attention in the 1980s, it was very controversial and never actually be the part of

the national curriculum in the UK. One of the biggest issues was assessing empathy because there was no criterion to assess students' understanding of this concept (Lee & Shemilt, 2011).

Notably, one of the most important aspects of historical thinking is understanding the underpinnings of the discipline of history. These shared concepts, such as causation, continuity, and change, are frequently invoked because they are crucial for understanding and answering historical questions (Fordham, 2012). Historians are trying to answer questions such as "why did an event happen, what were the consequences of an event, to what extent did something change" (Fordham, 2012, p. 246). To be able to answer these kinds of questions, it is necessary to understand and study disciplinary concepts and methods. Therefore, these concepts are key elements for teaching history, because as Lee (2017) states, they are the tools that make historical knowledge possible.

2.2.3. Conclusion

In this section, the notion of historical thinking has been defined and evaluated by an investigation involving different meanings and terms around the world (Stephen & Lévesque, 2018). It appears that historical thinking may carry slightly different meanings and objectives in different contexts and pedagogical circles. Furthermore, researchers have varied perspectives, backgrounds, and possible disagreements over the objectives and methods of historical thinking (e.g., the place of historical empathy). However, most of the studies I referred to are academic discussions, and very few of them reflect practitioners' perspectives. This comparative lack of interest in history teachers' views on historical thinking and their ideas for teaching it has left an important gap in the literature. In order to fill this gap, a research question exploring history teachers' main understanding of and approaches to teaching historical thinking has been formed. Teaching historical thinking requires subject-specific and pedagogical knowledge and expertise. Therefore, in the next section, teachers' knowledge bases will be discussed in the light of teaching historical thinking.

2.3 THE KNOWLEDGE BASES OF TEACHERS

Teachers' knowledge has attracted significant attention from educators and policymakers, especially since the award of qualified teacher status (QTS) in 1998 (Wilkins, 2011). There is a broad educational literature which reflects this topic from very different angles. Several researchers (e.g., Shulman, 1986; Turner-Bisset, 1999; Verloop *et al*., 2001) have attempted to capture what a teacher's knowledge comprises, what knowledge bases teachers work with, and what knowledge bases teachers need. Until the early 1980s, the targets and purposes of the field were straightforward. The main target of the educational fields was to identify a professional knowledge that might provide higher student success and, afterwards, train teachers according to these demands through teacher training and in-service training (Verloop *et al*., 2001).

Subsequently, after the late 1990s, educational targets and teacher professionalism started to change and evolve. Three trends have been identified as a significant aspect of teacher improvements. The first standards for QTS (DfE, 1998) were designed to the standardise student teachers' craft skills and subject matter knowledge to achieve stronger educational outcomes. These standards, however, aroused disapproval on the grounds that they were overly instrumentalist and technicist (Menter *et al*., 2006). A revised model was introduced in 2002 (TDA, 2002), which mainly emphasised the place of 'professional values and practice'. Strengthening the cooperation between schools and higher education institutions was one of the main aims of this model. Thus, student teachers would have a chance to practise their teaching skills in schools partnered with university training programmes. The third model of teachers' professional standards in England extends its scope beyond entry into the profession "by requiring teachers at key career thresholds to demonstrate their continued development of professional skills, knowledge and understanding, and to broaden and deepen their professional attributes" (Wilkins, 2011, p. 389).

These three trends have encouraged the start of a couple of developments in the teaching profession. In the DES Circular 14/93 (1993), some of the competences include "strict new criteria which training courses must meet, focusing on the subject knowledge and teaching skills new teachers require to be effective in the classroom" (DES, 1993, p. 3). In addition to this, in 1995, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) was established and these skills were displaced by standards established by TTA. The main duty of the TTA was to improve the quality of teaching, to improve the main criteria for teacher education and training, and to accept and encourage teaching as a profession. In the following years, the development of teacher knowledge and competencies has continued gradually and attracted increasing attention. However, it is important to note that, after several name changes, the TTA was disbanded. At present, the Department for Education outlines the professional teachers' standards (DFE, 2011). This document explicitly shows that every teacher needs to have a broad and extensive range of different types of knowledge. Thus, as a first step, it might be beneficial to describe teacher knowledge.

Therefore, the next section will first define the concept of teacher knowledge; different knowledge bases that teachers may need while teaching historical thinking will be discussed in following sections.

2.3.1. Definition of teacher knowledge

Teacher knowledge may be defined as the total knowledge which a teacher needs to have at a specific moment which influences his or her actions (Carter, 1990). As mentioned above, as increasing consideration has been given to the significance of teacher knowledge, more studies have been conducted to investigate its elements (e.g., McKinsey, 2007; Shulman, 2006; Verloop *et al.*, 2001). In addition to this, several definitions and approaches have been adopted by different researchers and educators. For instance, Hawley and Valli (1999) stated the necessity of the growth and elaboration of teachers' knowledge bases as a critical matter of

their professional improvement. Therefore, it would be beneficial to discuss what knowledge bases teachers may need while approaching historical thinking.

When it comes to the definition of teacher knowledge, different opinions on essential knowledge bases for teachers have been expressed. A simple statement could suggest that teachers should be intellectually capable and well qualified for the subject they teach (McKinsey, 2007). However, strong substantive subject knowledge may not be enough, since it may not enable the teacher to find ways to relate knowledge to young people, which can be crucially important, especially while working with demotivated learners (Husbands, 2011). Therefore, Grossman and Richert (1988, p. 54), for instance, tend to describe teacher knowledge as a "body of professional knowledge that encompasses both knowledge of general pedagogical principles and skills and knowledge of the subject matter to be taught". Similarly, Husbands (2011) devoted an entire study to history teachers' knowledge bases. Besides subject knowledge, he also emphasised that history teachers should have the abilities to communicate with and understand students, and make learning relevant and real to them (Husbands, 2011). This suggests that the requirements for history teachers include subject knowledge, pedgogical knowledge, and knowledge about students.

Some researchers may insist that the knowledge base used in teaching should be separated from any behaviour that could be related to individual teacher's personal knowledge base. For instance, Tamir (1991) defines some ideas that are essential for teaching relevant knowledge and subject matter, while arguing for a separation between teachers' professional and personal knowledge. He defines "professional knowledge" as a "body of knowledge and skills which is needed to function successfully in a particular profession" (Tamir, 1991, p. 263). However, the separation between knowledge and beliefs may not be possible all the time because "in the mind of a teacher components of knowledge, beliefs and intuitions are inextricably intertwined" (Verloop *et al*., 2001, p. 446). Connelly and Clandinin (1988) argue

that teacher knowledge is strongly associated with personal experiences and conditions. In a different study, Connelly, Clandinin and Fang (1997, p. 666) state that "teacher knowledge research is part of a revolution in how educators think about classroom practice." The researchers approach the topic with the assumption that "the most important area is what teachers know and how their knowing is expressed in teaching" (Connelly *et al.*, 1997, p. 665).

Individual attributes and past experiences may play different roles in the teaching process: teachers' professional knowledge is only one of the aspects that affect their teaching. In the following sections, the main aim is to understand which knowledge bases teachers may need while teaching historical thinking. It can clearly be seen that teachers need some sort of knowledge to be able to teach effectively, and teacher knowledge obviously has many different aspects such as knowledge about curriculum, knowledge about resources and knowledge about pupils. In addition, teachers' past experiences, attitudes, values, and beliefs are also significant as they have an important impact on teaching styles. Some knowledge such as knowledge of purpose, pedagogies, sources, and activities (Haydn *et al.*, 2015) may enhance teachers' ability to teach historical thinking. Husbands (2011) indicated three main areas where history teachers need the expertise to engage in discipline-based history teaching: knowledge about the subject, knowledge about pupils, and knowledge about classroom practices. As the following section will show, each knowledge base may make a different contribution to teaching historical thinking in the classroom.

2.3.2. Categories of the teachers' knowledge bases

One of the most influential categories of teacher knowledge has been outlined by Shulman (1987). Previously, Shulman (1986) suggested a framework to describe the main aspects of content knowledge in teaching. Initially, he proposed three initial areas: subject matter content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curricular knowledge. These are summarised in the table below.

Table 1. Representation of Shulman's (1986) three categories of teacher knowledge.

Subject Matter Content Knowledge	Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)	Curricular Knowledge
- The amount of knowledge to be taught. - Content and theories need to be represented in several ways. - The teachers' subject matter content understanding in relation to the discipline.	- Subject matter for teaching. - The aspects most relevant to the teachability of the content. - Representations: analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, demonstrations. - Understanding what makes the learning of a topic easy or difficult.	- Programmes designed to teach particulars subjects and topics. - Instructional materials: texts, software, programmes, visual materials, films, demonstrations etc. - Understanding of the characteristics of the materials

In his scheme in 1987, he expanded from the initial three categories to consider seven different types of knowledge that all teachers need to promote understanding between themselves and their students. These categories can be shown as follows:

- *Content knowledge;*

- *General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter;*

- *Curriculum knowledge, with a particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as "tools of the trade" for teachers;*

- *Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding; Knowledge of learners and their characteristics;*

- *Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, and the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures; and*

- *Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds* (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).

In addition to Shulman, other authors have investigated the different types of knowledge bases teachers work with. For example, Elbaz (1983, p. 68) defines five ingredients for effective teacher knowledge: "knowledge of yourself, the environment, the content, the development of curriculum and instructional strategies". Like Elbaz, Calderhead (1996) emphasises five aspects of teacher knowledge: knowledge of yourself, subject matter knowledge, students' knowledge, curriculum and teaching methods. However, Putnam and Borko (1997) identified only three components: general pedagogical knowledge, content and pedagogical content.

When it comes to Grossman (1990), she focused on four interacting components of Shulman's proposal for the knowledge base for teaching: subject matter knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and knowledge of context. Carlsen (1999) also offered a similar proposal for identifying the teacher knowledge bases. However, Carlsen's model differs from Grossman (1990) in terms of emphasizing the relationship between the context and the specific relationship with the various knowledge spheres, representing the relationship between the wider educational context and the specific context of the classroom and individual learners.

According to the discussions above, teachers need different knowledge bases to be able to teach a topic effectively. When history teachers aim to teach historical thinking, they have to make some adjustments regarding the structure of the lessons, determining the different content areas and framing and juxtaposing them, as well as setting the tasks and activities for students to enable historical thinking (Fordham, 2012). Therefore, investigating history teachers' subject matter content knowledge for teaching historical thinking will be essential for this study. Additionally, teachers need practical theories about how students learn in general and how students gain an understanding of history (Husbands, 2011). Since these theories shape the way

teachers teach, their pedagogical understanding needs to be examined in this research in relation to teaching historical thinking. Furthermore, teachers are expected to draw upon different analogies, illustrations, examples, and explanations to underpin concepts and construct enquiries for teaching historical thinking (Husbands, 2011). This process requires a complex relationship between subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Wilson & Wineburg, 1998). Therefore the influence and place of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge will also be critical in the process of teaching historical thinking. Consequently, in the context of this research, it is important to discuss and evaluate how history teachers use their professional knowledge bases while handling historical thinking in their lessons.

2.3.2.1. Subject matter knowledge

After the 1970s, studies related to teacher knowledge bases explicitly focused on teacher competencies and gave less consideration to subject knowledge (Shulman, 1987). In his article, Shulman (1987) criticized this tendency in the emerging policies and re-emphasised the importance of subject matter knowledge. History teachers have a critical impact on implementing the curriculum and shaping the pedagogical practices; therefore, it is necessary to emphasise the place of teachers' disciplinary knowledge if further developments are to be made in these areas (Fordham, 2012). As discussed in the previous chapter, school history went through several developments in terms of how history is understood and how it should be taught. And, as discussed in Chapter 2.2.2., it is important to teach students that history is constructed by using disciplinary concepts, as shown in the national curriculum. Therefore, history teachers need to have a good disciplinary understanding of the subject. This disciplinary knowledge requires both knowledge about the content to be taught and knowledge about the methodologies of the discipline itself. Therefore, as Shulman (1986) stated, subject matter knowledge should involve knowledge of concepts, ideas, theories, knowledge of proofs, and evidence in addition to practices and attempts to improve this knowledge. Subject matter

knowledge is combined with the disciplinary content knowledge which Grossman, Wilson, and Shulman (1989) termed substantive knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and beliefs about the subject matter. Shulman (1986, p. 9) defines substantive and syntactic structures as follows:

"The substantive structures are the variety of ways in which the basic concepts and principles of the discipline are organized to incorporate its facts. The syntactic structure of a discipline is the set of ways in which truth or falsehood, validity or invalidity, are established."

Turner-Bisset (1999) indicates that subject matter or content knowledge can be established by involving substantive knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and beliefs about the subject, arguing that the substantive part of a discipline can be understood as the concepts that help to teach information and frameworks. So substantive knowledge in history refers to the content of history, such as what history is about, including both substantive content and concepts (Lee & Ashby, 2001). Syntactic knowledge, on the other hand, is the means of producing and generating propositional knowledge (Turner-Bisset, 1999). In history, these are the processes by which historians often try to create their own consistent accounts by rigorously testing evidence. Syntactic knowledge, therefore, involves concepts like causation, change, explanation, interpretation and evidence. The syntactic processes in history can also be defined as "those of ordered enquiry, systematic analysis and evaluation, argument, logical rigour, and a search for the truth" (DES/Welsh Office, 1990 in Turner-Bisset, 1999, p. 4). Therefore, the teaching of historical thinking requires a grasp of syntactic knowledge in history in addition to the content knowledge.

While planning a sequence of lessons, a history teacher needs to "reflect carefully not just on the substance of what is studied, important as that is, but also on the way in which that question has already been approached within the discipline" (Fordham, 2012, p. 247). Husbands

(2011) summarised and depicted this process as history teachers' knowledge about history (see Table 2).

History teachers' knowledge about history		
Substantive Content Knowledge	Procedural Concepts	Conceptualisation of the discipline
Knowledge of content and context ⟷	e.g., 'change', 'evidence', 'continuity' ⟷	Understandings of the nature of history as a framework and structure for knowledge

Table 2. History teachers' knowledge about history (Husbands, 2011, p. 87)

Stanley (1991) and Cruse (1994) examine content knowledge and argue that this is one of the most important features of a successful history teacher. The study of Wilson and Wineburg (1988) conducted with novice and expert history teachers reached similar findings. However, Husbands (2011) argues that relying only on teachers' detailed content knowledge for better history teaching could be misleading. Husbands (2011) acknowledges that knowledge about the content is critical for successful teaching, yet not sufficient in itself. Learning to teach a particular subject also involves an understanding of and practice in handling complex procedural aspects. For example, as mentioned in the previous sections, one of the fundamental requirements of specialising in a subject is gaining the ability to question or, in other words, enquire (Körber, 2015). In history, an enquiry design requires teachers to have a strong substantive knowledge of the period, a good grasp of the historiography, and knowledge about how students might be oriented towards the outcome during a complex process (Fordham, 2012). Shulman (1986, p. 9) explains this as a teacher "need not only understand that something is so; the teacher must further understand why it is so, on what grounds its warrant can be asserted, and under what circumstances our belief in its justification can be weakened and even denied." Based on this, successful practices of teaching historical thinking integrate knowledge about evidence with classroom enquiry. Husbands (2011) highlights the relationship between evidential material in the context of a real historical question by considering "what does this show us, why does it show us that, what does it not show us". So 'doing history' can be a

parameter of good history lessons. In addition to this, while teaching a particular topic, teachers may need an understanding of which topics are central, while others can be peripheral (Shulman, 1986).

Although these theoretical discussions are broad and extensive in the related literature, the extent to which they can be applied to teachers' schemes of work and lessons and how they help in teaching historical thinking still need to be established. Husbands (2011) found that some history teachers have sophisticated knowledge about managing the relationships between procedural and substantive knowledge, and some knew the importance of using procedural concepts to structure lessons. In this context, although individuals may assume that acquiring adequate subject knowledge is easy, simply requiring the use of history textbooks, this can be a complicated process in practice, especially when people have an agenda requiring the development of particular competencies like historical thinking. In fact, teachers may think that they engage in historical thinking, but may actually be teaching very weak and stereotypical content in the classroom. Therefore, for teaching historical thinking, teachers need knowledge of the substantive and syntactic nature of history, and they also need to know how to communicate their knowledge by using appropriate resources and classroom activities. For this reason, history teachers' pedagogical knowledge about teaching historical thinking is also a significant element within the scope of this research.

2.3.2.2. General pedagogical knowledge

While teaching historical thinking concepts, it can be very important for teachers to have adequate knowledge about pedagogy, including classroom principles, various teaching techniques, and modes of instructions. Firstly, general pedagogical knowledge is knowledge about teaching, and competency in this area is mostly gained from practice. Shulman (1986-1987) is one of the pioneer researchers in the field with regard to defining pedagogical knowledge. According to him, "general pedagogical knowledge involves special reference to

those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter; as well as knowledge about learning and learners, assessment, and educational contexts and purposes" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).

Subsequent researchers extended Shulman's definition, including knowledge in terms of aspects of student motivation and heterogeneity, as well as teaching methods and assessment in their definitions of pedagogical knowledge (e.g., Barko & Putnam, 1996; Voss, Kunter, & Baumert, 2011). For instance, Grossman and Richert (1988, p. 54) indicate that general pedagogical knowledge "includes knowledge of theories of learning and general principals of instruction, an understanding of the various philosophies of education, general knowledge about learners, and knowledge of the principles, and techniques of classroom management". According to these definitions, a teacher clearly needs this sort of knowledge to construct coherent understanding and competences if they would like to be able to deal with the triangle that builds a connection among learners, subject matter, and the teacher in the classroom (McDonald, 1992).

When it comes to the relationship between historical thinking and pedagogical knowledge, Fordham (2012) argues that the degree of curriculum and pedagogical knowledge is necessary because planning a sequence of lessons in which students are expected to interpret and analyse historical sources and form historical questions is a very complex process. While creating these types of lesson, a teacher should not only possess the necessary substantive and syntactic knowledge, but also needs to know the ways in which the different interpretations or perspectives will be used in their lessons. He also states that "it is in this sense that pedagogical thought is historical thinking" (Fordham, 2012, p, 247-248). Fordham explains this process below:

> In planning an enquiry on the abolition of the slave trade, a history teacher has, for this to be a meaningful enquiry in a disciplinary sense, to engage with the

historiography. In doing so, a teacher will come to grasp the disciplinary context in which the question is set; inevitably, they will also position themselves in relation to that question. From this, of course, will stem a number of pedagogical considerations: how will pupils be guided through the historiography? How will this be structured around the factual and conceptual knowledge that those pupils will need to answer the question? (Fordham, 2012, p. 248).

From this point of view, to be able to decide which pedagogical approach may work better, a teacher needs to have sufficient knowledge of content, new theories about the subject, students, and educational tools while teaching a topic. To teach historical thinking in a classroom, the teacher should know how specific techniques and methods may be effective for different groups of students.

2.3.2.3. Curriculum knowledge

The curriculum knowledge of teachers has been a significant focus in educational research, having gained more attention in recent studies (Counsell, 2011; Harris & Reynolds, 2018). Having adequate curriculum knowledge can be very important for teachers seeking to improve their teaching of historical thinking competencies. Shulman (1986, p. 10) states that "the curriculum is represented by the full range of programs designed for the teaching of particular subjects and topics, at a given level, the variety of instructional materials available in relation to those programs, and the set of characteristics that serve as both the indications and contraindications for the use of particular curriculum or program materials in particular circumstances." Thus, a history teacher who wants to teach historical thinking needs to know about the National Curriculum, GCSE and A level specifications. It is also important to be aware of the limitations and strengths of the curriculum for teaching historical concepts. Specifically, teachers should have enough knowledge to decide upon alternative resources to use to improve teaching.

In addition to the knowledge of alternative curriculum materials required for a specific subject in the classroom, curriculum knowledge has two additional aspects. A professional teacher needs to know "available curriculum materials relevant to the targeted topic by their students in other subjects they are studying at the same time" (Shulman, 1986, p. 10). Curriculum materials should not only be limited to government texts, as the concept is wider than that (Turner-Bisset, 1999). Many history teachers tend to complain about the limited and exclusive versions of the official textbooks and curriculum. These kinds of textbooks and curricula may be too limited in their coverage of knowledge for the different groups and elements of society. For instance, Kinloch (2005) states that introducing different perspectives from Islamic history is not an easy process; therefore, teachers may face some challenges while trying to include these perspectives in Western education curricula. These kinds of problems can increase the difficulty of teaching certain historical thinking competencies such as different perspective taking, empathy, and examining historical interpretations.

Thus, teaching history can be constrained by the teachers' knowledge and understanding of the curriculum. Although this shortcoming can also be caused by teachers' subject knowledge, Turner-Bisset (1999) proposes that teachers should be able to perform critical evaluations of curriculum materials with respect to their purposes.

2.3.2.4. Pedagogical content knowledge

In 1986, Shulman presented a term that referred to PCK as an element of the knowledge base for teaching. Key elements of Shulman's proposal are to involve knowledge related to specific contexts and representations of instructional strategies and understanding students' learning necessities and difficulties. Shulman (1986, p. 9) pointed out that this knowledge, related to "the most regularly taught topics in one's subject area, includes representations of knowledge (analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations and demonstrations), and student learning difficulties and strategies to deal with them". Shulman's Pedagogical Content

Knowledge represents "the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (1986, p. 8). Shulman (1987) states that Pedagogical Content Knowledge is a specific blend of content and pedagogy, which in essence, is one's professional understanding of content relevant to the teaching (see figure I).
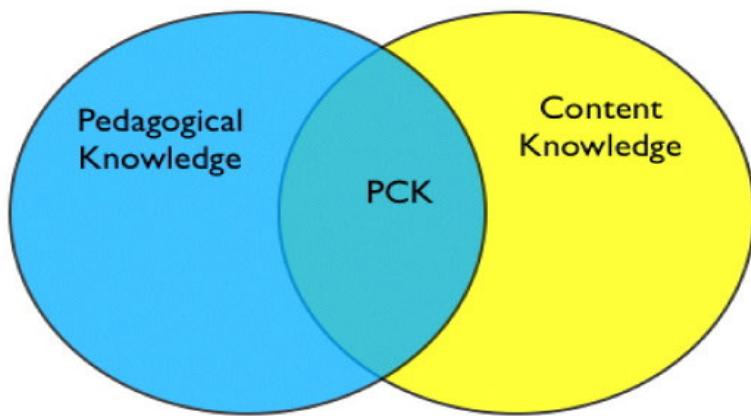
Figure 1. Shulman's notion of Pedagogical Content Knowledge

The development of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is a very significant target to focus on in professional development programmes, as PCK involves understanding how students learn or struggle with particular subjects. The related literature clearly demonstrates "the complex nature of PCK as a form of teachers' professional knowledge that is highly topic, person, and situation specific" (Van Driel and Berry 2012, p. 26).

Grossman (1990) evaluates Shulman's knowledge base idea for teachers: this represents the hierarchy of knowledge of teaching objectives for the specific content of knowledge of the curriculum and other areas of information covered by the PCK. In Grossman's (1990) study conducted among English teachers, she identified a broad meaning of pedagogical content knowledge on the basis of four main components: curriculum, knowledge of pupils' understanding, educational strategies and teaching objectives. In another study, Rollnick *et al*. (2008) stated that PCK brings together four areas of the teachers' knowledge bases. They are

"a) content Knowledge; b) Knowledge of students; c) General pedagogical Knowledge; d) context Knowledge" (Rollnick *et al.*, 2008, p. 35).

In another research, Gess-Newsome (1999, p. 14) proposed two hypothetical models to express the origin and progression of PCK, "The Integrative Model and The Transformative Model". "The integrative model considers PCK as the intersection between the educational, disciplinary and contextual knowledge and the transformative model puts PCK as a result of a transformation of pedagogical knowledge, subject matter knowledge and context knowledge" (Gess-Newsome, 1999, p. 14). According to Cochran *et al.* (1993), pedagogical content knowledge is an active process rather than a combination of different forms of knowledge. Additionally, their model of pedagogical content knowledge also relates to constructive learning structures and their implementations in education and teacher preparation. In this study, Cochran *et al*, (1993) presents a model of pedagogical content knowledge development "which includes four components of understanding – pedagogy, subject matter, students and the environmental context – but stresses the interrelated nature of these and the dynamic nature of 'pedagogical content'" (Turner-Bisset, 1999, p. 42).

A qualified teacher, according to Van Driel and Berry (2012), is sensitive to some possible differences in a classroom and is flexible enough to adapt his or her approach to how students react. Under this scenario, PCK could be helpful because it includes the consideration of student learning in various ways. Turner-Bisset (1999) further argues that teachers' pedagogical content knowledge may positively influence the success of their teaching.

The relationship between pedagogical content knowledge and teaching historical thinking skills involves the relationships between content, curriculum, and the teacher's pedagogical knowledge. There is a direct relationship with historical thinking due to the PCK's process of "structuring the cognitive and conceptual work you need to undertake to plan for effective teaching and learning" (Savage, 2015, p. 5). At this point, it can be said that

pedagogical content knowledge is a mixture of all relevant knowledge bases and teachers should be aware of each of them in order to refer all of them in their practice when teaching historical thinking.

The disagreements about pedagogical content knowledge also highlight this issue. The main problem seems to be the challenge of making a clear distinction between subject knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. For example, McEwan and Bull (1991) argue that separating content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge may not be possible because both these forms of knowledge need to be seen as pedagogical in various ways. However, an important point of distinction between PCK and subject knowledge could be the personal nature of the former. Park and Chen (2012) have found that teachers may integrate different components of PCK in different ways. In their study, Park and Chen (2012) worked with four biology teachers who were teaching in the same school, using the same materials and lesson plans. In this way, they were able to control at least the content and the subject knowledge delivered. However, they found that teachers' beliefs, backgrounds and values affected their teaching in different ways, and led them to prioritise different aspects in their teaching. For this reason, it can be said that PCK can differ from subject knowledge due to teachers' personal or internal aspects and these aspects are all critical in this study because it is logical to assume that each component of PCK (subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, self-belief, and, educational values, and priorities, confidence) impacts teachers' way of teaching of historical thinking. In the following section, therefore, the impact of teachers' beliefs and values on their pedagogical reasoning will be discussed.

2.3.3. Beliefs about the subject

Shulman (1987) does not mention beliefs about the subject in his scheme of teacher knowledge bases, but some researchers such as Grossman (1990), Turner-Bisset (1999) and Wilson and Wineburg (1988) have considered this a serious omission and stated the importance

of subject-specific beliefs in shaping teaching practices. Therefore, one of the areas where teachers can show their PCK is lesson planning, as it involves decisions about "what to teach, how to teach it, and to whom" (Hidson, 2018, p. 20). Yet, the answers to these questions can closely be linked to teachers' professional beliefs.

Shulman's PCK theory and his later model of pedagogical reasoning, in which he stated that the process of PCK transferred into practice (see, Table 3), attracted much adverse criticism because of the absence of teachers' professional beliefs and values. And further researchers (e.g., Webb, 2022) focussed on this model and made extensions by adding complementary layers related to teachers' beliefs, values, and attitudes.

A Model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action
Comprehension of subject (content knowledge): Substantive knowledge (concepts and principles) and syntactic knowledge (subject methodologies).
Transformation
Preparation: critical interpretation and analysis of texts, structuring and segmenting, development of a curricular repertoire, and clarification of purposes.
Representation: use of a representational repertoire which includes analogies, metaphors, examples, demonstrations, explanations, and so forth.
Selection: choice from among an instructional repertoire which includes modes of teaching, organising, managing, and arranging.
Adaptation and Tailoring to Student Characteristics: consideration of conceptions, preconceptions, misconceptions, and difficulties, language, culture, and motivations, social class, gender, age, ability, aptitude, interests, self-concepts, and attention.
Instruction
Management, presentations, interactions, group work, discipline, humour, questioning, and other aspects of active teaching, discovery or inquiry instruction, and the observable forms of classroom teaching.
Evaluation
Checking for student understanding during interactive teaching
Testing student understanding at the end of lessons or units
Evaluating one's own performance and adjusting for experiences.
Reflection
Reviewing and critically analysing teaching decisions based on evidence.
New comprehensions
About the subject, students, and teaching.

Table 3. Shulman's model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action

One extension to Shulman's pedagogical reasoning and action frame came from Webb's (2002) study. Webb (2002) argued that the main knowledge bases included in Shulman's model

of pedagogical reasoning would also be affected by the development of teachers' ideas, beliefs and values. Therefore, she kept the core concepts of the pedagogical reasoning model and added further elements to the process cycle. By doing that, arguably, she makes it possible to consider an extensive range of teachers' professional knowledge and skills. Webb also created a diagram representing the key points of Shulman's (1987) model of pedagogical reasoning as a circular process in which PCK is utilised (see, Figure 2). The arrows symbolise the influence of ideas, beliefs, and values on the pedagogical reasoning process without detracting from its original purpose.
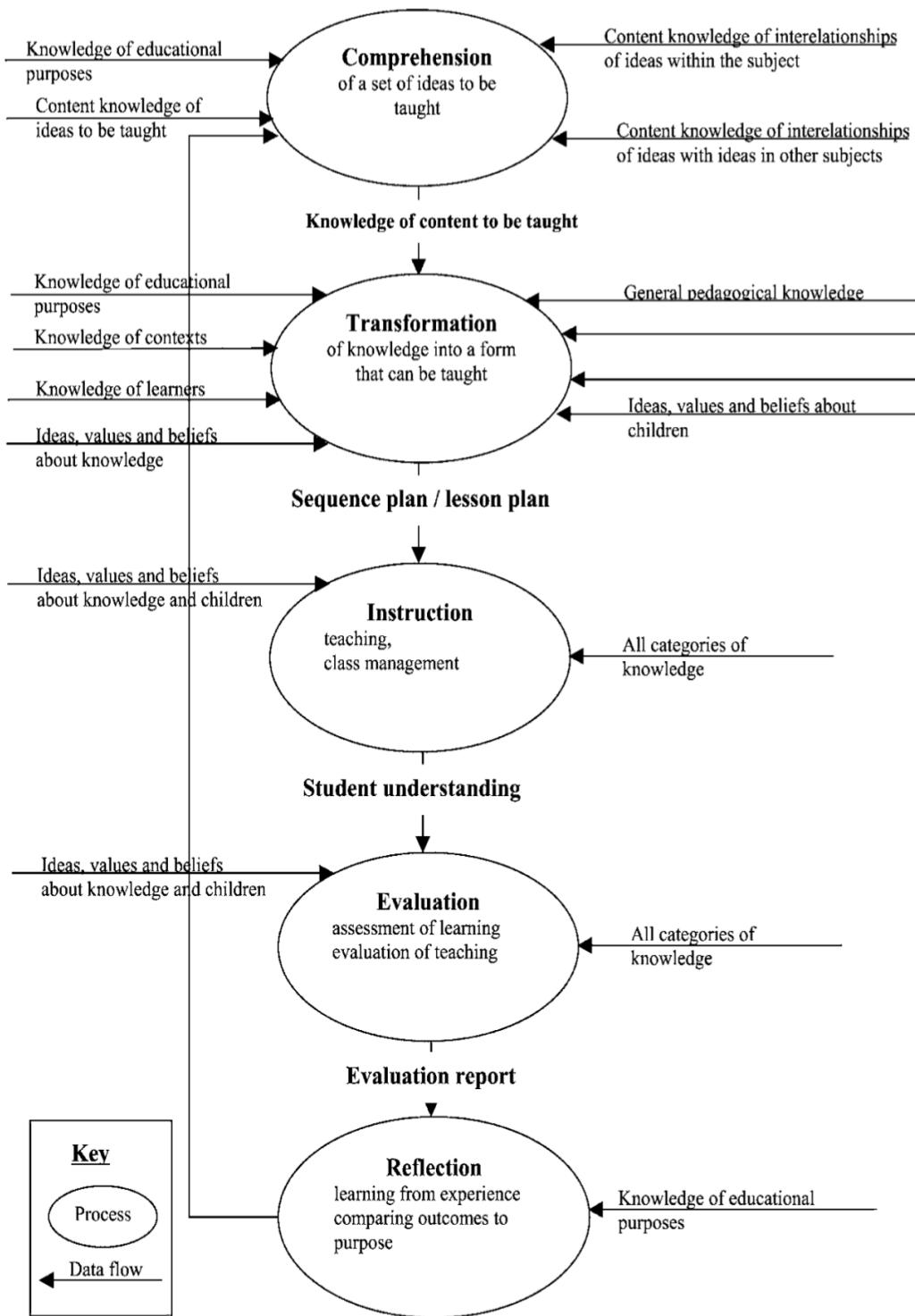
Figure 2. Webb's (2002) model of pedagogical reasoning (Based on Shulman, 1987)

Webb emphasised that teachers' knowledge transformation "occurs not only prior to the instructional process… but also through instruction and during evaluation" (2002, p. 241), indicating the lesson planning process as a critical stage for pedagogical reasoning and the use

and the development of PCK. In addition to this, Webb separately represented the transformation process (see Figure 3).
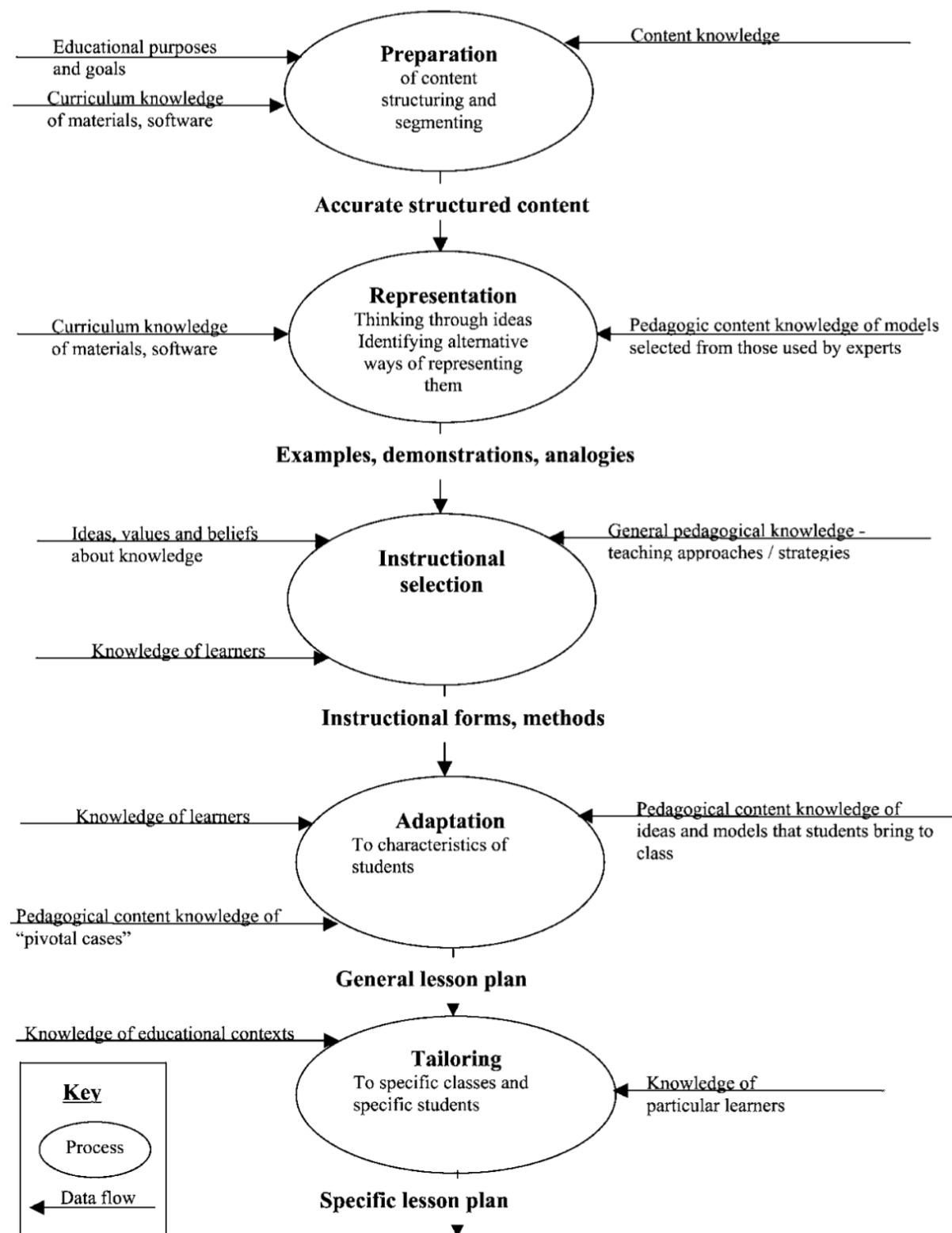
Figure 3. Webb's (2002) model of pedagogical reasoning (Based on Shulman, 1987)

This current research explores history teachers' ideas, beliefs and values with reference to historical thinking, and the ways in which these are reflected in their teaching practices and curricular decisions. Therefore, both Shulman's pedagogical reasoning framework and Webb's additional suggestions for considering the aspects of teachers' beliefs, values and attitudes were found to be suitable theoretical frameworks in this study, and played important role during the data analyses and discussion.

In an experimental study, Wineburg and Wilson (2001) demonstrated how participating history teachers' views of the nature of their subject can make a difference to the desired outcomes of their lessons. In this study, the authors reported how four history teachers approached differently to the subject of the Great Depression in their lessons. Their beliefs about the discipline of history led them to adopt different teaching aims and attitudes for teaching the same topic. Naturally, their ideas about what skills and knowledge students should gain at the end of the lesson were also different as well. Wilson and Wineburg (1988, p. 557) explain this situation in the following manner: "for our teachers, their 'knowledge' of the subject matter was as much a product of their beliefs as it was an accumulation of facts and interpretation." As discussed in Chapter 2.1.1., if a history teacher sees that the purpose of school history is to provide a body of knowledge, we cannot expect him/her to contribute students' historical thinking.

2.3.4. Conclusion

To conclude the section on teacher knowledge bases, teaching a subject could be a very complex and challenging process in itself (Fordham, 2012). Teaching historical thinking is a more challenging process as it includes knowledge of sophisticated metahistorical concepts and strategies (e.g., analysing, interpreting, sources and constructing arguments) (Van Boxtel & van Drie, 2018). Therefore, it can be assumed that the process of teaching historical thinking will require a well thought and planned sequence of lessons and naturally strong knowledge of

various teaching strategies. Therefore, it can be said that there will be a close relationship between teachers' knowledge bases and their abilities to teach historical thinking. In this case, teachers can be expected to have knowledge of content, pedagogy, curriculum, as well as pedagogical content knowledge in order to engage with teaching historical thinking in their lessons. For this reason, one of the research questions in this study will define the knowledge bases do history teachers need to teach historical thinking.

2.4. TEACHER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

So far, I have discussed the factors that may influence history teachers' instructional practices when teaching historical thinking in their classrooms. As can be seen from this discussion, the decisions a teacher makes about their practice can play a crucial role in terms of what they teach and how they teach it. Thus, I believe that it would be helpful to analyse the possible decisions of history teachers in terms of teaching historical thinking in the classroom. If they decide to teach these competencies, it is also useful to understand what might influence teachers in making this decision. Therefore, it is beneficial to understand and evaluate teacher decision-making processes.

Research on decision-making processes related to teacher thinking has been a valuable area of study in education for more than forty years (Demiraslan Cevik & Andre, 2014). Increasing research (e.g., Demiraslan Cevik & Andre, 2014; Jonassen, 2012) on the development of professional teaching has provided beneficial information in terms of teachers' cognitive processes in decision-making. Decision-making, which is an important part of our daily experiences, can be acknowledged as one of the most complicated human behaviours and it is considered as the most common problem-solving process (Jonassen, 2012; Malakooti, 2012). Therefore, many ideas have been suggested to define the process of decision-making.

The most frequent conceptualization of decision making can be captured by a three-stage decision-making process model: "*problem identification, possible solutions, and*

decision-making" (Cevik & Andre, 2014:45). Problem identification includes "examining the underlying structure of the problem from multiple perspectives, isolating key factors and constraints and describing the causes of the problem in a problem statement" (Demiraslan Cevik and Andre, 2014, p. 45). For complicated decisions, the information presented to the decision-maker may be ambiguous, deficient, or incorrect (King & Kitchener, 2002). For this reason, there are multiple ways to approach the problem and potentially also multiple or even contradicting expressions related to how a person interprets a problem (Jonassen, 2012).

After the problem is identified, possible solutions need to be produced. Kuhn (1991) states that people produce alternatives according to the cognitive model of the current decision situation they create by pairing the prominent aspect of tasks with past experiences. It can be said that "the quality of alternatives depends on the extent to which individuals develop an elaborated knowledge structure of the decision problem" (Demiraslan Cevik & Andre, 2014, p. 45). The final stage of decision-making requires composing reasons and arguments to justify decisions. Decision-making in the real world is complex; therefore, it requires people to produce some arguments to defend the decision and find fault with the possible effects of suggested alternatives in the context of a particular problem (Simon 1993). Because there is no single and certain solution, the merits of the decision are assessed according to the justifications of the decision-maker and its rational advantage over alternatives (Jonassen 2012).

The decision-making process includes defining the structural task's characteristics, generating different alternative solutions, assessing these alternatives, and, finally, making the best decision according to the criteria used to evaluate the options (Demiraslan Cevik & Andre, 2014). These processes require people to use "domain-specific knowledge, structural knowledge of how concepts and principles in a domain are interrelated and metacognitive knowledge in order to develop meaningful problem representations, monitor problem-solving

processes, reflect on the solution processes and construct convincing rationales for their decisions" (Demiraslan Cevik & Andre, 2014, p. 46).

When it comes to educational decision-making, teachers are expected to make careful decisions while "determining the objectives, selecting and organizing content, selecting and organizing learning experiences and determining evaluation procedures and instruments" (Whitehead, 1975, p. 4). From this perspective, we can expect that the history teacher will have to make a decision on whether to teach historical thinking competencies, and if so, which competencies will be suitable for specific content, and what strategies and resources will be applied to teach them effectively. However, related literature has shown that teachers, especially novices, may not have adequate knowledge and self-confidence to arrive at successful decisions (De Neys, 2010; King & Kitchener 2002). Therefore, gaining adequate insight into teachers' decision making and conducting more research in this area will be valuable.

Individual decisions are also an important part of a teacher's decision-making process. The nature of the proper decision-making process requires the individual to be able to determine "all of the possible strategies, all of the possible outcomes resulting from each strategy, and the comparative value of each of the outcomes" (Whitehead, 1975, p. 17). A teacher needs also to decide whether to take time to seek and find the best methods and strategies according to predetermined goals. These kinds of decisions can be related to both the personal expertise of different teachers, related to their different knowledge bases, and to personal characteristics related to teachers' self-agency and self-efficacy.

For the above reasons, it will be helpful to investigate which kinds of individual and collective features may affect a teacher's decision-making process with regard to teaching historical thinking concepts. Agency, efficacy, and personal dispositions of teachers are likely to be key factors in determining whether teachers focus on historical thinking in their classroom.

Additionally, the influence and effects of the community of practices and networks on teachers' practices will also be addressed.

2.4.1. Teacher Agency

Teachers' decision-making processes also involve taking action according to the decision that has been made (Whitehead, 1975). At this point, the concept of teacher agency becomes an important aspect of their decision-making process. There is a considerable tendency in curriculum policy in the UK to highlight the importance of teachers' agency for the quality of education (Biesta *et al.*, 2015). It is mostly acknowledged that teacher agency contributes to shaping teachers' work and these contributions make valuable improvements to the quality of education (Robinson, 2012). Therefore, there might be a relationship between the level of teacher agency and the capacity of teachers to engage in effective teaching in terms of historical thinking.

Agency is defined as the capacity of actors to "critically shape their responses to problematic situations" (Biesta & Tedder, 2006, p. 11), or the "capacity for autonomous action...[independent] of the determining constraints of social structure" (Calhoun, cited in Biesta and Tedder, 2006, p. 5). Additionally, Robinson (2012, p. 232) argues that "the agency is linked to reflexivity and self; that it is about taking action (even if the action is passive) and making choices that change or maintain routines." Thus, agency is the capacity for doing something, in the belief that this action help to solve a problem. It requires taking actions according to specific intentions (Seixas, 2012). Investigating the relationship between historical thinking and the level of teacher agency can be helpful to explain why and how teachers make certain decisions related to teaching historical thinking.

Emirbayer and Mische (1998) identified three temporal dimensions of agency: the iterative, the projective, and the practical evaluative. These notions provide a useful

understanding and Emirbayer and Mische (1998, p. 971) refer to this as the "chordal triad" of agency:

> The iterational dimension of the agency has to do with 'the selective reactivation by actors of past patterns of thought and action, routinely incorporated in practical activity, thereby giving stability and order to social universes and helping to sustain identities, interactions, and institutions over time'. The projective dimension encompasses 'the imaginative generation by actors of possible future trajectories of action, in which received structures of thought and action may be creatively reconfigured in relation to actors' hopes, fears, and desires for the future'. The practical–evaluative dimension entails 'the capacity of actors to make practical and normative judgements among alternative possible trajectories of action, in response to the emerging demands, dilemmas, and ambiguities of presently evolving situations (Emirbayer and Mische 1998, p. 971).

According to the text above, the iterative means that choices are made based on past experiences. The projective means that choices are related to future concerns. The practical-evaluative is concerned with making choices by considering alternative pathways, given external demands, dilemmas, and uncertainties such as the need to make decisions in the present. Therefore, it can be said that agency is temporal: related to past, present and future. This means that the past experiences of history teachers can have an impact on their present and future decisions. Thus, to be able to understand their decisions and perspectives on teaching historical thinking, it will be useful to understand their past experiences and personal beliefs. In this way, we can construct a better understanding of teaching historical thinking.

There is a debate about the nature of agency. Some researchers tend to see agency as being linked closely to individual competencies. For example, some researchers like Archer (2000) adopt extremely individualistic views of agency based on psychological views of human

capacity. These sorts of perspective consider people as "self-motivated, self-directing, rational subject(s), capable of exercising individual agency" (Usher & Edwards, 1994: 2). However, it is important to consider the interaction between human autonomy and the behaviour shaped and constrained by the rules of the society in which they live while determining human agency (Seixas, 2012).

Another view of agency aims at reinforcing the structure of agency based on the impact of society on an individual. Researchers who hold such opinions emphasise the importance of collective instead of individual agency. Popkewitz, for example, states that "many of the wants, values, and priorities of decision making are determined by the structural and historical conditions of our institutions" (cited in Priestley *et al*., 2012, p. 195). In addition to this, Biesta and Tedder (2007) suggest that agency is constituted under certain ecological circumstances. This idea indicates that although actors may have the inner capacity, their ability for reaching targets still depends on the interaction of their capabilities and the ecological circumstances. Agency is not something that resides in people as a capacity or property; on the contrary, it is an outcome shaped by the ecological conditions in which people live (Priestley *et al*., 2012). From this point of view, investigating and understanding the range of factors which may influence teachers' professional decisions can be important. For example, exploring the condition in which history teachers work can provide better insights into the impacts of external factors on their teaching of historical thinking. Thus, considering the extent to which school and classroom environments, the relationship among their colleagues, and student profiles influence teachers while teaching historical thinking might be valuable.

Agency can be considered as part of the individual's capacity to act according to the circumstances of the environment in which the action takes place. In addition, a person can use varying degrees of agency at different times and in various environments (Priestley *et al*., 2012). For agency, routines can be valuable as well as transformational. For this reason, agency is

related to what people do and at the end of this process, what they are able to achieve. Biesta and Tedder (2007, p. 146) believe that "understanding the achievement of agency [...] requires an understanding of the ecological conditions under and through which agency is achieved."

The importance of the roles of social structures and institutional narratives and discourses within human actions should not be ignored. As the discussion in the section on the purpose of history teaching has shown, institutional narratives and discourses can be very influential in terms of shaping human action. For this study, investigating what teachers think about the effects of their institutions, schools, and professional environment on their capacity to teach historical thinking can be important. For example, teachers may avoid teaching historical thinking in a strict and traditional teaching environment. As can be seen, there are different opinions on the nature of agency.

In summary, theories about teacher agency not only presents specific authorisation for teachers to become more reflective and independent in their working contexts but also fosters the ideas of teacher professionalism (Biesta *et al*., 2015). In other words, teacher agency is something that people act out rather than something that they possess such as capacity, property, or competence. In this case, it can be beneficial to investigate the extent to which individual and collective agency impact teachers' ability to teach historical thinking.

2.4.2. Teacher Efficacy

Teachers' self-efficacy is one of the fundamental factors which play a role in their decision-making processes. As this section will broadly explain, their level of efficacy affects their decisions about curriculum selection, teaching strategies, and their general behaviours in the classroom. At this point, investigating the relationship between teachers' efficacy and their inclinations to teach historical thinking may be beneficial.

There has recently been a growing interest in teacher efficacy (Synder & Fisk, 2016). Although different research designs have been used, many researchers have concluded that

teacher self-efficacy involves both pupil learning and teaching practices (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Moore & Esselman, 1992). Efficacy is a part of social organization theory developed by Bandura (1986). One of the most critical ingredients of several modern theories related to human motivation can be defined as self-belief. Therefore, the central structure in Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory (1986) is self-efficacy, which he described as humans' judgments of their abilities to develop their level of performance.

Self-efficacy is different from self-concept and self-esteem because it is task-specific (Bandura, 1977; Bandura,1986), and efficacy is often related to people's beliefs about what their capacity is for doing something in certain situations (Hoy, 2004). Therefore, in this research, it will be beneficial to understand what role teacher efficacy plays in the process of teaching historical thinking.

Additionally, social cognitive theory states that when teachers work with students who are not expected to be successful, they tend to devote less effort to preparing and teaching structured and well-developed lessons, and if any single difficulty arises, they may give up easily (Synder & Fisk, 2016). Several studies depict the relationships between teacher efficacy and student outcomes (e.g., Althauser, 2015; Guskey, 1987). According to these studies, self-efficacy in teachers is mostly linked to pupil outcomes such as motivation, achievement, and efficacy levels in the pupil themselves (Anderson *et al*., 1988). This means that there is a positive relationship between higher levels of teachers' self-efficacy and higher levels of student motivation and achievement (Synder & Fisk, 2016). From this point of view, teachers' beliefs about the possible achievements of their students can have an important influence on their attitudes to teaching historical thinking.

Teacher efficacy is related to beliefs about ability to improve students' learning (Althauser, 2015). This also affects teachers' instructional decisions and their selections of classroom activities. Teacher efficacy is also linked to willingness and capability to adopt

innovations in their field. Specifically, "high-efficacy teachers use a wider variety of instructional strategies including manipulatives and meaningful text that contribute to students' conceptual understanding" (Althauser, 2015, p. 213). Thus, their sense of efficacy may shape their goals and the level of effort and desire that they invest in teaching in the classroom (Hoy, 2004). Synder and Fisk (2016) also pointed out that teacher efficacy has an impact on teachers' motivation related to their enthusiasm and commitment to teaching. They also emphasize that this may shape teaching behaviours (Synder & Fisk, 2016). An intense sense of efficacy among teachers may lead to better levels of structure and organization in their lesson preparation (Allinder, 1994) because "they are more open to new ideas and are more willing to experiment with new methods to better meet the needs of their students" (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2001, p. 783). In this case, it can be stated that teachers with a better sense of efficacy can be more willing to tap into several resources and use different techniques and activities to improve students' historical thinking. Therefore, they can be more successful in teaching this subject.

Furthermore, the fundamental aims of schools are mostly related to improving students' problem-solving skills and cognitive competencies (Bandura, 1993). On one hand, teachers with higher self-efficacy are more likely to choose to apply classroom enquiries and student-centred teaching methods (which are very beneficial for historical thinking) to improve students' learning (Ho *et al.*, 2006). On the other hand, teachers with low self-efficacy tend to choose "teacher-directed strategies, such as lectures, that rely on negative sanctions to get students to study" (Althauser, 2015, p. 213), and this teaching style may be less useful for teaching historical thinking.

Therefore, it can be assumed that the level of teacher efficacy will be an important factor for interpreting the ideas and attitudes of history teachers related to teaching historical thinking.

2.4.3. The roles of teachers' beliefs, values and attitudes in decision making process

So far, I have discussed teacher agency and efficacy in relation to teacher decision making processes and their possible impacts on their ability to teach historical thinking. This is because both notions are closely related to teachers' individual characteristics and experiences.

The success of teacher agency may also be dependent on teachers' personal characteristics, including beliefs, values, and attitudes, as well as the effects of cultural and instructional resources. To explain teachers' classroom decision-makings, the term 'teacher beliefs' has been commonly used and explored in the related literature (Wallace & Priestley, 2011). For example, Nespor (1987 cited in Biesta *et al*., 2015, p. 628) views the beliefs of teachers as "affective, narrative in nature and relying on correspondences with evaluations from the past, such as a particular student being 'immature' or 'bright'". This sort of view demonstrates agency's iterational dimension, which expresses how beliefs, values, and past experiences play a role in the success of the agency. Similarly, Meirink *et al*. (2009) also considered the role of expectations and intentions in building teachers' attitudes and beliefs, which underlines the contribution of beliefs to the iterational dimensions of agency success. Biesta *et al*. (2015) investigated the effects of teacher beliefs in creating their professional stands in three areas: beliefs about children and young people, beliefs about teaching, and beliefs about educational purposes. They found that teacher beliefs played a significant role in their teaching, but teachers might have some difficulties putting their beliefs into practice due to issues regarding wider institutional discourses and cultures as well as the lack of a robust professional sense of the purposes of teaching. This may suggest that there may be mismatches between teachers' beliefs and classroom attitudes.

Similarly, the discussion above has shown that teachers' self-efficacy is related to their targets and values, their attitudes to change and innovation, and their willingness to use different teaching strategies. These perceptions can be valuable for indicating ways in which personal

attitudes, values, and beliefs may have an impact on towards teacher agency and efficacy, and these factors play specific guiding and motivating roles, contributing to successful teaching. For these reasons, consideration of the role played by teachers' beliefs, values, and attitudes in the process of their decision making related to teaching historical thinking is valuable and necessary.

2.4.4. Professional learning communities for history teachers

Teachers' professional development has been considered a significant instrument in developing the quality of education, helping to ensure that all teachers can meet the demands of their fields (Prenger *et al*., 2017). Professional learning communities (PLCs) can be defined as teachers meeting regularly to work collaboratively and to share their teaching expertise to improve their teaching skills (Durksen, *et al*., 2017). They can help to improve teachers' daily practices focused on student learning. Therefore, teachers should participate in professional learning communities to enhance their teaching skills (Prenger et al., 2017).

As discussed in previous chapters, teachers need better knowledge bases to improve their teaching of historical thinking. Therefore, it can be useful to increase the teachers' subject specific knowledge and hone their skills: professional learning communities can be very helpful in this regard (Richter *et al*., 2011). According to Richter *et al*. (2011, p. 116), PLCs should involve "the uptake of formal and informal learning opportunities that deepen and extend teachers' professional competence, including knowledge, beliefs, motivation, and self-regulatory skills". These processes can be encouraged by collaborative environments such as conferences, online courses, and workshops for curricular and instructional changes (Durksen *et al*., 2017). Hochberg and Desimone (2010) state that PLCs can positively influence teachers' knowledge, abilities, beliefs, and practices, fostering their professional development.

DuFour *et al*. (2006) suggested three essential elements of PLCs: focus on learning, collaborative culture, and results-oriented thinking. According to them, first, a PLC should help

teachers to focus on learning instead of teaching. Professional learning highlights a culture of learning from one another and leads people to think beyond professionally standardised principles. Therefore, secondly, collaboration can be one of the most important aspects of PLCs. A PLC should be designed to enable teachers to respond their current classroom practices and to seek ways of improving them. Lastly, thanks to cooperative working environments, PLCSs may inspire teachers to adopt new analytical tools, new content, and the skills required to achieve the intended results (DuFour *et al*., 2006).

Husbands (2011) considers what history teachers need to know to improve their teaching. According to him, history teachers need some sort of knowledge and skills: for example, they need knowledge about lesson content, their students, and the resources they can use. However, he states that teachers may not develop thise knowledge easily and may need professional learning communities to gain maximized support for this purpose. He further suggests that these communities should attempt to involve many teachers from different schools to offer additional perspectives and discuss different cases. Creating a network among schools may be beneficial for sharing a wider range of resources, and teachers can find better opportunities to share and reflect on different types of practice. Due to these opportunities, they may deploy better intellectual strategies for teaching historical thinking in the classroom (Prenger *et al*., 2017).

PLCs may also be helpful for improving teachers' sense of agency and self-efficacy, which has already been established as a major influence on their professional behaviour (Bandura, 1977; Biesta *et al*., 2015). Durksen *et al*. (2017) stated that the professional development of teachers may play a role in influencing their beliefs and practices, and this also affects students' engagement and learning. When a teacher sees better results in terms of students' achievements after applying a new strategy gained from a PLC, the self-efficacy of this teacher may increase (Durksen *et al*., 2017). Moreover, PLCs' tools and practices can also

be beneficial for raising teachers' levels of agency, enable them to make decisions about curricular and instructional strategies that can be brought to bear on their own teaching (e.g., selecting best strategies to teach historical thinking) (Meuwissen, 2017).

To conclude, participating in PLCs that focus on strengthening teachers' substantive and practical knowledge in terms of teaching historical thinking competencies may encourage history teachers to investigate and apply the effects of historical thinking strategies when engaging with students in their classrooms.

2.5. Conclusion

This literature review started by discussing the crucial importance of the purpose of history teaching in relation to teaching historical thinking and highlighted the possibility of a close relationship between specific types of purpose and the chance that historical thinking would be taught. Then it introduced a definition of historical thinking and the similarities and differences in conceptualisations of the term that exists in the literature. This review has established that the understanding and teaching of historical thinking can be affected by the purposes and personal situations of history teachers. Therefore, in order to provide updated contextual knowledge of the field, the first research question has investigated what history teachers in England understand by teaching historical thinking. The ensuing literature survey outlined different knowledge bases that teachers should be mastering for effective teaching and discussed how these bases might be applied to the process of teaching historical thinking. It has been found that different knowledge bases tend to emphasise different teaching methods (e.g., content-based teaching may encourage practices such as dictation or chalk and talk). Therefore, the literature suggests that the types of knowledge that inform history teachers' approaches to teaching historical thinking may be worth exploring further. Finally, a link has been established between teachers' inner mechanisms such as (agency, self-efficacy, and beliefs) and external contexts (their professional network and community): this can activate and strengthen their

aspirations and motivate them to try new ideas in their teaching. Therefore, it is important to understand how this link affects teachers' attitudes to historical thinking in particular. Consequently, the third research question explored the influences on teachers' decisions about teaching historical thinking.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the methodology utilized in this research by explaining the ontological, epistemological, and methodological perspectives which have been applied in this study. Subsequently, sampling strategy, data collection tools, analysing methods, validity, reliability, and, finally, ethical considerations will be discussed and justified.

3.1.1 Aims and Research Questions

The aim of this qualitative study is to contribute to the understanding of what might affect history teachers' attitudes and approaches towards historical thinking. This contribution has been made by examining participating history teachers' own perspectives on the concept of historical thinking and their conceptions about the purposes of history teaching. In addition to this, the knowledge base, agency, and self-efficacy of participating teachers have been investigated. For this purpose, this study, conducted with English history teachers from the south of England, was designed to find answer to the research questions below:

RQ$_1$: What do history teachers understand by historical thinking?

RQ$_2$: What types of knowledge inform teachers' approaches to teaching historical thinking?

RQ$_3$: What influences the decisions teachers make in terms of teaching historical thinking?

3.2. Research Paradigms

Researchers' philosophical stances would have a direct impact on how they see reality and how they construct knowledge. Therefore, these stances will also be influential on their choice of methodology which they will use in their research (Gray, 2014). Thus, the researchers' philosophical stance of the researchers permeates the whole research and must be borne in mind throughout the research process (Scott & Usher, 2011).

The research paradigm refers to every researcher's belief system about the world and the nature of the research (Thomas, 2013). A paradigm has four interrelated elements: ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods (Scotland, 2012). In this process, ontological stances would form the epistemological positions. Once the researcher decides on the ontological and epistemological stances, their methodological considerations can be shaped, and finally, these form methods and data collection processes (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Therefore, in what follows, the decisions about the adoption of ontological and epistemological stances in this research, and the research design based on these decisions, will be explained and evaluated.

3.2.1. Ontological Considerations

The central point of ontology in social research is the question of whether social studies should be considered in the same way as objective science studies, or whether they may require different types of philosophical considerations and approaches (Bryman, 2012). In general, researchers focus on two opposing ontological positions for social studies: objectivism and constructivism. On one hand, according to objectivist researchers, social phenomena and their meanings should be studied independently and separated from social actors (Bryman, 2012). Researchers who adopt this position try to examine and understand people's behaviours with reference to several specific patterns and structures (e.g., general beliefs and values of their society) (Bickman & Rog, 2009).

On the other hand, constructivist researchers state that social phenomena and their meanings cannot and should not be separated from social actors because social events are brought about through the social interactions (Bryman, 2012). Constructivism emphasises the need for researchers to examine the situation through the multiple lenses of the chosen for the research in order to make sense of the individuals' social lives. Gadamer (2004) also argues that the knowledge is about expanding our horizons and understandings through examining life as a product which is embedded in culture and reflecting this in practical activities. In this way,

the researchers will obtain people's own perspectives on the issue, and they will see how this issue is related to their environments, interactions, and personal backgrounds (Cohen *et al*., 2011). These ideas also reflect the use of social constructivism by showing how individuals construct meaning in a social context with reference to the historical and cultural norms that operate in their lives (Burr, 2003). According to this view, knowledge can be created and represented by propositions and truth can be assessed by the human perception and interpretation of these propositions.

The social constructivist paradigm describes knowledge as "the sets of beliefs or mental models people use to interpret actions and events in the world" (Jackson & Klobas, 2008, p. 330). Social constructivism does not discuss whether things like "right and wrong", "ghosts and spirits" or "good and bad" actually exist and are real. ''What is 'real' to a Tibetan monk may not be 'real' to an American businessman'' (Berger & Luckman, 1967, p. 3). The shared reality of people, whether shamans, business managers, or mathematicians, is constructed through their social engagements and conversations with the people within their social groups over years (Jackson & Klobas, 2008). Berger and Luckman (1967) propose "a series of iterative processes and concepts to describe how the "intersubjective" gap between the personal consciousnesses of individuals is overcome and how socially constructed realities, which comprise the knowledge of any social group, are shared and achieve day-to-day objectivity, acceptance and persistence" (as quoted in Jackson & Klobas, 2008, p. 330). For this reason, the subjectivity of knowledge and considering the factors affecting the creation of this knowledge are primary features of this ontological paradigm.

In this research, I applied social constructivism because I believe that, as previously stated by Springer (2010), the construction of knowledge about individuals could be based on the realities in their personal mindsets and wider contexts. Therefore, while creating the knowledge for history teaching circles, it would also be beneficial to study history teachers'

accounts of their social interactions, because people generally form their knowledge through listening, observing, and reading others (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). These 'others' could be expected to be the most available knowledge sources, which, in this case, would be close social contacts, such as members of their professional communities.

In this study, I explored teachers' perceptions of teaching historical thinking, focusing on their individual aspects such as their educational views, purposes, beliefs, and values Therefore, it was important to see their accounts through their personal lenses to understand their realities and construct their knowledge on this basis, as Cohen *et al*. (2018) argue. This required me to examine their own meanings for and approaches to the phenomenon. In this stage of investigation, understanding their personal beliefs, values, and motivations were the key processes. Therefore, as an ontological stance, constructionism suited this research well, in view of the points discussed so far. However, in addition to these individual aspects, human action should also be considered within the context of existing social structures, which are dominated by a range of norms and rules (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). Thus, "all human action is to some degree predetermined by the contextual rules under which it occurs" (Moses and Knutsen, 2012, p. 189). Therefore, it was necessary to consider teachers' interactions within their professional environments, especially their schools, professional community and networks, and similar kinds of relationships, in order to enhance comprehension of their actions when teaching historical thinking and the construction of knowledge about this topic. Constructing the knowledge covering these aspects led me to adopt social constructionism, as well.

Additionally, constructivism recently started to involve the researcher's personal accounts related to the research topic, including worldviews, personal experiences, and perceptions (Cohen *et al*., 2018). Science is more than just collecting certain facts for a particular issue as it also involves the process of organization, interpretation, discussion, and

evaluation of those facts (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). These processes would also involve my personal assumptions, interpretations, and understandings as a researcher when constructing knowledge for this research (Thomas, 2013). This complex process may have been shaped through the meanings that are constructed by daily interactions, experiences, and understandings. Additionally, the cultural and educational background of the researcher will also affect this process (Bryman, 2012).

I am aware that, as a researcher, I have had a pivotal role during the research, involving activities such as constructing interview questions, and analysing and interpreting the collected data. During this process, the factors recorded in my personal accounts played an undeniable role in directing my study (Thomas, 2013). I, therefore, believe that the identity of the researcher will be a critical aspect for constructing knowledge of the complex social world. Thus, while I was trying to understand how teachers construct their personal reality in relation to my research topic, my perceptions and interpretations may have played a role in this process. Therefore, I believe that constructivism was the right decision within the boundaries of this research.

3.2.2. Epistemological Considerations

Epistemology is concerned with "what is regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline" (Bryman, 2012, p. 27). Generally, the central question is what the researchers' position and stance should be while trying to gather knowledge. According to Bryman (2012), there are three epistemological stances: positivism, interpretivism and realism. Positivism and interpretivism can be considered as opposites to each other. Positivism suggests that the same methods could be used to create the knowledge for both social and natural sciences, whereas interpretivism is in favour of using distinctive, socially constructed, methods for social sciences (Thomas, 2013). According to Bryman (2012), social studies focusing on human behaviours should be approached differently from the natural sciences because of the complexity and distinctiveness of the human world. Therefore, social studies demand specific logic and

methods different from those employed in the natural sciences. In this study, the interpretivist approach will be more valuable for the reasons below.

Interpretivism focuses on "the nature of meaningful social action, its role in understanding patterns in social life, and how this meaning can be assessed" (Lewis-Beck *et al*., 2004, p. 96). Interpretivist researchers try to answer the question of how human beings understand and define the world they live in (Bryman, 2012) and they try to examine the issue through the eyes of their participants. Interpretivism mainly focuses on individuals in order to understand how they form their ideas about the world, how they interrelate them and, finally, how they construct their worlds from these accounts (Thomas, 2013). Briefly speaking, the interpretivist stance simply looks for "culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social world" (Crotty, 1998, p. 67). Therefore, interpretivist research states that truth or knowledge can be produced as a result of the researcher's interaction with the world and this knowledge cannot be precise, singular or value-free (Thomas, 2013). In this way, interpretivist research paradigms dramatically differ from those of positivist researchers, since they leave no space for interpretations and they mainly support the belief that truth could be discovered, not constructed (Scotland, 2012). Since this study adopted the constructivism, interpretive research perspective became essential to be able construct the participating teachers' realities for the targeted research area. Consequently, interpretivism and constructionism were suitable for simultaneous utilisation in a social study.

As stated before, the aim of this study is to explore what might affect history teachers while teaching historical thinking. This requires information about teachers' personal histories, educational backgrounds and individual characteristics. For instance, their agency and self-efficacy played an important roduring the analysis of this study. An interpretivist research paradigm also emphasises the importance of interpreting and understanding participants' specific behaviours, opinions, attitudes and beliefs and what lies behind them (Bryman, 2012).

As these aspects are important factors underpinning this research, I have had detailed conversations with my participants regarding the purposes of history teaching and the teaching of historical thinking. These detailed conversations were critical for me as an interpretive researcher since I believe that reality (given or socially constructed) is only accessed through social constructions such as language, conversations, meanings, and experience (Myers, 2013). Therefore, these conversations were a good tool which enabled me to see things through the eyes of my participants and get a better sense of their motives, reasons, meanings, and feelings (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). These interactions with the participants enabled me to interpret their accounts regarding the historical thinking, and then construct their cases for the studied area. I also attempted to interpret the reasons behind their current understanding of and approaches to teaching historical thinking (Thomas, 2013). The structure of the conversations will be explained in the interviews section by underpinning related literature.

In general, interpretivism and constructivism will be suitable research paradigms for educational research examining people's individual mechanisms and external contexts. As this study focuses on teachers who are individuals and may be affected by various factors, it requires in-depth and flexible research approaches (Scott & Morrison, 2006). As Cohen *et al.* (2018, p. 20) emhasised, researchers adopting interpretivist and constructionist approaches appreciate that "situations are fluid and changing rather than fixed and static; events and behaviour evolve over time and are richly affected by context." Therefore, constructionist and interpretivist approaches have been chosen for this study. By adopting these stances in this research, I aimed to explore and illustrate diverse meanings and multiple realities affecting history teachers` experiences and understandings of the concept of historical thinking (Patton, 2015).

3.3. Research Approach

My ontological and epistemological standpoints have been chosen according to the purposes of this research, which include understanding, exploring, evaluating and interpreting

some specific social and educational phenomena (Bryman, 2012). These considerations drove me to conduct a qualitative study that would enable me to fulfil these purposes. Investigating social and educational phenomena could be complicated because the findings may be complex, rich, and contradictory (Cohen *et al*., 2011). I therefore considered that a qualitative research design would be more beneficial for this study: more detailed reasons are given below.

The qualitative study may be defined as a means which helps the invesatigator to understand "how people make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 15). Therefore, using qualitative research tools enabled me to provide an in-depth, complex and detailed understanding of the intentions, attitudes, and behaviors of history teachers regarding teaching historical thinking (Cohen *et al*., 2011). Additionally, conducting a qualitative study was helpful for me because, according to Merriam and Tisdell (2015, p. 15), qualitative studies focus on the process of understanding people's meaning, so when this "inductive" process is employed, "the product is richly descriptive, and the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis."

People actively construct their personal interpretations of situations. For this reason, they need to be given voices if others are to understand their behaviours and reactions regarding social phenomena (Cohen *et al*., 2011). Thus, qualitative methods were more beneficial in terms of accessing participating history teachers' insider perspectives, which could provide more insights regarding their agency and efficacy, and facilitate the study of their existing experience, including the meanings and purposes related to their study of history and teaching historical thinking (Punch, 2009). This knowledge can be constructed, handled and evaluated through interpretative processes (Cohen *et al*., 2011). Additionally, qualitative research enables researchers to focus on causal processes and it helps them to understand and interpret how events may occur; it can also give ideas about what can be effective in this process. (Maxwell, 2005).

Social and educational studies are mostly "multilayered, and not easily susceptible to the atomization process inherent in numerical research" (Cohen *et al*., 2011, p. 219). As quantitative methods can provide statistical information that follows mathematical principles, they mostly tend to help with the analysis and measurement of generalizability and scientific respectability (Denscombe, 2003). However, the main aims of this research are to reach deeper knowledge and to understand the reasons behind participants' actions regarding teaching historical thinking rather than providing statistical conclusions. For this purpose, I believe that qualitative research approaches were more beneficial, as they helped me to understand the meaning that history teachers have built (Merriam & Tissdell, 2015) and interpret their approaches and attitudes from a certain point of view and investigate their ideas about historical thinking (Bryman, 2012).

3.4. Data Collection

The aim of this section is to explain and justify the chosen research methods according to the study's philosophical positions, research design, and research questions. The research sample will be addressed first, and, subsequently, data collection methods, comprising the mind map, narrative history, and document analyses, will be explained in the following sections.

3.4.1. Sample

In this section, I aim to justify the sample selections of this research. This study aims to understand and investigate history teachers' direct experiences of teaching historical thinking. In this case, history teachers themselves were the most appropriate participants because of the philosophical viewpoint of the research and the related commitment to discovering how individuals' experiences originate from and contribute to their contexts (Cohen *et al*., 2011). Therefore, history teachers who work at secondary schools were considered the best sample with regard to being "representative of both the issue and the context in which the issue is

normally found" (Newby, 2010, p. 59). I also decided that using convenience sampling would be more beneficial for this research, for the reasons below.

Convenience sampling aims to provide the most accessible subjects for the research project (Cohen *et al*., 2011). This sampling method tends to be the least costly in time, effort, and financial expense for the researcher. In fact, my original idea was to apply purposive sampling to be able to obtain cases related to the typical nature or specific characteristics of the research (Cohen *et al*., 2011). However, I had to change my approach because of the problematic and chaotic times that Covid-19 Pandemic created. In the pandemic environment, people have paid considerably less interest to participating in academic studies than in normal times. The challenge of finding participants during this time led me to use convenience sampling for this research.

This study is conducted using exploratory and explanatory methods by involving history teachers from different schools in the south of England. The reason for choosing schools from these region was related to accessibility and time-saving considerations for both the researcher and the participants (Cohen *et al*., 2011). The overall number of participants is ten history teachers. I have decided that this number of participating teachers may provide enough information to illustrate several examples. It can also offer a quantity of information that I can manage within the required timing (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). In addition, a small amount of participants enables the researcher to communicate with the participants closely, and face to face and closely (Creswell, 2013). Thus, this number has been chosen due to the practical considerations of how the researcher can obtain and manage enough data alone in a given period of time, considering the necessity of collecting rich data and making interpretations. However, I also acknowledge that small scale sampling cannot represent the wider society. Rather, it can simply represent itself (Cohen *et al*., 2011). The development of ten different cases will be

helpful due to the opportunity to investigate the similarities and differences in teachers' conceptions, beliefs, knowledge and teaching ideas related to historical thinking.

The participants are history teachers from the south of England. They have been given pseudonyms selected to match the initials of their names. Four male (Jack, Henry, John, and Steve) and six female (Penny, Josie, Ellie, Sarah, Naomi, and Audrey) history teachers contributed to this Ph.D. research project. All were working in secondary schools at the time of the interviews. The duration of their teaching experiences ranged from 3 to 13 years. Two (Penny and Jack) were heads of their departments at the time of interviews, five of them (Steve, Henry, John, Josie, Sarah, and Audrey) were holding several leadership positions and responsibilities (e.g., head of key stage three and head of year seven) and two of them (Ellie and Naomi) were not holding any leadership positions and were just responsible forteaching (see, Table 4.).

Table 4. Profiles of participants

Teachers	Gender	Educational Background	Teaching Experience	Responsibilities	Year and Age groups
Penny	Female	History PGCE	10 Years	Head of History Department	Year 7 to 13
Jack	Male	History PGCE	13 Years	Head of History and Politics Department	Year 7 to 13
Josie	Female	History PGCE	7 Years	Year 11 and now year 9 progress leader	Year 7 to 11
Ellie	Female	History PGCE	4 Years	Only teaching responsibility	Only year 12
Henry	Male	History PGCE	3 Years	Head of Year	Year 7 to 11
Sarah	Female	History PGCE	7 Years	Head of History and Head of Humanities	Year 7 to 11
Steve	Male	History PGCE	4 Years	Acting Head teacher, Head of year 7	Year 7 to 13
Audrey	Female	History PGCE	6 Years	Deputy Head of year 10	Year 7 to 13
John	Male	History PGCE	5 Years	Head of house (involves year 7 to 11)	Year 7 to 11
Naomi	Female	History PGCE	7 Years	Only teaching responsibility	Year 7 to 11

The initial approach was sending formal emails to head teachers and history teachers, which outlined the research, its purposes, the criteria for participation and their ethical rights in this study. However, due to the Covid-19 Pandemic, our formal process was seriously affected, and we had to use my supervisor's personal contacts to find potential participants for this research. My supervisor sent initial invitation emails to potential participants. In the case of any positive response, I contacted them, providing all necessary documentations such as the consent forms and information sheets. Contact information for my supervisor and myself was provided in case of any further questions. After the necessary consent to participate was obtained, appointments were arranged for conducting online interviews due to the Covid-19 Pandemic and lockdown restrictions. They all had the necessary information sheets providing specific information related to the study and methodology before the meeting.

3.4.2. Interview

Interviews are among the most helpful data collection tools for this study as they investigate the perspectives, opinions, attitudes and perceptions of people with relation to the investigated research topic (Bryman, 2016). The research questions of this study are related to teachers' understandings, the knowledge bases that may affect their teaching, and factors that influence their decisions about teaching historical thinking. Therefore, to provide an explanation for these issues, interviews helped me to uncover the factors behind teachers' conceptions and what might lead to their attitudes (Schluter *et al*., 2007).

The main purpose of the selection of this method was to gather specific kinds of information and to learn what is "in and on someone else's mind" (Patton, 2002, p. 278). Additionally, interviews enable researchers to understand the perspectives of participants more clearly and in a detailed way (Patton, 2002). Through interviews, I had the opportunity to discuss history teachers' interpretations of the historical thinking that they are supposed to teach and understand how they respond to situations from their point of view (Cohen *et al*., 2011).

Therefore, in this study, the use of interviews as a primary data collection tool allowed me to explore and answer my research questions in depth and from many sides.

To be able to answer the research questions stated above, I carried out two interview sessions with the 10 history teachers introduced in the previous section. I was originally planning to conduct these interviews in an in-person format. Due to the Coronavirus Pandemic, I had to interview participants via online programs such as Skype or Microsoft® Teams. However, conducting interviews online caused technical issues. Two interviews carried out with two teachers were affected by the poor internet connection and this situation caused interruptions in conversations. Additionally, being restricted to virtual meetings with participants created a few problems regarding the gathering of necessary documents, such as schemes of work and the copies of their mind maps. Teachers who did not have scanners in their homes were unable to return such documents. Therefore, three history teachers could not send examples of their schemes of work and two of them were unable to share their mind maps.

The first interviews were based on a semi-structured approach (see Appendix 1) and the use of mind mapping. In these interviews, firstly, I asked, "What do you understand by 'historical thinking'?" This part of the interview was based on a semi-structured format. The use of semi-structured interviews is one of the approaches most closely associated with conducting investigations based on interpretivist, constructionist and life history traditions in the social sciences because it provides a clear reflection of ontological positions based on interest in peoples' knowledge, comprehension, understanding, and experiences (Bryman 2012). Kvale (1996, p. 2) defined semi-structured interviews as a "construction site of knowledge" because both interviewer and interviewee have an active, reflexive, and constitutive role in this process. Therefore, the data obtained from semi-structured interviews should not be seen simply as the answers given by the interviewee, but as something that has already been analysed (Bryman, 2006). Considering the epistemological and ontological

stances of the current research, semi-structured interviewing was one of the most fitting data collection tools. Elements of semi-structured interviewing are broadly characterised as "the interactional exchange of dialogue; a relatively informal style; a thematic, topic-centred, biographical, or narrative approach" (Mason, 2002, p. 62). The aim of this study was to understand what history teachers think about teaching historical thinking by focusing on their current teaching and professional development throughout their careers. This required mutual dialogue with my participants, involving their professional background, current environments, and their professional stance towards the topic of historical thinking. Thus, semi-structured interviewing was a suitable tool for this research.

Qualitative researchers accept that knowledge is contextual and situated, so the primary role of the interview is to provide relevant contexts and focus in order to enable situated knowledge to be produced. According to Robson (2011, p. 280), semi-structured interviews may be more suitable when "the interviewer has an interview guide that serves as a checklist of topics to be covered and a default wording and order for the questions." As discussed in Chapter 2, particular areas were identified whose exploration would contribute to information about the knowledge gap in teaching historical thinking. The interview questions were designed to elicit answers to the research question and further information about the gaps identified within the literature. The literature argues that some ideas and methods such as second-order concepts (Seixas, 2006), historical interpretations (Chapman, 2011), analysis of historical sources (Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2018), the use of evidence (Ashby, 2011), and asking historical questions (Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2018) are primary elements of historical thinking. But the literature also shows that there are different meanings and understandings for teaching historical thinking across the world. Therefore, how history teachers in England defined historical thinking and what aspects they tended to focus on were areas that had already been selected for examination, and also provided the main focus of the first research question. So, in order to address all the

relevant areas of the historical thinking, teachers' understanding of these notions and concepts was investigated with semi-structured questions. As Bryman (2012) argued, when researchers have an agenda, focus, and pre-determined ideas at the start of their research, the use of semi-structured interviews can be more helpful to address those specific issues. As they needed to be discussed in a detailed way, I used some prompt questions (such as "What else you can think about as part of historical thinking?") to have more control over the discussions when necessary (Cohen *et al*., 2011).

After that, in the remaining part of the first interviews, I asked participants to create a mind map depicting their ideas about effective teaching for historical thinking. The use of mind maps (which will be discussed in the following sections) helped to answer the second research question because their discussions while creating their mind map revealed what type of knowledge was necessary to shape their practices when teaching historical thinking. At this point, Shulman's (1989) two well-known theories, pedagogical content knowledge and pedagogical reasoning and action, and Husbands' (2011) extensive study on history teachers' knowledge bases have greatly shaped my approach to teachers' discussions on this topic (see Table2 and Table 3). At the end of the first interview, I requested participants to share their schemes of works (which will be discussed below in detail), if possible. We also had discussions about the extent to which they contributed to the creation of the schemes of work, the extent to which they were satisfied with the schemes of work they used, and how they would like to change them if they wish to update them. These discussions are considered to be useful for understanding teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and values as well as their forms of agency and self-efficacy based on the parameters of agency and self-efficacy in the relevant literature (Biesta & Tedder, 2009; Priestley *et al*., 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). For example, the discussion about their satisfaction with current schemes for teaching historical thinking allowed me to understand their practical-evaluative form of agency (Priestley *et al*.,

2015) by showing how the teachers responded to their present situations and the extent to which they were open to taking action for change. The teachers' scheme of work also helped to triangulate the data as they provided the necessary documentations from which I could check how teachers' understanding of historical thinking was embedded in their lesson plans.

In the second interview, I used the narrative approach (Robson, 2011) by asking one question: "How is your understanding of historical thinking developed through your career?" After the first interview, this approach was helpful in encouraging deeper discussion of the themes and concepts that teachers mentioned in their mind maps during the first interview. Additionally, in these interviews, the primary aim was to understand the teachers' developments through time regarding the understanding and teaching of historical thinking as this approach helps to reveal teachers' experiences, developments, and changes throughout their careers (Flick, 2014). I asked about their professional background, current situations, and future aspirations for their teaching career: this can be associated with the form of teacher agency which Emirbayer and Mische (1998) call a chordal triad (or a three-dimensional form of agency as Biesta and Tedder (2007) expressed it). Therefore, these interviews were beneficial to the collection of more detailed data on the third research question, as the teachers' answers helped me to understand their current context, individual beliefs, and self-efficacy and agency. Further discussions on the use of the narrative approach are provided in section 3.4.2.2.

The time of the interviews was set according to the participating teachers' availability. Because of lockdown restrictions during the time that interviews took place, teachers had flexibility to arrange interview times. Both the first and second set of interviews took approximately between 20 to 55 minutes. Each interview has been recorded by using a voice recorder. After the interview sessions were completed, 20 voice recordings were transcribed; and these transcriptions were emailed to participants to enable them to review and approve the final version of the interviews.

Although semi-structured interviews are considered advantageous for this research since they gather rich and detailed data about the complex and varied nature of the issue (Cohen *et al*., 2011), their nature might also lead to several limitations in understanding what actually history teachers actually do with historical thinking (Robson, 2011). As the interviews are just individuals' own interpretations, they can only suggest subjective data and this can be considered a limitation (Cohen *et al*., 2011). Another limitation can be produced by the researcher because the way they interact can influence the interviewees (Bell and Waters, 2014). Although coding can provide a rationale, determination of the quality of the interviews is complicated as there is no standard for doing this and they can change according to the researcher's perspectives (Arthur *et al*., 2013).

I took certain precautions to prevent these limitations to which may have jeopardised the results. My first precaution was to triangulate my data. "Triangulation means combining several qualitative methods or combining quantitative and qualitative methods" (Gray, 2014, p. 196). Denzin (1970) extended this definition further and he suggested four forms of triangulation: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theoretical triangulation, and methodological triangulation. Data triangulation means gathering data through different sampling selections, so that the data can be collected at different times from a variety of people. Investigator triangulation refers to using several researchers in order to obtain data in the field. Theoretical triangulation suggests the use of multiple theoretical positions in interpreting data. Finally, methodological triangulation requires more than one data collection method. In this study, I applied the last two, as I thought using varieties of the same method would be more suitable for triangulating the data due to the time limitations of a Ph.D. project. First, I obtained my data by using the semi-structured interviews, mind maps, document analyses, and then the narrative approach. I asked the participants semi-structured interview questions to get their views of historical thinking; I also used schemes of work to triangulate what they said in semi-

structured interviews and to see where historical thinking was happening in their lessons. I added the narrative approach to highlight key points within the teachers' professional life affecting their teaching of historical thinking: this also helped me to triangulate what they said in semi-structured interviews in a broader context. In this way, I could triangulate and strengthen the data by seeing overlaps and intersections within the data (Gray, 2014). Moreover, in case of any inconvenience (e.g., poor internet connection or failure to gather enough details in responses) during the first interviews, the second interviews provided a chance to compensate for previous shortcomings (Arthur *et al*., 2013). Additionally, I used several underpinning theories within the related literature while creating the data collection tools as explained above. These theories regarding the purposes of history teaching, historical thinking, teacher knowledge bases, teacher decision-making, agency, and self-efficacy provided a helpful theoretical framework while gathering and analysing the data. As stated before, this study has constructivist and interpretivist research paradigms, therefore history teachers' beliefs and mental settings needed to be discovered for constructing knowledge according to these paradigms. Therefore, these theories were helpful to discover and interpret those areas.

In addition to the precautions above, before the main data collection process, I conducted a pilot study with two history teachers and analysed four interviews to ensure that all questions could be clearly understood and could be answered within the contextual framework, and also that they were sufficiently well designed to cover all aspects of the research targets (Poggenpoel & Myburgh, 2003). As a first step, I analysed four interviews carefully to decide whether the data collection tools were appropriate to answer to the research questions and whether it was necessary to make any modification to the structure of the interviews. This process enabled me to see that my data collection tools were suitable for obtaining answers to the research questions. The findings of the pilot study also helped me to establish initial ideas about the teachers` conceptions of historical thinking and approaches to teaching the subject,

and created the foundation for the main study analysis, as I used similar approaches for analysing each set of data.

3.4.2.1. Use of Mind Map

Mind maps can be explained as drawings which illustrate interrelated concepts (Bandera *et al*., 2018). A mind map consists of words linked by lines, which show connections among the words (Jamieson, 2012). A mind map is a less structured form of concept map that begins with a determined concept at the centre of canvas: the participant starts to produce related concepts and connects them to each other meaningfully (Bandera *et al*., 2018). Mind maps can be seen as very helpful tools in educational studies as they mostly provide a visual form for expressing ideas (Jamieson, 2012).

According to Haddock and Zanna (1998, p. 146) mapping is an open-ended approach "designed to allow the researcher to understand the responses individuals spontaneously associate with an attitude object, as well as how this information is organized in memory." Mind maps can also be a helpful open-ended research tool "when the researcher does not want to impose bias or suggest relationships by forcing the data into a preconceived coding scheme" (Jackson and Trochim 2002, p. 333).

The construction of a mind map aims to reveal the perceptions of the author of the map instead of depicting the reproduction of memorized facts (Kinchin *et al*., 2000). For this reason, the structure of a map is unique to its author, reflecting his/her beliefs, experiences, and prejudices as well as an understanding of a topic. Therefore, this approach was considered strongly compatible with the underpinning areas of this research. The ability to create a mind map also requires two basic skills which are "the representation and the organization of ideas" (Kinchin *et al*., 2000, p. 44). Models of attitudes often include two components: (1) specific beliefs (cognitions) about an attitude object, and (2) specific emotions and feelings (affect) about the attitude object (Esses & Maio, 2002; Haddock & Zanna, 1998). Mind maps can also

help to demonstrate positive and negative beliefs and feelings that are associated with the main concept. In this respect, mind maps are consistent with the idea that the "search for deep beliefs and their origins should consider both the positive and the negative" (Krueger, 2007, p. 128).

I have utilised a constructivist philosophical stance in this research. The use of mind mapping can be seen as linkage to the constructivist view of learning and teaching. As it has been previously noted, the constructivist approach is based on the belief that individuals observe and reconstruct the meaning of events and objects with which they interact from birth to death (Kinchin *et al*., 2000). According to the constructivist approach, knowledge needs to be created rather than discovered. The construction of mind maps, therefore, is a good way to organize and understand knowledge because the use of mapping may enable researchers to gather insight about the ways participants see and construct their world such as "what is important to them, what their lived social relations are, and where they spend time" (Powell, 2010, p. 553).

In this research, mind maps were a helpful tool as this study is an attempt to gain the insights about teachers' perspectives on teaching historical thinking (Verloop *et al*., 2001). This technique can be very helpful, since it reveals complex relationships between ideas, beliefs, emotions and concepts (Kara, 2015). Therefore, I asked the participants to construct a mind map diagram depicting what they thought about "effective teaching of historical thinking in the classroom". These mind maps and further discussions based on them enabled me to understand the participating teachers' main approaches towards teaching historical thinking by seeing how they set their teaching strategies, what they emphasised in their teaching, and how they structured their lessons. This allowed me to trace the effect of teachers' professional knowledge bases on this process. Therefore, the mind map approach and the discussions around it helped me to answer the second research question. Additionally, I was also able to see how teachers reflect their understanding of historical thinking into their practices, and therefore this question also helped me to triangulate my data.

While analysing the teachers' mind maps, I employed my own interpretations by asking myself what my general impression of each map (Saldana, 2016) was. I also examined the mind maps to see how detailed they were, and what their main focus was. After that, I tried to compare and group them. Endorsing the theory that what we create embodies who we are (Saldana, 2016), I found that all the mind maps in this collection had their own unique features, but they also had various point in common. As Powell (2010) stated, the way the participants organize their mind maps showed what parts of their practice for teaching historical thinking were important to them. For example, two participants, Penny and Henry, provided detailed mind maps with very different focuses. While Penny's mind map and her contributions to the discussion about the maps were shaped around the teaching of second-order concepts, Henry showed a more comprehensive approach in the map and included further details about pedagogy, lesson sequences, and contextual range as part of his approach to historical thinking. Additionally, where the structure of the maps was concerned, Penny and Josie drew very similar maps based on their main focus on second-order concepts. However, Jack also pointed out the importance of the selected narrative while teaching historical thinking. These features helped me to understand more clearly how they approached teaching historical thinking, and the different focuses in the maps also suggested how history teachers' priorities and conceptualisations can differ. After analysing and interpreting all available mind maps, I tried to find similar approaches among teachers so that I could put them into groups.

3.4.2.2. Narrative Approach

Personal history and their narratives are particularly useful resources for the researchers who investigate human experience. This study is intended to "advance understanding about the complex interactions between individuals' lives and the institutional and societal contexts in which they are lived" (Cole and Knowles, 2001, p. 126) by using narrative approaches as a data collection method.

In the narrative-based interviews, asking participants to share the story of their professional lives may elicit a set of detailed autobiographical narratives. This request will give the narrators significant autonomy, enabling them to tell the story in their own words and identify what is important for themselves rather than responding to a preconceived agenda set by the researcher (Smith, 2012). Using this approach allowed me to ask participants to share their experiences from the beginning of their careers, including changes and developments up to present day (Flick, 2014). It is important to structure the narrative interviews in a way that enables the collection of data in an appropriate manner: this should be done "through open-ended phrasing that invites the narrative" (Kartch, 2017, p. 3). To achieve that, I asked them an opening question: "How has your understanding of historical thinking developed over your career?" In this way, I was able to ask them to share the history of their engagement with historical thinking and to give information about influential factors, people, and turning points in an ordered way (Flick, 2014).

Like the mind map, the narrative approach can also be very useful in establishing the epistemological and ontological stances of the research. Since it was interpretivist research, I needed to interpret the process of construction of a set of narratives about events and people (Smith, 2012), including their trainers, current school leaders, students, and colleagues. Hence, the narrative approach delivers a representation of the human experience which involves researchers in the interpretative process (Simith, 2012). I consider this approach has been useful for this study because it enabled the narrators to define what had been influential in their lives rather than responding to researchers' pre-determined conceptions (Labaree, 2006). Its open-ended structure produced rich, participant-specific data. Also, as Cole and Knowles (2001, p. 126) stated, the narrative approach is a method to "advance understanding about the complex interactions between individuals' lives and the institutional and societal contexts in which they are lived". Therefore, this approach was very helpful for the third research question, that sought

to explore how history teachers developed their techniques for teaching historical thinking over time, and what factors influenced them during this process.

Moreover, the ultimate goal of the narrative approach is to understand how personal stories, their meanings, and the narrators' experiences are related to the topic of interest (Kartch, 2017). Therefore, it was a helpful method for understanding the participants' experiences and motivations over time, establishing their educational and social contexts, and conducting a study designed to answer questions about why and how a history teacher might choose to teach historical thinking. Additionally, I could observe what form of support they had received or what obstacles had prevented them from teaching historical thinking. I could also gain a sense of how they evolved during their careers, and what type of specialists and professionals they became in this process.

The narrative approach requires the researcher to be prepared to ask follow-up questions in order to access deeper and richer data (Kartch, 2017). Therefore, I was ready to ask participants to elaborate on their answers by providing extensions, clarifications or examples. For example, teachers who mentioned their trainers as an influential factor were prompted to give further information by questions about what else had influenced them positively to teach historical thinking so far, and the extent to which they were satisfied with their current teaching of historical thinking. Afterwards, follow-up questions were asked based on what they shared in interviews. For example, when teachers mentioned heavy workload as a discouraging factor to teach historical thinking, I was able to dig more by asking their current working conditions such as how their department motivated them, what type of support they received, etc. Additionally, they were prompted by questions about what they felt they needed to change within their existing schemes of work and pedagogies. Using these answers as a starting point, the teachers were questioned once more about their short-term and long-term plans. In this way, I was able to capture detailed data on teachers' decision-making processes. Asking these

questions and receiving these responses helped me to explore the internal and external factors influencing the teachers, and to answer the third research question.

3.4.3. Analysis of Interviews

In order to analyse the data with maximum precision, the interview recordings were transcribed verbatim. The analysis of each interview began with reading the transcripts multiple times to achieve detailed understanding of the whole narrative of the interview. I followed the steps suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006): familiarising yourself with the data, finding initial codes, looking for themes, and reviewing them.

As an initial step, all interview transcripts for each teacher were coded on Microsoft® Word using a manual initial coding process. This coding helped me to familiarise myself with the material (Saldaña, 2016), and provided a starting point for understanding and interpreting the data in an open-ended manner. Two coding cycles have been applied and both deductive and inductive approaches have been used for the data analysis in this research. In the first coding cycle, the theories in the literature were set as the starting point: this helped to show how compatible teachers' ideas were with these theories with respect to their understanding of historical thinking, their knowledge bases, and decision-making processes involving internal and external influences (Gray, 2014). This research involved five deductive themes in relation to the literature and research questions: (1) teachers' understanding of historical thinking, (2) their knowledge bases and (3) teachers' beliefs, and finally, (4) teacher agency and (5) self-efficacy.

In the second cycle, the analysis was more inductive based, because, rather than searching for the pre-defined hypothesis, it allowed themes to emerge from the data by grouping, comparing, and interpreting common and different arguments of teachers (Braun & Clarke, 2006). During the review of each of the interviews, I noted emerging patterns and themes, and after that comparisons were drawn between the analysed interviews (Saldana,

2016). I interpreted, compared, and grouped teachers' responses with each other in order to see the sources of the similarities and differences between them (Patton, 2015). This analysis allowed me to comprehend what might impact teachers' approaches to historical thinkingm(Patton, 2015), and this suggested several categories, including professional development and contextual factors. Alongside familiar themes, such as purposes, beliefs, and attitudes, new themes, reflecting external factors such as accountability, performativity, network, and training, emerged as a result of the inductive approach. In this way, I successfully provided detailed answers to my research questions.

To analyse the mentioned themes adequately, I applied thematic coding. Scott and Morrison (2007, p. 33) state that "coding is used to sort and 'break down' the data by looking in detail at its characteristics and provide first steps in discovering that the whole is more than the sum of the parts." They explain that coding allows the researcher to see and understand each aspect of the issue by providing a detailed view of the study evidence and adequately demonstrating the situation to the reader. Moreover, quotations from the participants' responses based on determined codes have been presented (see, Figure 4 and Appendix 5).

Figure 4. An example of thematic coding

The process of qualitative data analysis typically begins with coding the data as relevant analytical elements. I was mostly guided by the research questions and relevant theories in the literature. Therefore, for this research, coding started with interpreting how participants' and definitions of historical thinking (see Figure 5). In this process, I tried to see if any similarity or difference enabled me to detect a repeating pattern among the teachers. A similar approach has been used for all research questions, including the analyses of mind maps and schemes of work. For example, the second research question aims to explore how teachers' professional knowledge can help them to teach historical thinking. Therefore, when analysing mind maps, I tried to find out how the elements in those maps could be associated with different knowledge bases such as subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, or knowledge about pupils.

Coding narrative approach data can be done by using codes that reduce the text to categories that the researcher deems significant in relation to the studied problems. I have utilised the same coding process that I used for the semi-structured interview questions. However, at this time, the analysis was more inductive based as the emerging nature of life history study may require more flexibility in coding the data. The analysis of inductive data required me to describe and interpret what I had, and afterwards, link these different ideas (Patton, 2015). In order to capture internal factors affecting the teachers' engagement with teaching historical thinking, the teachers' descriptions of their feelings about the development of their practice of teaching historical thinking over time have been used. For instance, their accounts of occasions when they felt they needed to change or develop something in their practice, and of the extent to which they were willing to make these changes, provided suitable data for exploring their sense of agency. Similarly, expressions of their feelings about their ability to create new teaching ways or materials for teaching historical thinking, and the extent to which they were satisfied with their current teaching for historical thinking enabled me to

interpret their self-efficacies. Additionally, their discussions of the purpose of history teaching helped me to understand their ideas about ideal and suitable teaching for historical thinking.

It is important to note that, as this research has qualitative settings, I did not use any quantitative measurements for the concepts of agency and self-efficacy. Analysis of these findings was based on my perceptions and interpretation of the data. In order to minimise potential bias and misjudgements in this process, I have provided direct quotations of the participants in Chapters 4,5, and 6, on findings. In order to capture external factors affecting teachers' engagement with historical thinking, I used teachers' examples of what helped them to engage with historical thinking, what encouraged them, and what helped them to extend their practice. Similarly, their answers about what made it challenging to teach historical thinking were coded as hindering factors. At the end of this process, the list of codes (see Table 5) emerged as a result of both deductive and inductive approaches to the teachers' discussions and the coding processes are finalised. Having created this table, I tried to see the extent to which these codes appeared in each teacher's interviews and this helped me to see the similarities and differences between the teachers (Yin, 2014).

R.Q. 1: What do history teachers understand by H.T.?		
Theme: Historical Thinking		
Code: Historical thinking		
Subcodes:		
D.H.T. Definition of H.T.		
P.H.T. Perspective of H.T. **What it covers**	Subject-specific	- Second-order concepts - Historiography - Source analysis - Interpretation
	Generic-based	- Critical Thinking - Literacy - Social - citizenry
B.H.T Beliefs about H.T. **How it should be**	- Diverse - Inclusive - Global - Critical - Engaging	
H.T.P - H.T. Practice **How I teach**	- Knowledge - Activities - Assessment - Subjects	-Substantive or syntactic
R.Q.2: What types of knowledge inform teachers' approaches to teaching H.T.?		
Theme: Knowledge		
Subcodes:		
Subject Matter Knowledge	S.M.K.	
Pedagogical Knowledge	P.K.	
Curriculum – Policy Knowledge	C.P.K.	
Pupil Knowledge	Pu.K.	
R.Q.3: What influences the decisions teachers' make in terms of teaching historical thinking?		
Theme: Influences		
Code: Internal Factors		
Subcodes:	- Teacher attitude - Teacher motivation (purposes) - Teacher agency - Teacher self-efficacy	
Code: External Factors		
Subcodes:	- Teacher Training - Pressures (time, money, exams, curriculum) - History Associations and Journals - Working (school) context - Influential people (tutors, colleagues) - Community of Practise (CoP and CPD) - Social Media (Edu-twitter and online sources)	

Table 5. List of Codes

3.4.4. Document Analysis

The last data collection tool in this research was document analysis. In the first interview, history teachers were asked to share their lesson plans (the schemes of work), if the plans were available and it was possible to share them. This information was helpful in illustrating the level of teaching motivations, the teachers' perspectives regarding teaching

historical thinking. Furthermore, the analyses of the schemes of work helped me to gain a better understanding of what history teachers intended to teach for historical thinking.

A document analysis generally involves three main stages: "skimming (superficial examination), reading (thorough examination), and interpretation" (Bowen, 2009:32). While some researchers, such as Silverman (2013), tend to find fault with content analysis because it may inhibit the interpretive process, the frequency indicators of important terms may convey important and meaningful messages about the general position of some concepts in the text.

In an educational study, the reliability of evidence gathered from document analysis may be problematic. These resources mostly show and justify the approaches adopted by policymakers and administrators and they can, therefore, provide a top-down, privileged view of education (Cohen *et al*., 2011). In addition, documentary resources are most frequently considered inadequate on the grounds that they fail to engage with classroom conditions, the learning context, and the relationships among teachers and students. However, I believe these objections to using document analysis need not apply to this research because teachers in England tend to prepare their own classroom materials in collaboration with their colleagues.

Furthermore, ascertaining the meaning of a document includes understanding the information transmitted and the author's basic values and assumptions as well as the arguments developed (Cohen *et al*., 2011). For this reason, analysing data gathered from documents can be a complex, and varied, process. In the literature, several ways of analysing the relevant documents can be found (Bryman, 2012). Generally, documents can be analysed using qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

In this research, I applied qualitative approaches to document analyses because the purpose of using this method is to search for meaning. Bryman (2012, p. 380) defines the main qualitative approaches to analysing documents as "qualitative content analysis, semiotics, hermeneutics and discourse analysis." Therefore, I used thematic analysis of content by

interpreting the texts, which was the proper method, given the qualitative nature of the research. The schemes of work were interpreted according to the ideas emerging from the literature review. How historical thinking was illustrated by a particular scheme was one of the most important elements of this analysis. For example, what was the main focus (e.g., second-order concepts, procedural factors, or contextual factors) of attempts to understand and interpret the texts? The examination of which subjects had been linked to which historical thinking skills and concepts was another valuable strategy in analysing the schemes of work. In addition to this, the ways in which some procedural competencies, such as the use of evidence and enquiries investigating different accounts of the same topic, have been represented in these schemes of work is going to be investigated in this research (see, e.g., Figure 5). Finally, I tried to see what kinds of activities based on historical thinking teachers tended to implement in their lessons. However, such examples did not appear in all of the schemes. In such cases, the statements teachers made while drawing the mind maps became more important means of supporting and supplementing the data, as they also mentioned what kinds of learning activities they tended to use in this process.

Figure 5. Example of scheme of work analysis.

Schemes of work were also helpful in providing me with insights regarding teachers' decision-making processes. Through further discussions about the process of creation and use of schemes, I gained several additional insights which are related to the participants' level of agency and self-efficacy by engaging in further discussions about to the extent to which they were reviewing and updating these schemes, and taking active roles in such renovations, and to what extent these schemes reflected the ideal history teaching the teachers identified during the interviews, etc. Thus, the use of document analysis has increased my understanding of the aforementioned subjects, and this allowed me to interpret the participants' attitudes to teaching historical thinking in the light of their schemes of work.

3.5. Validity and Reliability

To be able to conduct qualified empirical research, one must consider and carefully investigate the concepts of validity and reliability (Yin, 2014). Therefore, in this section, I am going to present and justify the validity and reliability of this study.

Researchers may traditionally tend to measure the reliability of research by using the concepts of repeatability and consistency. According to Scott and Morrison (2007), measuring the validity of a quantitative study in this way can be easier because the repetition of parallel outcomes and its overall validity may be tested by using specific methods such as parallel reliability forms, test and re-test reliability, and the reliability of internal consistency. However, measuring the reliability of qualitative data cannot be tested by using these methods as this data is mostly created by using personal and subjective interpretations of samples.

For this reason, Lincoln and Guba (1985) offered an alternative approach, different from the traditional forms, to measure the reliability of research, and others followed. According to these new approaches, the reliability of data will be satisfactory when the researcher chooses procedures which are the best fit, make the most accurate method selection, provide a sufficient rationale, and produce the most logical results from the collected data (Scott & Morrison, 2007).

Therefore, I always carefully considered the limits and strengths of the chosen methods, strategies, and paradigms while deciding on my approach to this study. I believe that I have chosen proper approaches and strategies that best fit the aims of the research. Additionally, the data collection questions were piloted to validate them and to ensure that they were appropriate to what they had to measure and did not include any form of bias. In this way, piloting the questions also contributed to increasing the credibility of the research (Poggenpoel & Myburgh, 2003). In addition to this, sets of questions and examples of analyses were sent to my supervisors to assure the clarity of the questions and analysing methods.

When it comes to the validity of this research, I have chosen to use the methods of the interpretivist researchers. Interpretivist and positivist/empiricist researchers tend to interpret and acknowledge validity from different perspectives (Scott & Morrison, 2007). The validity of data is mostly determined by positivist researchers according to their testablitiy, representability, and generalisability in broader groups (Yin, 2014). However, some criteria have been developed in order to identify the validity of qualitative data (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). These criteria for a study can be listed as t "fairness, educative authenticity, catalytic authenticity, and empowerment" (Scott & Morrison, 2006, p. 253). To maximise the validity of this research, I ensured that my findings would be authentic and accurate by taking the steps below.

Although I believe adopting an interpretivist paradigm was suitable for this educational study, I also acknowledge that there are possible limitations to the use of this paradigm. The first limitation is related to the limited transferability of the knowledge, as it was produced by considering only specific contexts (Scotland, 2012). Thus, the findings could not be generalised because this study collected qualitative data, and interpretations of this data would contain interpretative constructions (Scotland, 2012). Yet the purpose of this research was not to make statistical generalisations about the wider population, but rather to acquire a profound

understanding of English history teachers' approaches to teaching historical thinking. Additionally, as an interpretivist paradigm requires researchers to use their personal understandings and interpretations, the need to stay objective and neutral could be considered as another possible limitation for this study (Thomas, 2013). It is obvious that my background formed my interpretations and my individual, cultural, and educational experiences affected the way I interpreted the data (Creswell, 20114). To overcome such challenges, I made sure that every idea was equally visible by discussing and giving equal space to the answers and approaches of each participant (Poggenpoel & Myburgh, 2003). Consequently, fairness, equality, and representativeness are taken into account to increase the quality of the individual findings and the research in general.

I believe that this research met the criteria of fairness and authenticity required of an educational research project; as for empowerment, whether applied to the participants or their students, it is not the main focus of this chapter, but the accounts given here of the way in which the research was conducted show that participants were treated with respect and given every opportunity to express their views and enrich their practice. The validity of the research was enhanced by using many sources of evidence to verify and improve the clarity of its findings (Yin, 2014). Utilising interview data as well as teachers' lesson plans and schemes of work helped to confirm the validity of this research. It could be stated that this validity was further reinforced by utilising the triangulation method for the data gathered from various collection tools (semi-structured interviews, narrative approach, and document analysis) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Each step of the data collection and analysis process was transparent, in order to show how I reached my conclusions. Additionally, the sufficiency of data has been reinforced by forming ethically proper and theoretically relevant interview questions designed to construct knowledge about the investigated areas. The design of the research and the methods utilized were convenient, the participants were able to respond freely, my analysis was logical, my

interpretations were plausible, and the findings were credible as they were presented as transparently as possible by sharing them through direct quotations which show what has been said and how it is interpreted (Silverman, 2000).

The validity of this research was supported by the use of 'how' questions and replication logic: these were integrated into the multi-case study designs. Asking 'how' questions helped me to understand the logic behind the teachers' ideas, approaches and accounts concerning historical thinking (Zimmerman & Wieder, 1977). Similar and repeated findings or contrasting results that occur for expected reasons can reveal replication logic (Yin, 2014). Yin (1994, p. 31) argues that "if two or more cases are shown to support the same theory, replication may be claimed." This concept was useful for making an analytical generalisation. Yin (2014) suggests that analytical generalisation is one of the most relevant methods for application to case studies like these, where the number of samples is too small to permit thebroad conclusions provided by statistical generalisation. However, there is no intention to base generalisations on the findings of this study, since its aim was just to explore and evaluate the material found within its boundaries. Therefore, this small scale sampling simply represents itself (Cohen *et al.*, 2011).

In addition, discussions with all participating teachers were handled in the same way, and all answers were analysed and shown in identical conditions. Furthermore, the selection of participants for this research is also significant, since the use of a data source suitable to the research purposes was another critical factor in allaying concerns about validity and reliability s (Scott & Morrison, 2007). All these aspects were successfully considered and addressed in this study to ensure the authenticity of the research. Consequently, the data collected from this study can be considered valid.

3.6. Ethical Considerations

This research involves human participation due to its use of semi-sturctured interviews and narrative approach. Therefore, careful consideration of possible ethical issues which can

arise during this research was essential (Robson, 2011). Ethical considerations are related to the behavioural appropriateness of the researchers towards the participants and require that guiding moral principles are followed in their research (Gray, 2014). Therefore, before starting the process of data collection, approval from the University of Reading Institute of Education ethics committee has been obtained (see Appendix, 3). After this approval, I approached history teachers from the south of England to obtain their permission to conduct this study. In order to find the necessary number of participants for this research, the ITT partnership in the University of Reading was also consulted. After finding a certain number of history teachers with whom to conduct interviews, I sent information and consent forms via e-mail, providing brief information about the study, methodology and ethical considerations. I requested them to return signed consent forms to me (see Appendix 2) to make it possible to schedule the times for the first interviews.

This research is considered to be low risk where ethical issues are concerned, since it does not involve the participation of vulnerable groups, sensitive topics, ethnic or cultural groups, or confidential records or information (Gray, 2014). Yet some areas still require several precautions in order to ensure the security of participants and the validity of the research. Even though while preparing the questions I was anxious that no harm would be done to the participants throughout the research, talking about self-efficacy, their negative experiences, and work-related issues might cause stress (Bryman, 2016). In order to reduce these effects, before and during the interviews, I informed all participating teachers that their participation was completely voluntary and that they did not have to share anything that might make them feel uncomfortable. In addition to this, they were also informed that they could withdraw from the research project at any time. I also ensured that I stayed positive during the interviews and I made sure I did not behave judgmentally at any time by refraining from presenting my individual views on historical thinking. I insisted that I was just interested in their views, and

therefore I asked them what their thoughts were and why they thought so, without making any comments or judgements (see Appendix 1 and 5). Additionally, although I was not expecting any discomfort or distress during the interviews, I reduced any potential discomfort by issuing them with information sheets stating that there would not be any true or false answers. I also told them that my aim was not to challenge or assess their knowledge but to learn their perspectives and to get insights on whether historical thinking was being taught in the classrooms, and, if so, how the process took place (Thomas, 2013).

The teachers' anonymity was another especially important ethical consideration, since their data might involve both personal and work-related information (Gray, 2014). They were assured that their contributions to this study were not associated with their real names, and their personal information could not be seen by other people except the researcher and supervisors during and after the study (Gray, 2014). Yet, in some cases, anonymising might not be enough for ensuring confidentality (Robson, 2011). Thus, I was extremely careful while presenting the findings related to the school-based information and documents to ensure that there was no identifiable information or logo, especially while appending the scheme of works.

Security and data storage were other ethical issues which needed to be considered for this study (Thomas, 2013). The research records were kept confidential and stored securely in the password protected files on a computer (Thomas, 2013). The participants also received clear information on the rules governing the reporting, dissemination and use of findings, in accordance with the ethical requirements (Robson, 2011). In the information sheet provided, I also stated that anonymised data collected in this study could be preserved and made publicly available for others to consult and re-use. Additionally, I made it clear that the results of the study might be presented at national and/or international conferences as well as published as reports and articles in a written form. Furthermore, the participants were informed that if they wished to see the results or the papers produced from this study, I could send them electronic

copies. I can conclude this section by stating that no ethical issue was raised in the course of the research.

3.7. Conclusion

This chapter has provided the rationale and an in-depth explanation of the methodology used for this qualitative exploratory case study, involving semi-structured interviews, life history and document analyses within a social constructionist and interpretivist epistemological paradigm developed to gain an understanding of the participants' personal reality. I also aimed to clarify the chosen sampling, data collection and analysis strategies and the measures that were selected to assess the quality of the data collected and the results obtained. Finally, I discussed the key ethical considerations supporting the research.

4. WHAT DO HISTORY TEACHERS UNDERSTAND BY HISTORICAL THINKING?

4.1. Introduction

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 present the findings based on the responses to the three research questions of this study. Presenting the data together with the relevant research questions was found to be helpful in organising the data more efficiently and making chapters more concise. Chapter 2 argued, in the light of the relevant literature, that conceptions and understandings of historical thinking could be slightly different or focus on different aspects in different contexts. Therefore, this chapter, devoted to this main research question, aims to present English history teachers' conceptions and definitions of teaching historical thinking. In this chapter, I examine how history teachers define historical thinking, what they tend to focus on in relation to this term, and what kinds of purposes, objectives, and curricula characterise their teaching of historical thinking. The findings for this research question suggest that the teachers tend to associate historical thinking with teaching historiography and second-order concepts. Moreover, this chapter highlights the finding that, although each participant had history-specific cognitive thinking aims for teaching historical thinking, some described more complex relationships between historical thinking, generic thinking, and the generic purposes of history teaching.

4.2. Definitions of Historical Thinking

At the beginning of the first interviews, the teachers were asked to define what they understood by the term "historical thinking": this section is based on their answers. Most teachers in this study seemed to be knowledgeable about and interested in teaching historical thinking. It is understood that the teachers see historical thinking as a valuable component of school history, and they attempt to teach it, but in different ways. The majority of the definitions were similar in acknowledging the importance of teaching second-order concepts and

historiography. Penny, for example, related historical thinking to the idea that history is the reconstruction of the past and that is why she directly referred to teaching history as a discipline by focussing on procedural and syntactical aspects of history, such as second-order concepts:

What we teach in terms of historical thinking… [we teach] things like change, continuity and significance, causation and understanding those kinds of elements, understanding how history is created. So, looking at primary sources, understanding how we used primary sources and looking at how historians create history [are things we do] and trying to show students that it's not the past as if we can actually travel in time and see as it happened. (Penny – Int 1)

Similarly, Henry, Naomi and John provided definitions based on teaching second-order concepts, contextual understanding, and historiography. According to them, historical thinking helps students to have better contextual and methodological understanding rather than superficial learning about particular topics/issues:

Initially means going to the processes behind history. So, students' ability to think about concepts, causation, change and continuity, ideas like significance and how they engage with them. I think in terms of historical thinking, a student should be able to understand and empathise with different societies and different time periods and be able to carry out the processes in different contexts. (Henry – Int 1)

It's [what] historians do and so, it is thinking about not just the events and what happened, the story of them in the narrative, but thinking about issues more like causation or significance, why those events happened perhaps at that time rather than another time. (Naomi – Int 1)

So, for me, historical thinking is about actually students' understandings [of] how the past is constructed and not just knowing what, but also knowing how we have come to these conclusions, and why do we come to conclusions and getting students to work with those historical skills that come with that. So, the second order concept and those kinds of things. (John. – Int 1)

Mainly teachers initiated their definitions with references to methodological and procedural understanding. Similarly, Josie and Audrey also mentioned teaching historiography and second-order concepts:

I say historical thinking tells me more about kinds of skills we use in history and with evidence and also in terms of teaching, try to get the students to recognize how the history is created, so, basically the methods of history, [And we] try to teach skills as interpretation, cause and consequence, change and continuity, significance, that kind of thing. Historical thinking is about dialogue, about discourse and related to their interpretations. (Josie – Int 1)

Audrey, however, provided a less detailed definition of historical thinking. She stated that asking and answering 5W questions (who, what, when, where, and why), which is one way of teaching contextual knowledge, was the main part of what she understood as historical thinking. Audrey is the only history teacher in this research project who stated that she was not very familiar with the notion of historical thinking:

I'm not really that up on current debate in terms of that historical thinking though, and like the debate around historical thinking, I can't really comment on it that much. (Int 1)

Audrey's response was unique in this study. Therefore, it was necessary to understand what lay behind her response. Therefore, I clarified what she knew about the terminology by further prompting, such as asking more specifically about second-order concepts etc. However,

as upcoming chapters will show, she stated that her teaching was mostly based on teaching the content and content retention.

Steve provided a slightly different answer for the definition of historical thinking. He was the only participant who tried to define historical thinking from very broad perspectives and offered a multi-dimensional definition. He stated that teaching historical thinking was the 'end goal' of everything that he tried to do in the curriculum:

> *So, historical thinking is not just one thing. And there is no one simple answer I think that you can give to that. I think it's an amalgamation of everything that we do, made up of different branches and different sections of our practice. And so, some of the parts that make up historical thinking and some of them are more pedagogical and some of them are more academic, whereas the others can be more practical to do with, you know, the stuff that we do in classrooms.* (Int 1)

As it could be seen from this quotation, the terminology he used in order to define historical thinking was also multidimensional. According to his answer, his understanding had four main aspects. What he called historical thinking involved "critical thinking, ability of analysis, judgement, evaluation, source analysis and verbal and written literacy". So, basically, he refers to some procedural skills, e.g., use of evidence, interpretations, and analyses, which were helpful for students' cognitive development. His contributions to discussion, however, were more generic rather than history specific. He also preferred to use the term 'historical skills' while explaining what he meant by historical thinking. Steve also explained that "use of historical interpretations and historical academia would be crucial to helping a student become a historical thinker." He stated that introducing academic discussions and perspectives to students would be highly beneficial for improving their understanding and abilities.

Overall, second-order concepts and the use of historiography – history is a discipline and history is the reconstruction of the past – were the ideas most commonly expressed by the

history teachers. Most participants provided similar definitions. In addition to this, the majority of the participants preferred to use terms like 'historical thinking concepts' or 'second-order concepts' during the interviews. However, some participants, such as John and Steve, preferred to use 'historical skills' in their discussions. Similarly, Naomi preferred to use the term 'critical life skills' while explaining the relationship between historical thinking and history teaching. This terminology hinted at more generic views of thinking about skills: these teachers' wider discussions in Chapter 5 about their historical thinking teaching practice also supported this deduction.

4.2.1. Historical Thinking Concepts

As discussed previously, teachers often mentioned second-order concepts while defining historical thinking. Therefore, it became also important to find out which concepts received more attention or were discussed more often by teachers during the interviews. Table 1 is created according to which concepts teachers highlighted or prioritised in their discussions.

Participants	Historical	Thinking	Concepts				
Penny	Causation	Change	Continuity		Interpretation		
Jack	Causation	Change	Continuity	Significance			
Josie	Causation	Change	Continuity	Significance	Interpretation		
Ellie	Causation	Change	Continuity	Significance			
Henry	Causation	Change	Continuity	Significance		Similarity and Difference	
Steve	Causation			Significance	Interpretation		Chronology
Sarah	Causation	Change	Continuity	Significance			
Audrey	Causation	Change	Continuity				
John	Causation	Change			Interpretation		
Naomi	Causation	Change	Continuity	Significance			

Table 6. The concepts which were mentioned by teachers.

The most frequently mentioned second-order concepts were causation, change, continuity, and significance. It was not surprising because the latest version of the GCSE criteria and the various examination boards also tend to focus more sharply on these concepts. So, as Penny and Josie clearly stated, these were the most likely concepts to be assessed in students' GCSE performance. Additionally, although the formula 'similarity and difference' has appeared in policy papers (DfE, 2014) as one of the second-order concepts, only Henry used this term in the interviews, while explaining the questions in the scheme of work he used. The other teachers did not refer to the concept of similarity and difference at any point in our interviews, though they did talk about diversity (the previous version of similarity and difference). However, I did not include their discussions of diversity in Table 6, as they were

content-based rather than concept-oriented, and further discussions around diversity will be addressed in the following section of this chapter.

Although some teachers mentioned the use of evidence and historical interpretations as historical thinking concepts in Table 6, their later discussions and schemes of work showed that they mostly approached those elements as procedural aspects. Additionally, Steve also considered chronology among the historical thinking concepts. So, it can be said that, in this research, the answers of history teachers regarding their understanding of historical thinking were mostly in line with the previous national curriculum announced in 2007. This document lists key concepts and processes that underpin history teaching (QCA, 2007). According to this curriculum the key concepts of history include chronology, diversity, change and continuity, cause and consequence, significance and interpretation, whereas the key processes involve historical enquiry, use of evidence and communication about the past (QCA, 2007). Although the majority of participants - except Penny and John - trained in and after 2013, their approaches were found to be shaped by an older National Curriculum. For example, Sarah, who trained in 2013, stated her ideas about 'main second-order concepts' as follows:

> *I suppose I would identify the main second order concepts first. And I think the ones that we do the most are significance, change and continuity, using evidence. Hmm, really, it is those three as being the main ones in terms of how we then teach it…* (Int 1)
> When asked why she would identify those concepts as the main ones, she responded,
> *If we think the old National Curriculum and the second order concepts… I think those three can encompass more, so significance is like a stand-alone but using evidence, I would say that would include source work and interpretation works. The two key skills that change and continuity, I'd argue, you need chronology for that as well. So that kind of brings in chronology.* (Int 1)

Moreover, almost all teachers commented on the importance of involving key processes such as use of evidence, making a historical enquiry and analysing different interpretations in order to teach better historical thinking. In the current GCSE format, procedural aspects such as the use of evidence are presented in a way that potentially narrows the way in which students might understand them, and in this regard, it tends to be criticized (Burn & Harris, 2021). However, Josie stated that analysing different sources and looking at how opposing interpretations have been formed were very important parts of her curriculum, due to the latest changes in the History GCSE. She also emphasised that, because of the recent change in the GCSE, their department had started to adopt more in-depth ways of teaching historiography:

Interpretations very important part of my curriculum... This is actually, I can say that we weren't using that [much] until the exams (GCSE) changed. And we were quite guilty of not engaging historiography as much as we should have done but actually it is a positive thing, and we use it more. I think it's a way of reapproaching students to engage them further. (Int 1)

Although there are minor differences, all history teachers in this study mentioned similar historical thinking concepts. It is also understood that the main motivation behind teachers' decisions for teaching these concepts can be based on how these concepts are presented and weighted in the National Curriculum and GCSE exam structures.

4.2.2. Controversial Historical Thinking Concepts

Although history teachers showed very similar approaches while explaining their understanding of historical thinking, some disagreements about the concepts emerged in the later stages of the interviews. This research revealed controversy about teaching historical empathy and the place of diversity among the participating history teachers.

4.2.2.1. Teaching Historical Empathy

In this research, teachers were asked to share their ideas on teaching historical empathy in the classroom. Most teachers had different perspectives and approaches to teaching historical empathy. It is important to say that almost every teacher raised some concerns about teaching empathy, except Audrey. She was extremely willing and determined to teach empathy in her lessons, and even described empathy as key to a better understanding of the past:

> *I think empathy is key. I think you can't teach something like, you know, the Industrial Revolution without having empathy for why the Industrial Revolution was great for some people, but horrible for others. And like if you look at certain aspects of the Industrial Revolution, it's important that a child is able to look at that and say they had a very hard situation that those people lived in was difficult. And the reason why political and social change needed to happen is because of that shitty situation. And you can't really do that if you don't show empathy.* (Audrey – Int 1)

In addition to Audrey, four other history teachers, Penny, Josie, Ellie, and Sarah, also stated that they taught empathy while dealing with the Holocaust. However, they seemed more careful and concerned about teaching empathy compared to Audrey. For example, Josie stated that teaching empathy is important but also challenging because of the lack of knowledge about how to teach it:

> *I think it's important but also it is so hot because we've got no experience to teach it. I think we did some examples [during the PGCE] for teaching the Holocaust... Empathy is important, but difficult to teach as well. But we also try to see things like diary entries or reading, engaging in a historical and non-historical source and try to see what their personal reflection is on that. I think it's important to get their opinion on what they think.* (Int 1)

On the other hand, Sarah said that she had exchanged ideas on whether to teach empathy with her students in their lessons:

And then I actually ask them, do you think we should try and teach you empathy? It's really interesting because some of them are like, yes, you know, that that made it so much better. I like learning it like that. And some of them are really against it. And they're just like, no, I can't imagine I can't imagine what it was like to be in the Holocaust. (Int 1)

She also added that she would not teach empathy explicitly because of the challenges that empathy raised but she would try to engage past people's experiences:

I don't know what it was like to be a mediaeval person. You can't truly get there. I don't think I agree with actually trying to teach empathy distinctly, I, I would probably fall down on I don't think it can really be done. I think it almost diminishes some of the experiences of people in the past if you try and get year eight in a safe, comfortable classroom to imagine being a slave. But I do think teaching history through real experiences and through people is very, very important. And that probably goes some way towards allowing students to empathise. (Int 1)

Similarly, Penny also linked empathy with teaching the Holocaust. She stated that because she did not want to open up discussions on whether it was significant or not because of the denial issues, she decided to focus on empathy in her teaching. It could be said that the teachers who argued that empathy should be taught generally associated this situation with the teaching of sensitive subjects, especially the Holocaust. On the other hand, some teachers argued that teaching empathy in history classrooms could be problematic. For instance, John raised the difficulties of teaching empathy properly, and observed this process was fraught with pitfalls:

I mean, we don't necessarily teach empathy in our school. And I remember when I did

my PGCE, we did quite a lot of sessions around empathy and the difficulties around it.

So, we don't teach it… But I think there are obvious pitfalls with empathy. And I think if

it potentially gets done in the right way, I think it can be done correctly. But it's not

something we do actively. (Int 1)

John was not entirely against teaching empathy. He mentioned that he could teach empathy if a proper teaching system were to be introduced. On the other hand, Jack was more worried about teaching empathy in history lessons when compared to John. Jack stated that he would avoid teaching empathy, as it might discourage critical thinking and prompt students to engage in anachronistic thinking:

I'm not the biggest fan really. I have to say… because I think it's just a bit of a trap and

leads one down some paths that sort of bad. I think one of the things, for example, it

used to be the whole task of writing a letter back from the trenches to explain what it

was like… I don't think that produces critical analysis. I also think empathy leads to a

lot of anachronistic thinking in that sense. I think children are emotionally… I think it's

difficult for them to appreciate and empathise in the context of the time. (Int 1)

It seemed that a major part of the difficulty of teaching historical empathy was related to teachers' uncertainty about what they were trying to teach or achieve by teaching historical empathy, and, therefore, they did not know how to teach it. Because of this, Naomi argued that the purposes of teaching historical empathy, and the achievements expected of students at the end of these lessons, were not clear enough, and therefore historical empathy was a challenging and uncertain term for her. Her understanding of historical empathy was more related to dealing with students' emotions:

So, we have to be quite careful with empathy. And also understand what do we want

them to actually do with that feeling? Do you want them to sit in a corner and cry

because they are trying to empathise with somebody who experienced the Holocaust? No. You want them to understand that it was a terrible, horrible thing and to try and think about what these people might have gone through. So, yeah, I think going on the side of I'm not sure how you teach somebody how to feel, and I'm not sure I'm comfortable trying to teach somebody how to feel. Are you teaching them the ability to step into somebody else's shoes, which is how a lot of people phrase it? And actually, should you teach that, and can you teach that? Because if you're teaching them to recognise and to value different people's experiences, well, that's a different kind of thing you're asking them to do. (Int 1)

Although teachers' approaches to teaching historical empathy differ, a common factor is uncertainty about how this concept differs from the word 'empathy' we use in everyday life. Additionally, in this research, it is understood that teachers tend to relate historical empathy to emotional situations such as dealing with students' feelings and showing sympathy for the sacrifices that people made in the past. At the same time, however, the teachers in this study have not totally avoided teaching historical empathy. Some participants, such as John and Sarah, stated that although they had some concerns and hesitations, they could teach empathy if there were sufficient support and guidance.

4.2.2.2. Historical Diversity

In the current curriculum, historical diversity has been addressed as similarity and difference (DfE, 2013). Although 'similarity and difference' is considered a second-order concept, teachers in this research approach diversity as content, but they consider it in various ways. Generally speaking, all teachers emphasised the point that having more diverse history teaching was essential for today's history classrooms, filled with ethnically, religiously and culturally diverse students. However, it is also apparent that teachers' conceptions of the nature of historical diversity are dominated by the need to introduce more content from wider world

history, appropriate to their students' backgrounds. Thus, their aims appeared to be fulfilling the social-citizenship purposes rather than developing history-specific understanding. Ellie, for example, established a close relationship between diversity and historical thinking. Her understanding of the association of diversity with historical thinking was more content-focussed and ultimately based on the purposes of teaching history, more specifically taking lessons from the past:

> *It's really evident that we can't let past mistakes constantly cloud over our future. So, like, I think it's really important, especially now, to develop and consider how we are teaching stuff like slavery and colonialism. And it's only with the future generations if we diversify our history, that they're going to know what happened to stop it from happening again.* (Int 2)

Although Ellie said that diversity was important for teaching historical thinking, the words cited above may suggest an outdated purpose of teaching history which may not support historical thinking in classrooms, as her statement tends to depict the past as a fixed entity, without considering the specific time settings which are all-important components of historical thinking. Steve also discussed diversity in terms of content, and his comments on the importance of historical diversity were not mainly history specific. His main reasons for engaging with diversity were current educational tendencies and the generic aims that should be achieved through studying history:

> *I mean, the whole push in schools at the moment is that curriculum needs to be broad and varied and diverse across the board, not just in one subject. I think history is a subject that lends itself to broadness and diversity of what we teach, but we are absolutely reliant on more generic skills needed to curriculum, you know, especially in terms of things like literacy, for example, that has to be done on a whole school basis.*
>
> (Int 2)

Similarly, John's ideas on diversity were also about content, involving the narrative that should be used while exploring the past events and people:

And I think the relation between diversity and historical thinking is about how we understand the past and also how we construct the past, the realisation of students that the past is constructed and therefore, actually what is the narrative that we want to tell students? If you go back, let's say 30, 40 years, the narrative of our past was significantly different to the narrative that students learn in schools today… And one of the things students should understand about the past is the diversity and how diverse the society is and how diverse our history is. And I think it's very important to be aware of that. (Int 1)

John's explanations of the relationship between diversity and historical thinking seems to be related to several goals of history teaching, such as helping students to understand that history is the reconstruction of the past and understanding and appreciating the diversity of the past and today. And he also suggested that the stories we teach and narrative we adopt can change through time, which suggests a more complex relationship between diversity and learning to think historically.

Some teachers, such as Audrey, approached diversity as a means of making the history curriculum more inclusive, so that it would become more relevant to students from different ethnic groups:

I think we do apply a lot of diversity because we are primarily a black-[dominated] school and we have a very high percentage of black students. But actually, I'm pushing us to do more on Turkish history because we also have a really high Turkish population. I have kids who are Turkish, but they don't love history much, I don't know why. Maybe if they could see some of their histories, they might be more engaged. (Int 2)

On the other hand, Penny was knowledgeable about the current debates around diversity - whether it is content or concept. In discussion, she directly referred to this debate and suggested that diversity should not be seen as a second-order concept. She stated that diversity and significance should permeate everything we do in history, but they were not concepts. She also said, "if you teach history well, the students see the diversity within their history anyway". Her refusal to consider diversity as a concept in its own right arose from her fear that it might lead to inadequate teaching, with superficial approaches being adopted just to tick a box on the list:

> *You've got all sorts of things you can teach with the English civil war, you know, causation and change and continuity and… lots of different factors and lots of different things you can do with it… Shoehorning in something called diversity, you know, for ticking a box on a tick list that we're supposed to be doing... that's not the right way to do it.* (Int 2)

Just like the other teachers, Josie and Sarah also made it clear that diversity was a critical and necessary component of history teaching. However, they also acknowledged that their approach to diversity had changed due to curriculum changes. In her department, Josie declared, they now tended to blend diversity with historical significance. Moreover, she stated that they could not adequately include diversity at the moment:

> *We tend to talk about diversity less now actually. I think it's because it is moved from the National Curriculum. We intended to do a Roman scheme of work to see how the environment was diverse, and how the religious elements there were, so as Jews and Christians and women... I think it is all about significance and changes. So how the Christians changed can show the diversity and significance and change as well. That's how I linked it to diversity in that respect. But, I think, diversity is one of those we tend to focus on less. And we might be teaching it, but I guess we don't do it properly.* (Int 2)

Josie's statement could be an example of the impacts of curriculum and policy changes on teacher approaches.

This part of the research has shown diversity being described by teachers as one of the most necessary elements in the teaching of historical thinking. However, this topic also led them to challenge their curriculum and practices. While introducing and discussing their curriculum, and explaining how they wanted to improve their lessons, they always referred to the element of diversity. Increasing the diversity within their teaching was one of the most desirable achievements for the participants in this research. Thus, it could be said that history teachers acknowledge diversity as one of the most important factors in the provision of better historical thinking. However, dimensions of diversity were found to be limited to reflecting the ethnic make-up of the schools' student populations. Other dimensions of diversity (e.g., the inclusion of women's history [Penny], and local and everyday people's history [Henry]) were very limited.

4.2.3. Historical Thinking and Generic Aims

The analysis of the interviews suggested that teachers had some generically-related motives for engagement with historical thinking, in addition to a desire to teach conceptual and procedural aspects of history. The most commonly shared aim was related to the fostering students' cognitive developments (e.g., information gathering, critical thinking, questioning, and argument) through the study of the skills and competencies required by history. Some of the teachers (i.e., Steve, Jack, Naomi, and Henry) drew attention to these objectives, while discussing their effect on the daily life of students. Naomi and Steve explained their purposes in teaching historical thinking very clearly, as follows:

> *If we move away from just narratives and move towards more historical thinking, we can be actually encouraging students to be participants. So, we would not be flowing the stories over them. If we teach them critical skills, it will [give] the ability to analyse*

information that is given to them, to consider where that information has come from and whether actually, it's an accurate reflection when they go out into the big world. (Naomi – Int 2)

I think what's the outcome for the students is when they stop studying history with me, they would come out with far improved literacy, far improved levels of evaluation and analysis, and they will have the ability to pick up trends, build an argument, substantiate their opinions, analyse data, evaluate things. [And] all of these skills can be applied in the real world to whatever they go off and do, whether that's medicine or working in law or business or working in a shop because those skills are transferable. (Steve – Int 2)

Another common purpose was mostly related to helping students to have a better understanding of the world and society they live in. In this context, teachers' views on the generic aims of historical thinking were related to the social-citizenry acquisitions of learning about the past. Seven teachers (Penny, Ellie, Audrey, Naomi, Henry, Steve, and John) discussed the importance of building relevance for students in a form that enabled them to understand the present day in the light of past events. For this purpose, Henry and Audrey provided some examples such as 'being able to look at a newspaper and understand what it is about' or understanding 'the building blocks of modern society'.

And I think in terms of another aim would be making students good citizens and good active citizens. Things like source analysis and those kinds of skills or things like creating a historical debate are really useful for students in the wider world [requirements]. So, they can kind of understand that everything has an agenda, and they need to work it out. Is it reliable or does it fit with other pieces of evidence that I have…

In terms of thinking about debates, they're able to kind of frame their ideas and argue that point of view. (Henry – Int 2)

And I think that is where [relevance] we fail our children in history. I think we really don't do enough to use history as a vehicle through which kids can think critically and to make it relevant to more prominent things that are happening in their lives today. You know, something like using the past to understand the future. (Audrey – Int 2)

Alongside relevance to the present day, the moral purpose of teaching history was also frequently mentioned by the teachers. Penny, Henry, Steve, John, Naomi, and Audrey discussed these aims by presenting the relevance of historical events to the present in a form which enabled students to understand the roots of current issues, and the data shows that teachers mostly preferred to focus on these aims while teaching sensitive content such as Black History or the Holocaust.

The whole idea of the Black Lives Matter campaign at the moment doesn't really have any relevance in England unless you know about the British Empire. If students don't know about the British Empire, then it's quite hard for them to make sense of what racism looks like in the UK. (Henry – Int 2)

In the literature review section, the generic aims of history teaching and cross-curricular links have been associated with developing students' democratic consciousness, appreciation of cultural diversity, celebration of cultural pluralism, and ability to combat racism (Foster, 2014). Generally speaking, in this study, history teachers have not cited these purposes as major motivations for their teaching of historical thinking. During our interviews, only Naomi emphasized the fact that those aims were part of her purpose teaching historical thinking because she also taught citizenship education in addition to history. She also stated that these

two subjects blended with each other nicely, so that she could adopt similar purposes and objectives for both:

> *You can use historical thinking for those aims. I teach AQA citizenship and a lot of it is about analysing viewpoints and trying to understand why viewpoints would be different. So, some of the skills used in source work in some of the history lessons and historical thinking is kind of it's almost exactly the same. So, they kind of go hand in hand. And we have a lot of students who choose actually to take both history and citizenship because they do link so nicely.* (Int 1)

On the other hand, Sarah and Josie suggested making a distinction between generic aims and subject-specific aims. They stressed that historical thinking should be history-specific, and should therefore be aimed at establishing an understanding of the disciplinary methods of history:

> *No, I don't think historical thinking helps with that. I think knowledge helps more with that, because if it's too abstract, if they've not got enough depth, they can't picture themselves in it or really start to delve into the idea that these were real people. I think historical thinking helps more with realising that history is more disciplined and it's not like this set of facts.* (Sarah – Int I)

> *I widely estimate the role of history for social constructions. But I am not aware that historical thinking as a term could build a wider link into the whole curriculum. I just think about history and the methods of history [for teaching historical thinking].* (Josie – Int 1)

Although these teachers suggested a distinction between the history-specific and generic aims of historical thinking, their discussion of teaching the sources, historical interpretations, and use of evidence mostly suggested the generic-based objectives. For example, Sarah noted

that she tended to give more space to the use of sources and evidence as part of the main historical thinking activity in her curriculum, yet the rationale behind it was as below:

I think it's really important that students know about the past. I think the one skill that we still do, perhaps more than the others, is getting students to question sources. So, I think that's quite important because I always tell them, like, this is the same as if you're reading things on Facebook, you have to question it. You can't just take something as a fact without checking other opinions. So, I think that's quite an important life skill, particularly now with like fake news and everything. (Int 2)

These examples can suggest that although teachers mainly cited discipline-specific aims for teaching historical thinking, their views on the subject's procedural aspects were more in line with generic aims. This was an important finding because teachers' conceptualisations of their purposes seemed to be affecting their practice as well. For example, Sarah's example of practice for the use of resources was as follows:

We set up a source that fits what we've been doing or whatever, and then we find one that says something completely different. And we're saying look if you only relied on the first one, you'd think this. Someone else is saying that actually that's all completely wrong and that's not what happened. And then, they [students] try to work out which one could be closest to the truth. (Int 1)

This tendency to encourage the analysis and interpretation of primary sources and other forms of evidence for generic purposes was found to be common among participants. The majority of teachers associated this kind of work with the generic purposes of history, as discussed above. However, some teachers (Penny, Jack, and Henry) produced examples of history-specific uses of primary sources designed to improve understanding and analysis of past events. Penny, for instance, suggested that students should be familiar with the first-hand sources of history:

We do sources and kind of trying to get them into the kind of evidential thinking… And we do try to avoid getting them to see historians' interpretations as forms of evidence, whereas now we try much more carefully to get them to see that they are interpretations of the past. And then, we look specifically at primary sources for what they do tell us. And, I think, the main thing we do with that is we get them to think about what can we infer? And we ask them, what does this tell us? What can we learn from this about the past? (Int 1)

This chapter can be summed up by suggesting that history teachers tend to associate the procedural aspects of historical thinking with generic-based purposes. Three teachers, however, differed from the others. Although their purposes resembled those of the others, their understanding of and approach to procedural aspects of historical thinking were slightly different. These differences could arise from their wider engagement and closer familiarity with the academic field and related discussions. Further discussion and evaluation of these topics will appear in the upcoming chapters.

4.2.4. Historical Thinking and Scheme of Works

This section presents the analyses of the teachers' schemes of work and the interview discussions about them. The main concern was to see how their schemes of work revealed teachers' understanding of and approach to teaching historical thinking, including concepts, enquiry questions, lesson targets and activities. Analysis has yielded useful insights, enabling me to understand the core of what history teachers intended to teach.

Overall, twelve schemes of work were collected from seven history teachers as part of their curriculum (see, Table 7). Three history teachers (Audrey, Naomi, and Ellie) were unable to provide a scheme of work for various reasons. Collected schemes varied in level of detail. While some included the content and concepts to be taught, as well as the aims of particular lessons, questions, suggested activities and resources, others contained less detail in those areas.

Additionally, two of them were only curriculum maps, consisting of subject topics. As these curriculum maps did not provide any detail, it was impossible to analyse them in a meaningful way. I needed to rely solely on interview discussions in order to understand these teachers' approaches to teaching historical thinking.

Teachers	Schemes of work KS3
Penny	Plantagenet Kings Year 7 Votes for women Year 7 Slavery Year 8
Jack	Curriculum Overview
Josie	Slavery Year 7
Sophie	History Detectives Year 7 Threats to Power 1066-1381 Year 7 Tudors Year 8
Henry	Slavery Year 7
John	Norman Conquest Year 7 Slavery Year 8
Steve	Curriculum Overview

Table 7. Teachers' schemes of work.

All schemes of work were part of the teachers' Key Stage 3 curricula. Generally speaking, these schemes of work demonstrated a clear disciplinary approach to teaching history and each of them was designed to teach several second-order concepts. The schemes of work from Josie and Sophie were especially detailed in their identification of the key features of their pedagogy. The concepts they intended to teach in each lesson were all visible, and there was a clear emphasis on using sources to understand how the knowledge of the past was constructed. In addition, their schemes of work included activities to be implemented in each lesson, and these details helped me to analyse them better. On the other hand, the schemes of work from John and Steve were the least detailed of all. That is why, in Table 8, a comparison between

Josie's and John's schemes of work has been provided, as an example of the similarities and differences between schemes.

During our interview, John highlighted how importance enquiry questions were for his ability to provide in-depth levels of historical thinking in the classroom. He emphasised that the enquiry question should be relevant either to the current world or to something in which students were interested. In addition to this, he added that an enquiry question should also have a sufficiently sophisticated design to guide students into higher-level areas of thinking. The enquiry questions in his scheme were suited to his arguments in the interviews. The scheme introduces its topic, the slave trade, by demonstrating its relevance to students: it discusses the visible evidence that can be found in Britain today, and it explores how some British cities have been shaped by the slave trade. His main aim was to make history more relevant to the lives of present-day students, and therefore more engaging (later discussions also showed that increasing relevance was one of the main pedagogical concerns of his lessons). As study of the topic progresses, enquiry questions extend and enrich students' awareness of the enslaved people's experience of the slave trade by focussing on concepts such as change, causation, and significance. Then the topic concludes with a discussion of the impact of the slave trade and the associated controversy on modern Britain. His scheme of work does not include classroom activities, but in our interviews, he explained that he liked to use photographs from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries that showed the life of enslaved people and the conditions on the plantations. He said these photographs and other visual resources helped students to see the processes involved, allowing them to understand the topic, then to identify contrasts, and finally to make comparisons. Additionally, during the interviews, John explained how he focussed on developing students' general and history -specific literacy. In his scheme, there was some reference to oracy activities (designed to improve students' writing, listening, and speaking skills without giving details.

Table 8. Key points of two teachers' approaches to Slavery

Josie's SoW Enquiry question	Concept/process	Key features	Activities	John's SoW Enquiry Questions	Concepts/Process	Key Features	Activities
What was Africa like before the slave trade?	Source Work	Comparison- investigation of sources	Writing activities	Introduction: What evidence is there in Britain today of the slave trade?	Significance		
How were slaves treated in the Middle Passage?	Source work	Investigation/explanation of sources	Writing activities Assessing the reliability of sources	What was 16th Century Mali like?		Knowledge and Understanding	
How were slaves sold?		Knowledge and understanding		What was the experience for enslaved people from initial enslavement to purchase?		Knowledge and Understanding	
Why do Historians disagree about life on Plantations?	Source work	Investigation and explanation of different interpretations	Preparing debates with using different interpretations	Why are there different interpretations of slave experience?	Source Work and interpretations		
Explain what life was like on plantations?		Knowledge and Understanding	Tower task	To what extent were the actions of Wilberforce the greatest factor in the abolition?		Knowledge and understanding of Wilberforce	
How was slavery resisted?		Knowledge and Understanding	Diamond nine Writing activities	To what extent were the actions of Wilberforce the greatest factor in the abolition?		Knowledge and Understanding of resistance and rebellion	
How far was William Wilberforce responsible for the abolition of slavery?	Causation		Tower Task	To what extent were the actions of Wilberforce the greatest factor in the abolition?	Causations	Knowledge and Understandings of Economics and judgement	
Assessment preparation		Preparation for assessment	Causation work Key details Interpretations	Assessment			
ASSESSMENT				If slave trade was abolished in 1807, why did it take a further 26 years to abolish slavery in the British Empire?	Change and continuity		
To what extent has slavery been abolished?	Change and Continuity		Scenario based debate	Why is there such controversy in the debate surrounding the impact of the Slave Trade on modern Britain?	Significance and change and continuity		
				Why is there such controversy in the debate surrounding the impact of the Slave Trade on modern Britain?	Significance and change and continuity		

During our interviews, Josie laid strong emphasis on her main motivation for teaching history: to help children to understand that history is a discipline. She also clearly explained that her main motivation for teaching historical thinking was related to the conceptualisation of the construction of the past by using methods of the discipline of history. Specifically, she clarified that using interpretations and sources were important elements of her teaching of historical thinking. The scheme she provided was in line with what she stated during our interviews. In the scheme, the starting focus is helping students to see the different processes in order to challenge their preconceptions about Africa, and then look at the impact the slave trade has had on the continent and the responsibility of the West. During the lessons, students start looking at evidence and opposing interpretations in order to stay engaged with the sources; then they need to create their own interpretations and argue their cases.

Although she often stated that historical interpretation was an important element of her curriculum, the materials she debated and provided in the SoW were suggestions for interpreting sources of evidence. However, what constitutes historical interpretation is distinct from the generic method of interpreting sources of evidence (Harrison, 2004). As Mastin and Wallace (2006, p. 6) indicate, "the work of assessing interpretation must involve real interpretations" and this requires working with 'real' secondary sources. As an Ofsted Conference (2004) paper stated, teachers may make mistakes while planning their work on interpretation by assuming that it is about students doing some interpreting on their own. Teachers can ask students to create their own interpretations as a way of preparing to teach this concept, but they still need to get students to understand the process through real secondary sources and representations of historians' views in order to reconstruct and explain historical events. Therefore, although Josie stated that interpretations and source works occupied an important place in her scheme of work, it was more likely to be the interpretation of sources

with a generic approach. In most of the activities, students need to think about different interpretations and write an essay showing which side they find most convincing.

Additionally, students' ability to work with evidence, form an opinion and reach a conclusion has been supported by lesson activities. As with John, there was a noticeable tendency in Josie's scheme to improve the literacy skills of students. However, unlike John, Josie's scheme of work has little focus on establishing students' sense of present-day relevance. Only in the last lesson on the topic does an enquiry question focus on the problems and solutions related to modern slavery. Josie accepted this as a limitation of her scheme of work. She answered the question of how she would like to change or develop this scheme of work in any respect as follows:

> *At the end of modern slavery, we look at how the impact of slavery exists today. But maybe we could further look at how it led to the impact the abolition of slavery was. You could go off into the idea of contextualizing it to see why there's still such discourse around this subject in America.* (Black Lives Matter protests were taking place at the time of this meeting).

John also stated that the limitation of his scheme of work was having more focus on substantive knowledge than historical thinking and second-order concepts, as follows:

> *I personally quite like having quite a specific focus on second order concepts. So, yes, actively thinking per lesson or per lesson set, actually what kind of skill are we going to be focussing here to develop, that's probably what I would include more.*

Generally speaking, there is a strong disciplinary emphasis in the Slavery scheme of work. The most visible aims are forming an opinion, exploring diversity, teaching causation, and making interpretations and judgements. Additionally, different emphases have been seen in these two history teachers' approaches to teaching Slavery. These differences seem to be caused by history teachers' tendency to have their own individual perspectives on teaching

historical thinking, such as their purposes in teaching history and their main motivations for teaching historical thinking. John mentioned that one of his main aims in teaching history was to increase its relevance for students and, in this way, increasing their engagement. These factors have shaped the general structure of his curriculum. Similarly, Josie stated that one of her main purposes in teaching history was to teach students a set of skills such as questioning, interpreting, and judging opinions.

The second reason for subject similarity in the schemes of work could be related to the pressures of accountability and the GCSE structure. The recent changes in GCSE required more content to be covered and intensified the focus on British history by introducing topics such as key events that have shaped today's Britain. Consequently, some history teachers taking part in in this research, such as Sarah, stated that they were going to end up just focussing on knowledge and knowledge retention without really getting to explore the historical thinking as they used to do. This tendency is visible in the three schemes of work that she sent. Overall, she sent three schemes, on the Tudors, Power change in Monarchy, and teaching historiography. In the first two schemes, the main focus was on teaching the content, as she stated before. Only the last one turned its main e focus on disciplinary aspects of teaching history. This scheme was mainly aimed to teach and assess the key skills of a historian, such as chronological knowledge and understanding, causation, and interpretation. However, the variety of enquiry questions and classroom activities was more limited when compared to the scheme of work sent by Penny for a similar time period.

Sarah's scheme covers some of the key events that have shaped England, from its conquest by the Normans through to the signing of Magna Carta. The main conceptual focus of the scheme is on causation and source work. She explained that her main motivation in this scheme was for pupils to become comfortable with the concept of evidence as something distinct from mere information. Therefore, she said, activities had been prepared to enable students to use sources to support a point. Creating a diagram on causation, filling a bubble diagram with quotations to show evidence, investigating drawings to understand their significance, and investigating sources to reach a conclusion are some examples of the activities in the scheme.

In general, Sarah's comments can be helpful in showing the effects of accountability pressures that teachers deal with (see, e.g., Chapter 6.2.3.). In our interviews, Sarah stated that she was not willing to take risks when she could not estimate whether or not they would be successful. Penny, however, though dealing with similar pressures to Sarah, could become more involved in teaching historical thinking and she had more disciplinary approaches and emphases in her scheme. For Penny, it was quite important to provide good coverage for the concept of change and continuity, because she and her colleagues found out that students really struggled with understanding how to answer questions that focussed on change and continuity at GCSE level. Consequently, she explained that they tried to get students to look both at change over time and where change was happening more quickly. For this reason, Penny and her department devised a scheme of work covering change in the power of the monarchy from the Stuarts through to the Georgians. In this scheme, the focus mostly appears to be on the knowledge of key events and people, with few indications of explorations of change, interpretation, and significance. Although a strong GCSE impact was clearly visible in the two schemes of work, as this topic was one of the main GCSE topics on which students would be assessed, teachers' responses and approaches to such impacts were different.

Other schemes that Penny sent took different approaches to enquiry questions and classroom activities. For example, in Penny's scheme of work on Suffragettes, there were interesting examples of the use of historical statues to debate how the status and power of women changed throughout history. The main enquiry question was "Whose suffrage campaign story should we commemorate with a statue?" In each lesson different statues of women from different classes campaigning for votes for women have been introduced and discussed. Although the enquiry question seemed to be fostering the process of memorialisation, the main lesson structures and activities also involved elements which could lead students to consider why some people found these statues were controversial, and to interpret the arguments for and against the statues by using the histories behind them. Additionally, the classroom activities seem more varied and creative when compared to the scheme on Monarchy.

In addition to this, although the majority of participating teachers emphasised the importance of diversity for engaging with historical thinking in a more detailed way, few signs of diversity have appeared in their schemes. In three teachers' schemes of work, there were some references to including world history in home learning opportunities by using some activities entitled 'meanwhile-elsewhere activities'. These involved topics from world history such as Mansa Musa & medieval Mali, Genghis Khan, the Byzantine Empire, the Song Dynasty, and Russia. Steve and Jack were the teachers who sent curriculum maps, and in those maps, there were standalone units for teaching topics such as Nazi Germany, Communist Russia, and the Korean and Vietnam Wars. Steve said that these had been chosen in order to offer students some topics from modern history.

In this study, only Jack and Henry expressed any motivation to include some local history. Henry, in particular, clearly explained that they tried to make some adjustments by adding elements of local history to the current schemes of work in their department:

The other thing that we've kind of looked at over the last year as a team massively was the local history, and we felt that was largely absent. And so that's another really good example of tweaking things rather than necessarily kind of removing a unit and putting something new in. Our aim is kind of interweave or add local history to what we already do. So, it might be changing the focus of a question or adding homework to find out the locality. (Int 1)

Henry also observed that teaching some topics, such as Slavery or World War I, might help children to see history as more relevant to their own lives, and, therefore, learning about a monument or statue that students saw every day in the class could connect history to their daily life. He explained his way of bringing local history to the classroom as follows:

But we can look at World War I to find out about the soldiers who are in the war. And then also we can look at different experiences from different frontiers of war and different soldiers who came from different areas. I think that does require a bit of research with the sources... You can't just turn up and teach that, it is not really in textbooks. And so, it does require a bit of work and thinking about it. (Int 1)

In summary, subject uniformity has been seen in the collected schemes of work, and they are heavily based on British History. Only four of them (Penny, Henry, Steve, and John) involved some attempts to introduce more diversity or cross-connection with wider world history. In addition to this, two teachers (Ellie and Audrey) have not sent their schemes of work and their interview discussions revealed that their engagement with teaching historical thinking was limited. During our interviews, they said that although they intended to teach historical thinking, in reality, they tended to teach more content and traditional history in their lessons for several reasons. For example, Audrey explained this situation as follows:

I guess like within what we do at my school right now, I think what they try to do with historical thinking is basically teaching the content. The schemes of work haven't been

planned out very well. So, if I'll be very honest, they're all for getting our kids to achieve a certain grade. (Int 2)

Audrey explains that although they try to teach disciplinary concepts to some extent, the main focus was on improving students' achievements in examinations. This seemed to create a tension between Audrey's personal aims and motivations for teaching history and her practice:

And so, it's [scheme of work] about learning the knowledge rather than teaching the actual process like dealing with the change and continuity. But for me, in an ideal world where you could deal with historical thinking... the aim of it would be that you could look at change and continuity in a history lesson, but then you should be able to apply it outside, in a context that has nothing to do with that particular subject. (Int 2)

Overall, analysis of the schemes of work indicates that the majority of history teachers had a clear disciplinary approach to the teaching of history. There was a visible focus on second-order concepts and processes such as enquiry questions, learning activities, and lesson targets within the collected schemes. Although their schemes might be limited in terms of diversity, it has been seen that some teachers tried to engage with topics from the wider world or local histories by using some online resources. And finally, what emerged as an interesting distinction between these teachers is that their personal motivations for teaching history and their way of conceptualising the curriculum could have a very strong influence on their decisions about their method of addressing historical thinking in lessons. This will be discussed further in the following chapters.

4.3. Summary

This chapter examined what history teachers understand by historical thinking. Their responses covered the different elements which they thought constituted historical thinking, which also links into their understanding of the nature and purpose of history teaching. It shows that teachers' understanding of historical thinking reflect both generic and history-specific

purposes. Cognitive and social-citizenship purposes such as the development of students' critical thinking and argumentative skills have been defined as generic purposes, while the understanding of historical methods and concepts is found to be the most prioritised history-specific purpose. Additionally, it explicitly looked at how second-order concepts are addressed and represented by teachers in both discussions and schemes of work and suggested that whereas some concepts such as causation and change and continuity are widely addressed and represented, some appeared to be controversial. The next chapter will focus on different knowledge bases informing teachers' ways of teaching historical thinking.

5. WHAT TYPES OF KNOWLEDGE INFORM TEACHERS' APPROACHES TO TEACHING HISTORICAL THINKING?

5.1. Introduction

In the previous section, participating history teachers' understandings of historical thinking were defined and found to be closely related to teaching second-order concepts and methods of doing history. Additionally, similarities and differences were found in history teachers' motivations, purposes, and approaches with regard to teaching historical thinking. One of the factors influencing these differences and similarities could be the knowledge bases used during the teaching of historical thinking. Therefore, in this section, the different types of knowledge base and the ways in which they shape teachers' classroom practice will be presented. This section has been based on analyses and discussions of the teachers' mind maps.

In accordance with the related discussions in the literature, almost all history teachers expressed the importance of having different sources of information about what they taught and how they taught it. With reference to teaching historical thinking, they referred to several knowledge bases which they had seen as essential for enabling their students to achieve better results. However, while shaping and examining this research question, what I expected to find as a researcher was the place and extent of historical thinking in teachers' practice. For this reason, I have tried to compile the types of knowledge that could be most clearly deduced from their classroom practices. The most indispensable types of teacher knowledge are undoubtedly subject and pedagogical knowledge. There are, however, many other types of knowledge that teachers need. Therefore, I decided to examine their pedagogic content knowledge (PCK), which has already been defined in the literature review.

I should note here that making distinctions between types of knowledge was not an easy process because, as I mentioned in Chapter 2.3.2.4., they always overlap. As Turner-Bisset (1993) observed, all knowledge has to be introduced in pedagogical ways during the teaching

process. To overcome this challenge, I grouped statements such as 'what I teach', 'which content I teach', and 'which concepts I teach' as subject knowledge. Then, for pedagogic knowledge, I identified more generic approaches to teaching, such as knowledge of teaching strategies, resources, student needs and classroom management skills. 'What kinds of activities I perform and how I adapt these activities to the classroom environment' are examples of what I identified as pedagogical knowledge in the text. Identifying statements about pedagogical content knowledge was the most challenging process as it involved every type of knowledge in itself. Therefore, as I will discuss in detail in the following sections, I tried to find and group the answers to 'How I teach historical thinking specifically'. This process required me to involve all aspects of teacher knowledge such as 'What I teach', 'How I teach', and 'Whom I teach', because PCK involves specific decision-making about how students learn and how you can best teach a particular subject. But again, all types of teacher knowledge are interconnected and therefore many overlaps may be seen in this chapter.

5.2. Subject Matter Knowledge

Extensive knowledge of historical content was considered by participating history teachers as an essential component for teaching historical thinking. Each teacher reflected that, as a teacher, they had a professional responsibility to have the knowledge about what they were supposed to be teaching. However, looking beyond their professional responsibilities, teachers also suggested that improving their subject knowledge would also increase their ability to provide better history teaching by using historical thinking techniques. In this regard, Jack started by establishing how having good subject knowledge helped him by developing his own historical thinking abilities:

So, I'd say my historical thinking is developed by developing my own subject knowledge... I listened to a lot of A level politics [discussions]. So, in terms of history books, I had [read] a lot of different ones. I listen, I go to... I do still go to museums. I

actively try to develop that [subject knowledge] which I don't think a lot of people do.
(Int 1)

Jack's argument was interesting because it showed how he drew on a range of different resources to extend his subject knowledge. In the narrative-based interview, it is understood where his preference for content knowledge comes from. The second interview showed that his educational background often prioritised the subject knowledge. Jack stated that he studied at a university that offered very good content knowledge and that the various courses he completed during this process were very beneficial for his historical development.

When I went to university, there were lots of new periods of history that really captured my understanding that really inspired me in my first year. I did a lot about Enlightenment, and I know that the whole changing of ideas and how that evolved and changed over time really impacted me an awful lot... I liked that course because there were quite a variety of different periods and topics. So, as I sort of studied history more, I tried to pick eras of history that I had not studied before mainly, but then they overlapped with others and then I could get good breadths of history. (Int 2)

Additionally, Jack suggested the importance of ongoing development for professional knowledge and also criticized other history teachers in this regard. In fact, Jack is one of the teachers who held an administrative position in this study. Therefore, he could have more opportunities to see other history teachers' knowledge and behaviour in terms of their professional development. In our interviews, Jack often pointed out that he regularly worked to improve his own and his colleagues' subject knowledge by the extensive reading of history books and articles. They then used this knowledge by feeding it into their lesson planning and schemes of work. In addition, Jack expressed his contentment with the current policy trends which gave more credit to knowledge than skills.

One of the things I love at the moment is the new focus on the curriculum. The thing that I think has not happened enough was the subject knowledge and there is a big focus now… So, I tried to do some training time when our school has given some time to us… I have set some reading, printed off some historical articles just a few things to read and discuss. And that's led to really good positive discussions about our curriculum and how we might change it. One of the trends over the last 10 or 12 years was teaching nothing but skill-based history, and now it is changed, and I think that's really a good thing… (Int 2)

This was an interesting perception because although the former models of progression were based on 'skills', that did not mean the content was unimportant. There has been an ongoing debate for some time about whether breadth or depth of subject-content knowledge should be given priority in history teaching. On this subject, Jack suggested the need for breadth of subject knowledge for providing a good overview of how events or issues are connected. According to him, this was how he improved his abilities for thinking historically, and it would also help to improve his students' historical thinking abilities. In addition to this, it seems that Jack's professional position in his current school helped him to understand the importance of the breadth of subject knowledge. Since Jack is the head of the department at his school, he is the person who supervises new teachers and interviews them during the recruitment process. For this reason, drawing on his experiences and observations, he argues that teachers' insufficient subject knowledge leads to their relatively insufficient historical thinking teaching.

And I really noticed a difference when I interviewed history teachers for history jobs, or I've been a PGCE mentor. There's a massive difference in the university and the quality of their subject knowledge. If they've been to a prestigious university such as [university name], their subject knowledge is broadened and they're good. They've got

good historical thinking. If it's not one of the high-end universities, maybe they've got some good specialist knowledge in particular areas. But their subject knowledge isn't as good, and you have to do a lot more work to develop their thinking. (Int 2)

This was an interesting argument, as Jack directly referred to the influence of the quality of initial teacher training on teachers' professional expertise and development. He also emphasised the possibility that, although teachers had expertise in certain areas, their historical thinking might remain limited unless they had a broader level of subject knowledge. In this way, Jack laid stress once more on history teachers' need for have breadth of knowledge for providing a better overview of the past, since depth of knowledge in particular areas may not be enough to develop a good level of historical thinking. Furthermore, Jack argues that continuing professional development for subject knowledge would be very beneficial for history teachers. He suggested that preparing and introducing new subject topics and doing extra reading would increase teachers' level of confidence and, thus, they would be able to deliver more successful lessons. Jack's main argument regarding how his subject knowledge helped him to grow his abilities to teach historical thinking was related to linking topics to each other and understanding the social, economic, and political influences behind them and then comparing those elements in order to reach conclusions. Thus, his perception of the benefits of using his knowledge to understand what was going on at the time and what kinds of influences prevailed, and then putting them together to create a bigger picture, was the main reason behind his motivation to support content knowledge.

Like Jack, Henry argued for the importance of having a good level of subject knowledge and continuously broadening this knowledge, in order to help students to conceptualise and think through the different time and place settings, by providing diverse topics. In that sense, it could be said that Henry also acknowledged the importance of breadth of knowledge for

historical thinking, and he suggested reading the work of historians and learning about different topics from the world history as part of this broadening process:

In terms of developing historical understanding, because it also, I guess, includes kind of your understanding of history and the range of what you know like your [content] knowledge in that sense. I am kind of regularly reading various historians. And so recently I've been trying to read a little bit about Genghis Khan and get an understanding of what was happening in the Mongolia empire and then thinking about how I can teach that in the classroom? (Int 1)

In addition to global contexts, Henry also advocated bringing local contexts into the classroom and in this way, he stated that he would be able to improve students' historical thinking by engaging them with the places or items which they saw in their daily lives:

So, what does it like to develop in historical thinking… I think one of the things that I really like to speak about is kind of a range of contexts. So, if I'm looking at, say, someone developing between the age of 11 and age of 13 in historical thinking, I don't just want them to look at Britain, for example, or I don't just want to look at one event…I want them to know what was going on in [place] as well, and then global as well as national and regional things. And so that would be one way of doing that. So, it is kind of developing historical thinking within the range of contexts. (Int 1)

This implied that, for Henry, teaching diverse and broad content knowledge was essential for teaching historical thinking. Both his scheme of work and mind map supports this statement. His scheme of work was found to be rich in activities and resources to make students familiar with a diverse range of contexts. Additionally, his strong focus on diversity in contexts was also evident in his mind map (see Appendix 4). It is important to note here that Jack and Henry thought that, as well as subject knowledge, other knowledge bases were also useful and necessary for teaching historical thinking. As will be shown in the next sections, their ideas

about the importance of having a good level of pedagogic and pedagogical content knowledge had a strong effect on their approaches to historical thinking.

Ellie and Sarah were the other history teachers who argued that having extensive subject knowledge was important for teaching historical thinking effectively. Ellie, in particular, viewed content knowledge as a precursor to teaching historical thinking to students, stating:

Because when you don't know something [enough] and you're teaching from the textbook, I think it's a bit robotic. And you can't split the information like little titbits, or you may not cover all factors and then you could be less confident in your teaching. And I think that is [subject knowledge] really does the show. So, for me, next year, it is going to be a learning year and hopefully the year after I will show some more events and lessons and will be more fun and more confidence. (Int 1)

Ellie also discussed the importance of having appropriate syntactic knowledge, which means knowledge of the key concepts in history, such as change and causation, in addition to content knowledge. She argued that teachers might have different conceptualizations of historical thinking concepts, and this might lead to differences in their teaching.

Yeah, it's the understanding of first and second-order concepts that come from teaching. The idea of actually how to teach something like causational significance, it's really important. And every single teacher I know takes interpretation differently. And I just take the interpretation that I was taught during my training. Basically, we were taught that it's somebody's view of the time and it's the creation of what they view at that time. But the interpretation, says AQA, is that person could have looked at the time and wrote about it later on. And that's their view. (Int 1)

This suggested that initial teacher training was one of the most influential factors shaping teachers' attitudes and approaches to their topics; Jack also presented strong arguments for this case above. The narrative-based interviews further supported this statement, as all

teachers argued that their own training and trainers might be one of the most influential factors in their development in understanding and teaching historical thinking. Therefore, this and similar influences will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. But data analyses show that there are significant differences between Jack, Henry and Ellie's teaching with regard to effective historical thinking. As I will show later, Jack and Henry provided detailed and comprehensive examples of historical thinking activities that they preferred to use in their lessons. They also showed that they were up to date with new discussions, theories and trends in their subject field and regularly tried to apply them in their classrooms. However, these statements are not applicable to Ellie, as she stated her lessons were more likely to focus on teaching the content knowledge, due to the GCSE requirements and time issues.

In addition to this, it can be said that Ellie's views about the importance of historical content knowledge also informed the way she taught history to her students. Ellie did not provide a scheme of work in this research; therefore, I could interpret her practices only from evidence provided by the interview discussions. She simply described one of the standard historical thinking teaching activities that she applied in her classes, as follows:

We give them something that they can genuinely argue with, and it must be something they know enough about both of them. And that's the only way you can assess that actual thinking skills and ability to argue with the question because you need to know the knowledge behind it. So, we give them [knowledge], and we prepare them for the assessment... So, you must make sure that you have taught them enough content and you give them the tools and they can pull out as many things as possible. (Int 1)

This implies that Ellie tried to develop students' judgment and argumentation skills by increasing and fostering their content knowledge. Similarly, Sarah also stated that teaching an adequate level of subject knowledge would develop the students' historical thinking abilities. In our first interview, Sarah stated that a sufficient depth of historical knowledge would help

students to develop contextual knowledge. For this reason, Sarah tended to focus on developing the subject matter knowledge of herself and her students:

I think knowledge helps more with that, because if it's too abstract, if they've not got enough depth, they can't picture themselves in it or really start to delve into the idea that these were real people. (Int 1)

Additionally, Sarah also seems to have been affected by the change in curriculum and GCSE structure, and these changes also seem to have led her to develop her content knowledge to be able to meet the new GCSE criteria. She stated that in her early years of teaching, the general educational tendency was towards more skill-based teaching, but especially with the latest changes in the curriculum and GCSE, it has become more important to cover knowledge in a detailed way. Therefore, she needed to change her teaching style and to broaden her content knowledge:

I just think when I first started [teaching], it was like the skills were held up as being more important than knowledge. It was almost like you picked a skill that you wanted to do, and then you picked some history [content] that could go with that skill. But now it's like you get your knowledge, you have more stuff that you have to cover and so much more in-depth… So, we've had to change so much, obviously, where we picked up new units. We've obviously had to learn new history in order to teach it. (Int 1)

Sarah's teaching activities seem to be mostly shaped by the GCSE structure and criteria. Her in-class activities, the topics on which she focuses heavily, and the concepts she chooses to focus on are generally the areas likely to be asked about in GCSE exams, as seen when discussing her scheme of work. So, her approaches to teaching historical thinking are strongly affected by the GCSE and her main activities in the lessons are shaped in accordance with the types of questions likely to appear in the examinations. In addition to this, it was revealed in our interviews that the conferences and in-service training which Sarah attended provided

examination focussed generic training (see Chapter 6.3.4.). These conferences, such as Pixl, are intended to develop teachers' knowledge and skills for preparing students to achieve the best possible GCSE results.

Yet some teachers, such as Steve, John, and Penny, saw subject knowledge as the first step to good historical thinking rather than the main step. They argued that, especially in the first year of teaching, their primary concern was delivering content, but over time their focus shifted to providing and supporting higher-level thinking. This approach may not be unusual for novice history teachers, who tend to teach the subject content as a means of addressing the insecurities that they may feel at the beginning of their careers. After reaching a secure level of knowledge and becoming expert, they begin the more complex teaching required for historical thinking. For example, Steve mentioned the importance of having an advanced level of content knowledge "as main bricks" of teaching history, but added that to be able to build the whole building you needed to systematically add more knowledge.

> *I think when you first start teaching history, you are primarily concerned about teaching the content, you are primarily concerned about do I know the content well enough to communicate it to the students and can I get students to know the content? Because ultimately, the definition of teaching is giving knowledge to someone else. So, I think at the start of most people's career, historical thinking means get students to know history, and that is part of it. And I think that is still an aspect of complex historical thinking, because as I said in our first session, you need the content as building blocks before you can access the more difficult stuff. But I think what I increasingly realized throughout my career is that historical thinking is about what you do with the content that's presented to you.* (Int 2)

This may imply that Steve and the other two teachers thought that good knowledge of the topics was a necessary but not sufficient condition for securing effective learning of

historical thinking (Haydn *et al.*, 2015). As I will discuss below, pedagogic and pedagogical content knowledge, as well as other types of knowledge, are essential for high-level teaching of historical thinking.

5.3. Pedagogical Knowledge

In this study, most history teachers stated that their main motivation for teaching historical thinking concerned teaching students how to use knowledge in order to construct their own arguments rather than just transmitting the content. And, in this process, the teachers stated that they needed various pedagogical knowledge alongside the content knowledge. Thus, some teachers provided clear arguments and examples of how pedagogical knowledge could help them to teach historical thinking in more engaging ways.

Steve, Henry, John, Naomi and Josie stated that good pedagogical knowledge was essential for better teaching of historical thinking. They said that having a good grasp of subject knowledge was important, but not enough in itself. They argued that the actual teaching process and working with young people required different, but equally essential, abilities. They stated that teachers needed to understand how they could adapt the subject for the targeted age range, and how they could guide students when they had difficulties and develop teaching activities according to their needs. Especially with regard to developing the specific abilities students required for historical thinking, these teachers argued that thorough knowledge about the relevant pedagogy, such as different activities, methods, and techniques, was vital in order to achieve the intended aims.

I think learning to teach, use of pedagogy is really important, because ultimately standing in front of the kids as just important as well as reacting to what they're learning and recognizing where they need to develop... I think the job of any history teacher is to read as widely as possible academically in terms of knowing your subject, but also the

pedagogical reading as well, making sure you are keeping up to date with changes in the curriculum with teaching practices, etc… Steve (Int 1)

As I mentioned previously, Steve and Henry stated that historical thinking was mainly about what you did with the content presented to you. Therefore, they believed some cognitive abilities which were essential for historical thinking, such as analysis, argument, synthesis, and making judgments, required specific lesson plans and activities aimed to improve the students' skill in these areas. At this point, they suggested that teachers should continuously broaden their pedagogical knowledge and also needed to be able to apply different methods and activities in their classrooms. Both history teachers stated that variations in the activities were essential. Steve, for example, argued this case as follows:

So, if you're trying to develop an argument, for example, to be able to let students make a judgement, you might use a debate. If you're trying to teach analysis, you might use a decision-making game. So your lessons and activities help you to unlock the skills that you're trying to develop along the way. I think in many ways, pedagogical variation is key. I don't really subscribe to the idea of teaching in one way. I think a successful department in any subject provides a varied and rich learning diet for students. (Int 1)

John argued that there were different ways and methods of teaching historical thinking and teachers should be able to use them effectively. Therefore, John discussed the necessity of intensive pedagogical knowledge for this process:

As a teacher, I think you are a great facilitator of pedagogy. Because I think historical thinking, it's not something actually that you can widely consider as a student. And I think sometimes as a teacher, you throw it out without actually discussing it with the students. And so, the role of the teacher is to guide students, challenge, and consolidate, I suppose. I'm always trying to make my lessons interesting and keep up with all the latest pedagogical developments. (Int 1)

Naomi, on the other hand, focused on another dimension, which was having sufficient pedagogical knowledge help. She is a teacher who previously held a leadership position as head of the History in a faculty. She stated that, therefore, she had been working on developing subject knowledge and theory for many years. But recently, she stepped back from her position and turned back to history classrooms. At this point, she realised that subject knowledge alone might not be enough to develop young people's mastery of thinking historically. She needed more pedagogic knowledge in order to help her students in this process:

We spent a lot of time looking through articles, picking things from the Teaching History, and just speaking with [other teachers] about what they think about how we can teach children to [think] like historians, which is a strange and difficult process. And then you can see something lovely in theory but how do we actually do it in the classroom? And I think at that point, things actually move a little bit away from the rigour thinking of what we teach for historical thinking and move more into perhaps the pedagogy of how you would lead the 11-year-old to question a source. (Int 1)

Naomi's contribution to the discussion shows that teachers should know about ideas, theories, and content regarding their subject. But the actual teaching process requires a certain level of pedagogical knowledge to enable them to use all their knowledge of theory and ideas in the classroom. Naomi sounds like she faces challenges to combine her subject knowledge with pedagogical strategies. At this point, her discussion suggests a potential limitation of her pedagogical content knowledge, since she finds challenging the adopting and tailoring processes (Shulman, 1987). At this stage, some teachers may give up on applying these ideas and theories and resort to more standard and secure teaching techniques - for example, focussing only on transferring content and preparing students for exams - while other teachers prefer to push the boundaries and take risks. For instance, Audrey can be seen as an example

of teachers who gave up challenging themselves and moved to teach content by using secure and easy techniques:

> *It's very easy when you're learning how to teach history in a university setting to talk about all these grand things that you will do. But on a day-to-day level, that isn't something that I think you can always put into practice. Please don't get me wrong but if I'm really honest with you, it's more about content, honestly.* (Int 2)

Both Naomi and Audrey accepted that applying their existing knowledge about theories, methods, techniques and activities in the classroom could be difficult tasks. However, Naomi thought that improving her pedagogical knowledge and expertise might help her, whereas Audrey sounded as if she had simply given up. Therefore, in addition to the importance of pedagogical knowledge, differences between individual teachers have emerged as a distinctive factor affecting the teaching of historical thinking. Therefore, self-efficacy and agency are other factors that need to be considered since the teachers' perceptions of their own ability and knowledge can have an impact on shaping their attitudes and practices in the classroom. As the following sections will show, while Naomi tried to find ways to overcome the challenges she faced, the analysis of Audrey's interviews shows that she gave up seeking ways to solve the problems she encountered in the classroom.

Thus, as this section outlined, teachers need pedagogical expertise to be able to utilise and adapt their subject knowledge of historical thinking according to the classroom conditions and students' needs. Therefore, four teachers' interview discussions suggested that they needed the knowledge of various pedagogical resources and methods while they aimed to increase students' engagement and literacy skills, as they found that deficiencies in these areas were among the biggest challenges preventing students from improving their historical thinking abilities.

5.3.1. Knowledge of Resources

Steve, Henry, Naomi and John stated that their first steps towards teaching historical thinking were to find ways of attracting students' attention, and thus increasing their engagement. For this reason, the teachers suggested the use of different resources in order to increase student interest, motivation, and enjoyment, which would also improve their abilities. Steve suggested that using non-academic methods in order to improve students' engagement could help to improve their abilities. He explained these non-academic methods and their benefits as follows:

> *One of the really important things to do is encourage students to engage with history in a non-academic way as well, whether that's visiting museums, whether it's watching documentaries and other massive podcasts. I think in order in order for students to become historical thinkers, they need exposure to historical thinking. You know, listening to 'In Our Time' podcasts and going to the British Museum trips, all of these things help develop historical thinking. It goes back to the idea of modelling. If you want students to become historical thinkers, they have to know what historical thinking looks like.* (Int 1)

Finding the best resources and activities figured prominently in teachers' pedagogical concerns. Thanks to the development and spread of technology in the classrooms, the use of music, movies, websites, and podcasts to enrich classroom activities started to get more attention (Woelders, 2007). These online resources could help teachers to develop course materials, produce different and more interesting content, and increase student participation by providing a wide range of activities and resources. Steve, John, and Henry suggested that application of their knowledge about these kinds of sources and technology to the classroom would increase students' engagement. For example, Steve explained this as follows:

I think about how I am going to get them to access particular points. And normally you have to come up with some form of… maybe a shocking image, a historian's statement, a picture, or a videoclip… some of them can be challenging, but it should be something they can do no matter what their ability level is. And these kinds of things can really latch them into the lesson to really get them in sort of position. (Int 1)

In line with Steve's remarks, John also stated that using activities which he could derive from online resources, such as role-play, helped him to intensify his students' engagement. John also argued that using these kinds of games and activities might help students to grasp the significance of major concepts, events, and issues by imagining they were actually experiencing them. In this regard, he said he used a role-play game while teaching the feudal system in England:

So, for the feudal system, we do a role play. I think is from the Thinking History website, the kids also understood the laws of the land in the classroom. I give them a biscuit and put it on the table. And then I asked them to select someone in the classroom to become William. And that person then takes all the biscuits from the students to give them a sense of how lands have been taken away. And the same person selected a couple of knights gave some biscuits to them... (Int 1)

Using relatively new methods and selecting unusual materials such as biscuits could be helpful for engaging students and supporting the learning process. Using online history teaching websites seemed to help John to improve his pedagogical activities. Similarly, Henry also mentioned that using online resources such as blogs, archives, and wikis started to be an important aspect of his classroom activities. He stated that, rather than only relying on textbooks that might not be content and activity diverse, he preferred to apply constantly new methods to improve his pedagogy. He also added that he was aware of the challenges in this process, such as limited time and resources, but he tried to expand teaching opportunities outside the

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classroom by using homework opportunities and university learning sources to overcome these challenges:

The other thing we've used recently is student voice. So, talking to students about what they enjoy about history and which bits they find they would like to see more of or what... And they're kind of want to know more about. We've started using homework to help with that as well. So, kind of expand things outside the classroom, either through giving an open-ended homework where they can go and find out something and come to tell us, or by using and learning meanwhile elsewhere, they might see around, but they say, oh, we're studying World War One. But elsewhere in the world, this was going on and using kind of examples like that. (Int 1)

In addition to the use of games, technology, online and non-academic resources, establishing relevance to life in the present day has been considered as an important factor for increasing student engagement by the participating history teachers. The literature suggests that students learn best when they are interested in the subject being taught and feel that it should have relevance to their lives (Haydn *et al.*, 2015). In this study, Steve, Henry, and Naomi supported this argument. They suggested that an increased level of engagement and sense of relevance can help students to develop their understanding of history, and eventually improve their abilities. Naomi, for example, stated that she often tried to make clear links with students' everyday lives by exploring historical and contemporary issues together. She argued that this method might enable students to start to see history as relevant and meaningful in the context of their own lives:

So, we said that there had to be a relevant link. We were looking at the European Union and issues that were going on [today]. Actually, we were kind of trying to link forward as well as backwards to say that the key concepts that you were looking at today are similar when we were looking at World War I. We're trying to bring it into some of those

modern practices so that they can see that thinking historically doesn't just mean thinking about the past critically but also linking subjects and making connections with today. (Int 1)

Thus, this section has suggested that teachers believe that stimulating students' readiness to learn is important preparation for teaching something. Therefore, four teachers, Steve, Henry, John, and Naomi, argued that it was important to find the best ways, methods, and activities to increase students' attention, interest, and engagement, and thus prepare them to start learning about historical thinking. For this purpose, these teachers suggested diversifying their pedagogical approaches by the use of games, online websites, and various illustrations. Additionally, they also highlighted the fact that making history relevant is another way to foster students' engagement with history and improve their ability to think historically.

5.3.2. Knowledge of Methods

Another area where teachers (Naomi, Steve, Jack, and Penny) needed improved pedagogical knowledge covered finding the most suitable methods according to the student's needs and abilities. In this study, improving students' literacy skills has been widely discussed in this regard. For example, Steve stated that most of his current students came from a variety of ethnic backgrounds where English was not the main language: therefore, he found it very difficult to develop students' historical thinking abilities because their language skills were insufficient to express their ideas. Therefore, he gave a broad account of the methods that he used to develop students' literacy skills. For example, he described some of his recent activities as follows:

So, it could be something as simple as bingo or a literacy quiz or an anagram quiz or whatever it might be, all of these things and help students get into the habit of literacy for giving them some kind of race against the clock to unscramble or correct words that are commonly misspelled. And if you want to the verbal literacy, it might be something

like playing Just a Minute, which is that radiophone game where students have to talk

for a minute, without saying umm or without pausing about the topic of their choice.

*(*Int 1)

However, Steve did not mention history-specific applications when he talked about such activities. On the other hand, the contributions of Naomi, Jack and Penny hinted at more history-specific aims and activities. Naomi, for example, stated that developing students' literacy and improving their historical vocabulary were essential in order to understand historiography and historical discussions. Without this understanding, Naomi argued, students would not be able think historically. For this reason, she said that she applied several language activities in her lessons as follows:

A lot of the things that we do kind of attach to it and say we do have a lot of discussions.

We ask students to be experts and we give them language cards and language starters,

then we ask them to discuss things. We try to introduce them with historical language

to be like the historians and to discuss things. And we try to get them to investigate and

to examine. (Int 1)

Additionally, Naomi stated that she founds it beneficial to use and discuss problematic and controversial words, such as 'Negro', while engaging in the source work activities. In this way, she suggested that it would help students to understand why these words were controversial or improper by exploring the roots of the word and linking it back to the change and continuity activities:

We try and use tricky and challenging ones. And so, we keep original language and we

do include things that could be problematic. There has been a lot of debate recently

about things like the use of the word 'Negro'. We actually include it because we think

that it is important, and we do want to expose students to the language of the time and

then we can analyse why it is used and how to change it. (Int 1)

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Jack made similar suggestions for improving student historical vocabulary in order to let them understand key terminology and key concepts by using engaging activities. He created a classroom game inspired by a famous television show called *Call my Bluff*. So, when Jack wanted to teach the word 'Purgatory' he used this game where he provided three definitions: two incorrect, one correct. Then they had a classroom discussion and voted in order to find the correct definition:

> *We were doing Catholicism in the medieval times, and I had the word Purgatory and I had two wrong definitions and one correct one. We debated it, then reveal what the correct one is and then I use that [game] as a vehicle to explain what Purgatory is… which is a really crucial word for understanding the rest of the topic.* (Int 1)

In this way, Jack performed an activity that would attract students' attention to the concept he wanted to teach and make them learn this word and understand it better. At the same time, Jack argued that students' retention of the information they learned through such activities would last longer. Similarly, Penny suggested that improved literacy skills and vocabulary could help students to think in a more sophisticated way, because improved literacy skills can broaden students' thinking and help them to express their ideas more clearly. In addition, Penny seemed to have enough knowledge of the field to give references from well-known and influential academics while explaining her pedagogical reasoning for her aims and selected activities:

> *I can't remember where she wrote about it, but I definitely read something by Christine Counsell about providing students with the language to explain the concept that they're trying to explain because the students don't have that kind of vocabulary to explain the historical thinking. By giving them the vocabulary unlocks their understanding. So, we give them words like underlying and fundamental, and we've tried to kind of build this*

language into the lessons and that they've got that language to explain the concepts and the thinking that we're trying to get them to do. (Int 1)

Penny also outlined how she established links between the language and historical thinking by explaining different activities that she used in her classrooms. For example, Penny explained how the story of Alphonso might help students to understand causation. Penny considered these kinds of activities very useful for students as they helped them to understand long-term and short-term causes. And she blended this activity with language activities requiring students to write sentences using a sophisticated vocabulary:

So, they've got a list of sentences about the death of a camel, and we asked them to pick out which ones make sense and then we give them an equivalent set of sentences for the causes of the First World War and ask them which ones may work with the content that we are looking at? And this helps them to see the vocabulary. So, we asked them to write a paragraph and if they use "he" too much or "bad" or you know the certain language that's quite limiting in terms of their explanations of causation. We've given them 1 mark for quite basic causal language, 2 marks for quite good and 3 marks for only the sophisticated use of the language. (Int 1)

Additionally, Penny was inspired by Christine Counsell when creating her pedagogical activities, especially those connected with change and continuity and language:

Something we've done in year seven that has led them to think that that is what historical thinking is. We've used lots of language activities. We've tried to use things like I don't know where I saw this but might be Christine Counsell again and [it is about] using images of like a volcano, [and we ask] what kind of change is this? Or a river, meandering river, what kind of change is this? So, I suppose that's similar to using Alphonso's story that is trying to open up their understanding of the language we use for historical thinking by using it in other contexts and then applying it to history. I think

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we are doing a bit of that at key stage 3, and we were feeding them in more to key stage

4 and key stage 5 through you know through improving schemes for work. (Int 1)

The teachers' observations, in this section, showed the importance of having adequate knowledge about guiding theories and principles, key concepts, key questions, and key words in order to provide various activities conducive to the teaching of historical thinking. In the next section, teachers' pedagogical content knowledge will be discussed in relation to historical thinking.

5.4. Pedagogical Content Knowledge

The analyses of the data suggested that teachers needed to apply various knowledge bases to the development of their practice while preparing for the activities below:

- Use of Enquiry Questions

- Select and Adopt Resources

- Use historical sources and evidence

The data revealed that the use of enquiry questions, evidence, historical sources, and resources was important in teaching historical thinking, but these processes were also challenging because they required teachers to have particular skills and knowledge, such as knowledge about resources, students, content, and pedagogy. For example, the analyses showed that some teachers found it very important but also challenging to shape their enquiry questions due to the process that Shulman (1987) categorised as the 'representation' process. In this process, some teachers found it more difficult to find alternative and engaging ways to shape their questions without making it very simple or highly academic. Similarly, selecting and adopting resources and using the most appropriate historical sources and evidence were also found highly critical to engage historical thinking, but very challenging to apply in the classroom due to the issues in adaptation and tailoring processes (Shulman 1987). Therefore, in this section, these activities will be discussed in relation to the PCK which might be needed

in this process. I would like to point out that pedagogical content knowledge involves each kind of teacher knowledge and, therefore, it is not entirely possible to make certain distinctions. Thus, in this chapter, I am going to be making links and references back to relevant contributions of participating teachers in earlier chapters. Table 9 shows the participating teachers referring to the three elements of PCK to teach historical thinking in their practice.

Activities	Subject Knowledge	Pedagogical Knowledge	Curriculum Knowledge	Knowledge of Students
Use of Enquiry Questions	John, Penny, Henry, Steve, Jack	John, Henry, Steve, Jack	Penny, Jack	John, Henry, Steve, Jack
Select and Adopt Resources	Jack, Naomi	John, Jack, Naomi, Steve	Naomi, Steve	John, Jack, Naomi, Steve
Use Historical Sources and Evidence	Naomi, Josie, Henry, Penny	Penny	Naomi, Henry,	Josie, Penny

Table 9. PCK of teachers

5.4.1. Use of Enquiry Questions

In this research, almost every history teacher pointed out the importance of enquiry questions for teaching historical thinking. For example, John discussed his own framework for the enquiry questions that he tried to use in his classroom. He suggested that an enquiry question should be engaging, relevant, and suitable for the levels of all students in the classroom. Additionally, he argued that it would be more valuable to ask comparative and evaluative forms of question while trying to develop students' historical thinking:

Enquiry questions are really important because you could have an enquiry question that could be very academic and if it doesn't hook students, I think you lose some straight away. So, I think that hook as an enquiry question is super important, it needs to make a topic relevant. So, it needs to hook a student, but also maybe our question [should be] something that makes sense to them. And it's relevant either to the current world or just relevant to something that they're studying. I think an enquiry question also needs to be something where you can go into those higher-level areas of thinking. So, it's not a black

and white question. A yes or no question is actually not a question in which you can allow historical thinking to happen. (Int 1)

In addition to John, during our interview discussions, three teachers (Penny, Henry, and Jack) provided examples of how helpful asking good historical questions could be in developing students' historical thinking abilities. For example, Penny initiated her investigation of the Industrial Revolution with her students by using the enquiry question, "Was the industrial revolution disastrous and terrible or the dawn of liberty?" In this activity, Penny used two opposing ideas from Arnold Toynbee and Emma Griffin. Penny devoted six lessons to this topic, and in the process, by considering various aspects such as developments in education, child workers, cholera, Thomas Cook and holidays, she guided students to interpret events and conduct source analysis based on them. At the end of these lessons, all students expounded their own arguments and formed their own judgments related to these opposing points:

We look at, you know, greater education for children as the Industrial Revolution goes on. We look at the creation of Thomas Cook and the creation of holidays. But we also look at conditions in the mills we look at cholera and those kinds of things. And all the way through, we're saying, well, does this support Arnold Toynbee or does this support Emma Griffin? You need to get students to see that you can support either side depending on what evidence you're focussing on. And obviously, Emma Griffin looked at personal diaries because Emma Griffin was trying to focus on society, whereas Arnold Toynbee's evidence has come from the kind of other areas. So, you've got two very different interpretations. (Int 1)

While creating this activity Penny mentioned that she needed to do extensive reading around these sources to refresh her knowledge; then she revisited the existing theory and activities suggested by academics and created her plans according to her students' needs. Her strength in terms of PCK was derived from her knowledge of the field and its academic

background. Almost all her activity examples showed some references to academics and educators and suggested new theoretical approaches. Therefore, she was one of the teachers in this research project who appeared strong in terms of PCK. Henry was another teacher who could access support from several knowledge bases. His strength in PCK was related to his strong and varied subject knowledge and his individual research and field knowledge, since he was still a new teacher. He made an interesting contribution to the discussion about using historical questions while studying one of the common topics in the history curriculum. Henry stated that diversity was very important in order to improve historical thinking abilities, but his perspective on diversity also included studying and analysing local history as well as global history. Therefore, he created a scheme of teaching Slavery by exploring local history and raising interesting historical questions that might increase students' attention and engagement. One of the examples that he mentioned was as follows:

> *In this area, there used to be some slave owners. So, we will talk about, for example, find out where they lived and then find out where they owned the plantation. And then, by using the information in archives, we can work out how much compensation they were paid. And then we can question that look, there was kind of a slave owner in the area, what if slaves were paid nothing in compensation and as local area, do we have responsibility for slavery? So, it is like kind of thinking about what's the legacy and impact of slavery on our area. If these people [slave owners and local people] have kind of gained from this, for example, they [slave owners] gave money to churches in the area. Does that mean that the churches in our area have a responsibility to give it back or to help the communities that were damaged? And so that's one question that we kind of looking at.* (Int 1)

His pedagogical reasoning for asking these questions was related to preventing the topic from seeming distant and irrelevant to students. Preparing this kind of activity requires a teacher

to have extensive knowledge of the topic and a good grasp of pedagogy, in order to tailor his knowledge to fit the students' level (Shulman, 1987). Moreover, this is not an activity that a teacher can find readily in textbooks or online websites. Therefore, it requires extra in-depth research, and this means that knowledge and understanding of the research topic and resources are also required for teaching this activity. So, this may imply that Henry not only used his subject knowledge to create such activity but also adopted and tailored (Shulman, 1987) his resources by considering the age and ability requirements for his students for a specific class and subject topic. Similarly, Steve discussed an activity focussed on dealing with different narratives and perspectives. Steve said that the school he worked in is populated by ethnically diverse students, and therefore, he wanted to examine the British Empire by looking at different perspectives and historical discourses. So, he used the question "Did Britain conquer India?'" By asking this question he introduced the process of creating historical narratives while exploring controversial topics:

> *Did Britain conquer India' which is quite nice because it's simple, but also it explores the idea that traditional idea of a person going in and just taking over India and conquering it? Actually, it was a very slow assimilation in India. It was actually a bigger and more powerful country than Britain in many ways, which is interesting.* (Int 1)

In this way, he would be able to avoid approaching the topic from a purely Anglo-centric point of view and incorporate wider perspectives into his teaching. Thus, he would open more space for historical debates and critical thinking by sharing and interpreting different and opposing views, which would allow more in-depth and critical historical thinking in his classroom. Lastly, Jack also argued that enquiry questions should be designed in a way that could 'hook' students' attention as an entry point. Thus, in this way, he would be more able to get his students to access the targeted points. In his activities, he asked whether America was

'the land of the free' by exploring several topics such as the Enlightenment, the Second Amendment, and Gun Laws:

So, for example in a recent lesson just before the end of the American Revolution, I asked was America the land of the free. We talked about the Enlightenment. So, somebody talked about Enlightenment thinkers, then we examined those different ideas about what freedom and liberty was. And then usually they are very keen to ask about guns and the Second Amendment. So, we studied get through that and then we link it back to why it [revolution] was a matter of time. And then we looked at various case studies of different groups and whether they actually benefited from it. And eventually, we looked more and more and then matched samples. And I asked again, was it the land of the free? And then they said clearly wasn't because you had to be white and rich to benefit. But then I said hang on we are in the 18th century by our standards no but by then how was it... And then we spoke to drew comparisons with say what happening in England and in other countries and then they realise okay yes it was, at the time, more freedom you could have had. (Int 1)

Henry's PCK was mostly reinforced by his extensive subject knowledge and this activity was also supported by breadth of content knowledge. Additionally, in this process, he also tried to improve students' time-oriented thinking by introducing anachronistic and synchronic thinking features where he needed to respond to students' perceptions of bias, language, culture, or misconceptions. Moreover, he also connected and compared it to the present day in order to put everything into a context that students could relate to their world. Each example above was beneficial, helping to show how history teachers could form and use historical questions in order to develop students historical thinking. In these examples, teachers successfully introduced the process of creating historical knowledge by handling historical

interpretation, evidence, and source works. By making regular past-present connections, teachers aimed to increase students' engagement in their lessons.

5.4.2. Select and Adapt Historical Resources

Four history teachers (John, Steve, Jack, and Naomi) argued that they would need several knowledge bases, such as pedagogical knowledge, knowledge about resources, and knowledge about pupils' needs, for successfully bringing and using different resources in classrooms. It is commonly acknowledged that using different resources and performing several activities in lessons will enable students both to understand the history and develop their historical thinking skills (Haydn *et al*., 2015). In line with this argument, these teachers' suggestions, such as finding and choosing the analogies, illustrations, examples, texts, and demonstrations most compatible with the content and aims, were found to be important. For example, John noted the significance of teachers' pedagogical diversity to the provision of a high level of thinking in the classroom. He accordingly argued that it was essential to consider and apply the adaptation and tailoring process while preparing lessons on historical thinking:

> *And I think and, you know, you need to really think very carefully beforehand and how I will behave, because if I behave too dominantly, then actually I take away from that learning process if I just tell them OK this is what I think, this is what you should know, that actually there's no historical thinking going on at all. So, source work and pedagogy and then, you know, [they] go hand in hand... A teacher needs to really think carefully when they do source work to make sure that you get the most out of the sources by guiding students through that learning process. (Int 1)*

John stated that using different resources would help him to guide students through the process of historical thinking. For example, he mentioned that using photographs from the 19th and 20th century during lessons on slavery allowed him to challenge and guide students. Additionally, he liked to use contrasting sources in the classroom because he suggested that

these kinds of activities would allow students to compare narratives and ideas, which optimised the historical thinking about them. He suggested that, in this way, while improving students' evidential thinking and interpretation skills, he would enable them to understand how the past was constructed by letting them construct their own ideas in the light of the pictures and sources they examined. Similarly, Jack made some statements showing how different knowledge bases might help teachers while teaching historical thinking. He stated that using different and 'hooking' images and resources in the classroom would be a useful starting point. He gave an example from the activity that he used in the classroom recently:

> *I was teaching the war in the Pacific the Second World War and my start was... I had a picture of a Samurai. I used the spirit of the Samurai and beyond that, I showed them a Seppuku to give them something to characterise what drives some of the Japanese honour, why they're trying to act like that... And so, I kept and linking it back to that spirit of the samurai when the rise of Japan and takeover in East Asia and China. So, I used that as a vehicle to fuel the rest of the lesson [while studying] the rise and fall of Japan in that sense.* (Int 1)

Jack also mentioned that finding and choosing these kinds of resources might be challenging and it required careful consideration because these resources should be suitable for every type of student level:

> *Your hook should be something that you can slightly use to explore the rest of the topic and come back to the thread altogether. So, and it can be a challenging thing because you need to make your hook is interesting which means you should even get lower ability students to take into it and then you start once you've got them there then you start gathering your information from the lower and then you are going build-up towards for entering your question for the lesson.* (Int 1)

What Jack said can be another example of using professional knowledge for adaptation and tailoring processes according to students' specific needs and abilities (Webb, 2002). Similar to Jack, Naomi stated that she liked to use challenging sources because in this way, as she pointed out, she would enable students to find more opportunities to think harder and discuss matters in more depth in the classroom. However, unlike Jack, she sounded more hesitant since she found it challenging to find different sources and represent and adapt them according to students' needs and the chosen topic. For her, this was where she needed to think more about pedagogy:

> It's quite difficult to find some sources because we try to use tricky and challenging ones. And I think that's why we try and say, OK, we're going to do a series of lessons on source analysis. We know we are going to make source analyses and then we need to try to think which topic that would best fit with the sources. (Int 1)

This example can also highlight the importance of having a good level of knowledge of resources and knowledge about adaptation to students' characteristics and needs. Naomi said that she needed to expand her knowledge and undertake some reading on pedagogy which might suggest new approaches and methods. She stated that seeing more articles helped her to link content with the targeted thinking skills. Then she found and applied new activities, like the 'Life Road Map' which helped students to see important events, turning points, and decisions that changed and reshaped a specific period of time. Additionally, she said that having departmental discussions on finding new and suitable methods for analysis interpretation helped her to develop her techniques.

> So, I teach civil rights at A level as part of a coursework option, but the coursework is more about contextualising. And so, then I tried to find out more ways about how we can put things in a hundred-year context and looking at things like the roadmap where we can look at change and continuity was quite useful and quite helpful. And then we

discuss it as a department about what and how can we look at different things, different ways of analysing sources in order to then bring that back to the student level. (Int 1)

What Naomi shared above may also suggest the importance of teachers' individual research skills and the guidance that they may need for preparing better lessons on historical thinking. The internal and external aspects that affect teachers' decision-making will be discussed in detail in the following chapter.

Steve was the last teacher to discuss the importance of having a good grasp of pedagogy in order to adapt and form useful resources appropriate to the specific aims of the lessons. Unlike the others, he said that in this process, teachers should give themselves some time and should not hesitate to ask for help. He thought that with more experience and familiarity with sources, this process would be easier.

You find out what works, and you know, the longer you teach, the more you realise what worked for certain topics, what doesn't work, and you adapt to the class as well. You know, every teacher had a class where the balance is not quite right for doing things in a certain way. So it's very adaptable. (Int 2)

5.4.3. Use Historical Sources and Evidence

The final area where teachers mentioned the need for various knowledge bases for shaping their practice was teaching evidential thinking and source work. Three teachers (Naomi, Josie, and Penny) made broad claims for the use of evidence and sources in the classroom. As I mentioned in Section 5.3., Naomi stated that she frequently used contrasting sources in the classroom. She suggested that the use of various sources would help students to get a better understanding of how historical interpretations were formed because these kinds of sources and activities allowed students to form their own interpretations and arguments. At the same time, she also included the observation that, by using these sources, students would be able to understand that a historical source was a person's point of view and not a statement of

fact. While conducting these activities, Naomi wanted to show students that authors might deliberately or unintentionally select their evidence and shape their arguments:

You do have to talk about why sources offer differing opinions and have different messages. So actually, one of the things that we do most often possibly looks at contrasting sources and why they are contrasting. So, it can be a little bit difficult finding comparison sources, but it is something that we try to do. And I think if we didn't, we'd be providing quite a robust and selective narrative because a lot of these are going to be preserved because they listen to the status quo or because they're written by white men... So, one thing that we also did is speak to the students and say that we have selected these sources and they are not the only sources available out there. They don't share the complete picture. They are a selection. (Int 1)

Naomi's purposes in teaching source analysis were more closely related to some citizenship concerns. She stated that, by exploring different and opposing ideas, she wanted to teach students to think critically, to let them gain some skills such as questioning, analysing, and debating. Thus, they would be able to apply these skills to conditions in the wider world. So, her beliefs and attitudes could affect her practice in the classroom. Josie also discussed the necessity of using contrasting sources in the classroom, stating that her students tended to treat sources as fixed and certain evidence of the past without thinking and questioning them. She argued that historical thinking was about dialogue, discourse, and interpretations. Therefore, she found it important to help students recognise that these sources were created by people and, for this reason, might have been designed with specific purposes, in order to claim or legitimise something. So, Josie suggested that students should be guided in the process of analysis, by discussions about the various features and purposes of sources:

Source of evidence, we want them to become familiar with historical thinking. But sources are basically not trusted straight away. I think students seem to think they

[sources] are from the past therefore it is fine. But we want them to engage with problems, to think about what makes them reliable or not reliable. So [to be able to do that] we look at content and original purpose and language and looking a comprehensive, objective, accurate, that kind of things. (Int 1)

Josie stated that the key fact she tried to show students was that all kinds of sources had purposes and students should question these purposes while analysing these sources. Although her perspective on the purpose of history was derived from working with sources, evidence, and historical interpretations, the type of activities she suggested might not be good examples of such activities:

For plantations, we do the interpretation. And so, you give two interpretations. One, that life was easy because they get to live with their families and the sun shines... like using the simplistic views a bit. Then we use other interpretations like saying the life is backbreaking. Then, they start to think about how those two interpretations have been formed. So first one could be a slave master and the second one could be the interpretations of the slaves and then we look at events, we look at abolition. And then, they need to write an essay on the side which they agree with most. (Int 1)

This activity suggested a blend of source work and interpretation work created according to the new GCSE structures. However, these types of activity attracted some criticism because they might not develop real interpretive understanding. In this context, the adequacy of the suggested activities for interpretation in her scheme of work was also doubtful. The activities were insufficient to address students' misconceptions and provide the guidance necessary for interpreting the contemporary and time-specific accounts (See Appendix 6). Josie's teaching practices were found to be mostly influenced and shaped by GCSE questions and structures. So, this was another example of how the impact of examinations affected her practice of teaching historical thinking.

Finally, Penny reported that bringing a wide range of sources into the classroom was an important factor in her development of students' historical thinking skills. She mentioned that it was important to use various and opposing sources in order to provide students with balanced views. She stated that students might refuse to analyse and discuss some sources because they thought those sources were biased or partisan:

"We do see lots of students who kind of write off sources and say, well, this is biased. And then, they say that they don't like the source because it's biased. So, we're trying to get them to see what we can learn from the source, even if the source is biased. But we try really hard to get them to ask what can we learn? What does this tell us? How is the source useful? So, I'm trying to use sources in sets rather than using one source on its own. So, I'm trying to see how you can get a better picture of the possible sets of sources because they all tell us something and we're trying to put something together." (Int 1)

The examples of Josie and Penny might suggest very different approaches to the same objectives, due to their PCK. Penny's PCK was supported by knowledge about academic discussions and resources. Both teachers aimed to address students' misconceptions and bias against the kind of source, piece of information, or newspaper texts. Therefore, each teacher advocated dealing with students' preconceptions and argued that using and discussing such partisan or propagandist sources could in fact be helpful. Penny, for instance, explained the benefits of analysing biased sources as follows:

We got one example that, you know, what, it was about usefulness about Nazi propaganda. And it was a speech by Goebbels. And my students said, well, that this is not useful because it has written by Goebbels, and he was a member of the Nazi Party. But he is exactly who we want to hear when we'd like to hear about the Nazis [to be able to understand their point of view]. And we are trying to get them to see that kind of

aspect. Yet might not be a reliable source, but it is useful for asking particular questions.

(Int 1)

Penny argued that, in such situations, conducting more activities on the use of evidence could enable students to improve their understanding of the nature of source analysis and evidence. She therefore suggested that, by practising evidence-based activities, students would get more opportunities to think about "how sources are constructed and how the historian has selected evidence, how they've deliberately excluded evidence that they've used in sources and in their interpretation". In fact, some teachers might avoid these kinds of activity because, at the end of the process, students might adopt some simplistic ideas: for example, historians deliberately lie, or it is impossible to know historical facts.

Penny's motivations in choosing source work activities seemed to be more history specific. Her main purpose was to teach students what paths historians followed while forming an opinion and creating an interpretation. To sum up, each teacher discussed similar processes and frameworks for doing activities based on source analyses and use of evidence. In the process, they addressed various forms of teaching knowledge, such as knowledge of content, pedagogy, pupils, resources, and activities. However, their individual beliefs and motivations differed. For example, Josie preferred to practise more GCSE based examples as she wanted to prepare her students for the exam. Naomi wanted to challenge and discuss the narratives created by powerful white men in order to protect the *status quo*. Hence, it could be said that the decisions which teachers make are affected by various factors, internal or external, and, therefore, I am going to discuss them in the next chapter.

5.5. Summary

This chapter presented the findings in relation to the knowledge bases that teacher used in teaching historical thinking, derived from the analyses of semi-structured interview questions, mind maps and schemes of work. The chapter clarified different knowledge bases

and their relationships with historical thinking and revealed that some teachers, Jack, Penny, Henry, Steve, John, and Naomi, built their understanding of historical thinking into their practice more strongly than the other did. It is understood that Jack, Henry, Penny, John, Naomi, and Steve drew on particular types of teacher knowledge in their teaching whereas Josie, Sarah, Ellie, and Audrey mainly restricted their focus to content teaching and examination demands. The chapter also illustrated that Penny, Jack, and Henry heavily benefitted from pedagogical content knowledge, such as adopting and tailoring different resources and activities, which was critical in informing their teaching of historical thinking. In this sense, the chapter showed how teachers differed from each other in their practice for teaching historical thinking and outlined different approaches towards teaching this subject. The possible reasons for this differentiation will be explained further in the following chapter.

6. WHAT INFLUENCES THE DECISIONS TEACHERS MAKE IN TERMS OF TEACHING HISTORICAL THINKING?

6.1. Introduction

In the previous chapters, the ideas of ten participating history teachers regarding how they define historical thinking and how they attempt to teach it in their classrooms are examined and presented in detail. These chapters showed that, if teachers were to teach historical thinking effectively, they first needed a good grasp of historical thinking and then different types of teacher knowledge about how to teach it. However, the data also showed that although all the teachers participating in this research had similar perceptions of teaching historical thinking, their levels of engagement with historical thinking in their classrooms differed. This difference among history teachers appears to be related to the influence of personal and contextual factors. Therefore, in order to address RQ 3, the factors which may influence teachers' decisions while planning their historical thinking teaching will be presented. This chapter has been largely based on analyses of the second interview transcripts, which recorded their responses to the question, "How has your understanding of historical thinking developed over your career?"

Teachers need to make several decisions while teaching historical thinking, such as what to teach, how to teach, and the extent to which they would deal with historical thinking in their classrooms. Analysis of the collected data showed that teachers' sense of agency and self-efficacy, alongside their professional beliefs, values, and attitudes, were influential in this process, as discussed in the literature review chapter (e.g., Chapter, 2.4.1; 2.4.3.). But the inductive approach to the data also revealed that teachers' contextual conditions such as teacher training, influential people (colleagues, mentors, trainers), school context (collaboration, accountability), and CoP, which are called external factors in this research, also affected the decisions teachers needed to make while preparing their curricula and establishing their practice. First, the individual factors affecting the teachers' decisions about dealing with

historical thinking in the classrooms will be considered, and then the chapter will continue by introducing and discussing the external factors affecting them during this decision-making process.

6.2. Internal Factors

As discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2.4.), internal factors such as teachers' personal beliefs, ideas, willingness to teach and professional enthusiasm are important in motivating teachers to go further and improve their teaching skills. During this research, the internal factors were found to have a profound effect on the extent to which the teachers dealt with historical thinking and their constant attempts to improve their teaching of historical thinking, which included enhancing their practice with new methods, diversifying their curriculum, and shaping future aspirations. After analysis of the data, three key internal factors emerged: teacher agency, self-efficacy, and teacher beliefs, values and attitudes. These factors and their relationship with the external factors (which will be discussed in later sections of this chapter) can help to account for differences between the participating teachers.

In order to understand teacher agency, the teachers' explanations and comments about the actions they took when the demands of their teaching made them felt insecure or inadequate, or just when they wanted to improve their knowledge and practice, were analysed and interpreted. Teachers with a higher level of agency were found to be more willing to challenge themselves and find solutions when they faced issues related to external factors, such as accountability, time pressure, and resource issues, while others gave up and adapted their practices to conform with more traditional approaches (e.g., transmission of knowledge), according to their current circumstances.

The level of teachers' self-efficacy has been associated with their comments on the extent of their happiness with their current practice and schemes of work. Some teachers were satisfied with their teaching, but they expressed their willingness to improve current schemes

of work and extend their teaching skills even further in order to enhance their teaching of historical thinking. Others, however, questioned their practice and schemes of work, but felt that they might not be able to improve them because of some external factors such as accountability, time, resource limitations, and students' lack of engagement and understanding issues. Teachers' motivation and beliefs regarding their ability to improve their schemes of work and continue to extend their teaching skills were found to be important factors while establishing their level of self-efficacy.

When it comes to teachers' beliefs, values and attitudes, teachers' discussions of what and how history should be taught, their ideas about ideal teaching and results, and as their feelings about the roles and responsibilities of teachers have been taken into consideration while exploring and interpreting the internal factors affecting their teaching. According to the analysis of the data, teachers' beliefs and values affected their attitude in the classroom. For example, some teachers felt a strong responsibility to provide information and prepare students for exams. The practices of these teachers were naturally knowledge-based, and they expressed exam-focussed teaching attitudes during our interviews. On the other hand, some teachers had additional aspirations, such as a desire to improve students' cognitive skills and prepare them to understand events in the wider world; their attitudes were shaped by these purposes.

In the following sub-sections, the teachers` agency, self-efficacy and beliefs, values and attitudes will be further discussed by providing quotations from the discussions in which they expressed their ideas about teaching historical thinking in their classrooms.

6.2.1. Teacher Agency

As I mentioned above, teachers were asked about how they took action and the extent of their willingness to take action when they needed to improve their teaching in general or just wanted to change and improve their teaching while teaching historical thinking. In order to determine teachers' level of agency, I tried to find out if they applied their ideas on historical

thinking to their teaching by analysing their schemes of work (when applicable) and their contributions to the interview discussions. If not, then I asked them if they had any future plans or aspirations to do so. Their answers helped me to analyse the levels of teachers' agency.

To begin with, Penny expressed great contentment with the current teaching practices and schemes of work in her department. She is one of the participating teachers who holds a position as head of department. She stated that, in her school, teachers had freer rein to design their schemes of work and teaching plans according to their own decisions, and she presented them in a very detailed way during our first interview. She also reported that within the department they had a very high level of engagement with teaching historical thinking and ongoing improvement in this subject:

> *I have a very strong team of history teachers and they are very engaged history teachers. At the moment, most of them are very switched on with reading and new stuff about history. They are engaged with reading articles from* Teaching History, *and you know, several of them are on Twitter and doing kind of their own ongoing CPD. And I think the department are very switched on in terms of developing their historical thinking and certainly willing to work with me to introduce new things and pushing and saying we should be changing this; we should be developing that and then they are quite patient with kind of let's rewrite the curriculum every two years and sort of thing.* (INT 2)

Penny's remarks suggest a very dynamic culture within the department: she accordingly found opportunities to create and apply innovative and forward-teaching methods. Similarly, Jack was also a head of department, but he could not find a dynamic department ready to apply his ideal teaching methods. Therefore, he needed to take responsibility for creating such an environment by improving the current situation in his existing department. He said that when he started to act as head of department in his current school, he had to deal with capability

proceedings within his department. However, rather than accepting failure, he stated that he attempted to improve the organisation of everything, including teachers.

So, I think often the position you're in affects it, so I was the main thinking behind it because as I said the department wasn't in a good position. And then I really had to take control and several staff had to leave for various reasons mostly incapability. (Int 2)

Jack stated that he attended a number of leadership courses in order to shape his management skills and reorganize his department. He added that he was now more satisfied with his new department and they could pay more attention to teaching historical thinking.

With the changes in curriculum a lot… me and my department had a lot of discussion and reading. And we're now trying to really focus our scheme of work on historical thinking… I wanted them to read more to help develop their subject knowledge so we're now doing more specific enquiries and we're sort of splitting them up between us now. (Int 2)

Both Penny and Jack described the current situation in their departments as amenable and collaborative, but both teachers needed to make changes to bring this about. This can suggest that these teachers' individual self-efficacy and professional beliefs helped them to create the agency necessary to drive changes forward. The other teachers were not department heads; therefore, unlike Penny and Jack, they were more likely to be affected and controlled by their current situations. Nevertheless Steve, Naomi, and John, for example, were found to be taking actions to improve their teaching of historical thinking. Henry, too, made interesting comments about how having a variety of resources could improve his teaching practices in the classroom:

I found looking different ways really helpful and challenging in terms of how I'm teaching and what I'm doing and how I could do it differently. I think it is more about the resources we've got now. I am regularly reading and just looking at various books

and historians. And, in this way, we are more able trying to think about diversity and inclusive themes within the schemes of work. And this is really necessary. (Int 2)

Steve explained that an ongoing change and development in his abilities to teach historical thinking had arisen from the fact that he was gaining more experience as a teacher:

At the start my career, it was very much focussed on getting the building blocks getting the content across, whereas now my thinking in terms of my approach to teaching, historical thinking is more explicitly lessons based on skills or explicit lessons based on concepts rather than purely content. (Int 2)

Furthermore, Steve and John stated that the progress and change in their teaching were due to becoming more familiar with diverse teaching resources. For example, they explained how these factors helped them while planning their teaching practices:

I am looking at the work of other departments around the country, using wider reading and using groups like the Historical Association. You know, it's unlike if you were designing a curriculum from scratch, you wouldn't get it right at first time you have to review and search for it. (Steve – Int 2)

Obviously when you do your PGCE, you get in touch with lots of different historical debates and especially in the pedagogical way. So, I suppose I've remained in touch with that side of development by reading Teaching History*, some part of the Historical Association. And so, I still read that magazine when it comes out. I'm in touch with the current debates around that. So, I am aware that there are very different interpretations and discussions for historical thinking.* (John – Int 2)

Henry, Steve, and John were found to be positioned in departmental conditions just like those experienced by Penny and Jack, and also being led by supportive and forward-thinking leaders and collaborating with professionally active colleagues. For example, John defines how he worked in his current department:

I'm very keen to read Teaching History magazine, and in the department, we've got a couple of members of the historical association as well. So, we always try to look and then implement new kinds of things that we pick up [in this magazine]. (Int 2)

Naomi, on the other hand, said that the main change in her practice was reinforced by her involvement in a university's teacher training mentorship program. The training and discussions that she experienced during this mentorship made her question her teaching as well:

I became a teacher trainee mentor. And at that point, actually, I was challenged to think about why am I doing these things that I'm doing, for what benefit these different activities have, and how am I teaching students history, not just English with a historical slant on it? And so, I think being a PGCE mentor made me question some of my practices a little bit more. (Int 2)

These examples may suggest a relationship between teachers' professional learning and their tendency to become agentic in making changes. In addition to benefiting from the main teacher training they have received, almost all of them seemed willing to do extra work, such as doing further reading and research outside of school time. It is also clear that keeping in touch with current educational ideas and research are very effective means of fostering their progress and improvement.

Sarah and Josie, on the other hand, have not made such positive comments about how they changed or improved their teaching. Although they had similar knowledge and understanding about teaching historical thinking (see section 4.2. and 4.2.4.), they differed from the teachers previously discussed in their current teaching of historical thinking and their practices in general. It should be remembered that there is a strong similarity between Sarah and Josie's external contexts, as they took the same teacher training course and were employed in the same school in the same year. In fact, the activities Sarah and Josie have undertaken in their classrooms and the schemes of work they have created show a keen focus on teaching

second-order concepts and various student-participation activities in their schemes of work (see section 4.2.4.). They stated that they took action and created new schemes of work targeting second-order concepts more explicitly because the existing ones were not adequate for teaching historical thinking:

> *When I joined in 2013, there weren't really any scheme to work at all. So, both Josie and I basically created almost all of them. And obviously, over the process of seven years, we've had to update and create new ones. So, I can say half of those scheme of works are mine. How would we develop? I mean, we review our curriculum every year. So, when year elevens leave, we get a little bit of extra time because we're not teaching them anymore. And we always use that time to look at our scheme of works and see what we can develop. I'm developing a unit now because we realised, we didn't have anything on human rights, and protests, and civil rights movements.* (Sarah – Int 2)

> *In our school, I think I personally felt responsibility with historical thinking and how we could teach it because the schemes of work that existed there weren't great. So, we basically tried to rewrite lots of them, put into practice the things that we learned from the PGCE... So, I thought about different activities which may help get the skills across the unit, how significance can be understood by students, and that kind of things… I think that definitely had an impact early on my career.* (Josie – Int 2)

Despite such comments, teachers also stated that, due to the pressures of accountability, they could not be sufficiently engaged in historical thinking because their concern about preparing their students for the exams was paramount. Sarah, for example, reported that she did not think any history teacher had the opportunity to do further reading or preparation to improve their teaching:

> *And obviously every time when we've created something new, we've tried to make it as good as possible. But in terms of like extra stuff, you know, like being able to read books*

about history teaching or being able to read new books on particular subjects, I don't think anyone really does a lot of that at the moment. (Int 2)

Accountability pressures seemed to have a more serious impact on these teachers than on the teachers mentioned before with respect to the way they taught historical thinking. Although the aforementioned schemes of work are very student-centric and rich in terms of classroom activities, the selected subject topics and ways of teaching second-order concepts were shaped by the demands of the GCSE exam specifications. In our interviews, both Sarah and Josie acknowledged and complained about this situation:

That's all been focussed on the new GCSE, and how are we going to teach all this content and concepts, and how are we going to get them to remember it. So, you quite often end up just focussing on knowledge and knowledge retention without really getting to explore the historical thinking in the same way as what we wanted to. (Sarah – Int 2)

Therefore, although these teachers had a sufficient level of understanding of historical thinking, they could not engage with historical thinking in the ways they desired. Because of general examination pressures, they seemed to prefer staying in a safer place instead of doing what they wished to do. These teachers might have decided to take the safe path by trying to restrict their practice to doing well in the exams. Additionally, these particular statements may allow me to suggest that the accountability culture can negatively influence teachers' decisions to 'take actions' to teach historical thinking in their classroom.

As for Ellie and Audrey, they have not shown any plan to take further actions to advance and improve their practice in order to develop their teaching of historical thinking. They stated that it was extremely challenging to address historical thinking in the classroom because of many external factors such as time pressures, the excessive amount of content to be taught and accountability issues. In addition, analysis of their interview data showed that the environment in the schools where they worked was not supportive and helpful with reference to teaching

historical thinking. They both stated that detailed consideration of historical thinking was not something they saw during their teaching careers. Therefore, Elli and Audrey simply stated that they were unable to teach historical thinking in the classroom, apart from teaching second-order concepts required by the exam structure. For example, Ellie commented that, although she wanted to provide historical thinking in her classes, it was practically impossible:

> *I'm realistic about historical thinking as much as every single history teacher wants rigorous learning and engaging enquire questions and higher order thinking in every lesson like it doesn't happen in reality. And I think that it does need to be looked like just impossible. Like teaching to deliver fantastic lessons all the time, it's really difficult.*
>
> (Int 2)

Similarly, Audrey commented that historical thinking is not being taught by history teachers on a regular basis, therefore she also accepted that she was teaching history without focussing on historical thinking.

> *And I think that when I first started out, especially when I was watching other teachers teach history, that wasn't really something I saw. So, like on a practical level, you don't really see historical thinking being taught. Like, if I'm honest, if you walked into the history classroom, that kind of isn't what's being taught. A lot more is focussed on content and less on historical thinking. And that's like the honest truth.* (Int 2)

Ellie and Audrey stated that they preferred not to take actions in order to improve their teaching practice for historical thinking because it was not something they saw in their working environments or wider community of practices. Therefore, they tended to accept that it was not possible in their current teaching circumstances. My analysis suggests that school conditions can generously support or seriously limit teachers' sense of agency.

6.2.2. Teacher Self-Efficacy

In our discussions, Penny, Jack, Henry, John, and Steve showed higher levels of efficacy in terms of their engagement with historical thinking in their classrooms. Both Penny and James, teachers with the longest teaching experience, extending for 10 years, showed a growing level of self-efficacy because of their eventual involvement in environments where they could develop their skills. They both laid stress on the fact that their ideas and knowledge had changed recently and now they felt more confident with their practice with reference to historical thinking. For example, Penny mentioned how her teaching had changed after being involved in mentorship programmes:

> *I think my ideas changed recently last couple years. My thinking in terms of how we really do deep historical thinking and get the students to do this deep historical thinking in a more meaningful way... I think the influences really come from [name] and from [name] at the University... Involving in a PGCE course as a mentor [helped] because I'm learning what I should be doing with the trainees by being involved as their mentor and that's a big influence and changed my thinking.* (Int 2)

Like Penny, Jack also observed that he had recently been able to improve his knowledge and teaching practice with reference to historical thinking.

> *I think the way of how the historical thinking was taught... I really began to realise this in the last year or two. I started to think about how you have a thread through your whole curriculum, and about how you navigate them through it. Then started reading Teaching History Magazine more... I gradually came onto Edu Twitter and found lots of other thinkers as well.* (Int 2)

The data showed that both Penny and Jack did not feel that they received much input during their teacher training on historical thinking. Penny stated that "in my training 10 years

ago, I vividly remember that we did some sessions... but we didn't do a huge amount of historical thinking". Similarly, Jack also stated:

So, I don't think I was recommended to read anything about historical thinking when I did my PGCE... like Christine Counsel's work at all., I hardly heard of her, or the Historical Association… (Int 2)

Therefore, it is clear that Penny and Jack's involvement in ITT mentoring programmes in the last few years positively affected their teaching of historical thinking. It seems that re-establishing relationships with a university, and engaging with new educational ideas and trainee teachers, have contributed positively to their feelings of confidence and competence. In addition to these teachers, Steve, John, Naomi, and Henry also showed a high level of efficacy in relation to their ideas about their current teaching and schemes of work, thanks to various different factors. For example, Steve's growing teaching experience seemed to boost his confidence because he stated that every year, he felt an improvement in his teaching abilities:

So, I think, my approach is trying to get students to grapple with historical thinking become more sophisticated and nuanced as time goes on and will continue to develop. There's still work to be done. There always is. But I think it's certainly become more nuanced as time came on, and particularly with a level now my approach to teaching is drastically different to when I first started teaching A level. (Int 2)

John derived satisfaction from his current teaching, which was closely to the knowledge that he acquired from his PGCE training. John explained that he created his lesson plans by incorporating this knowledge and shaped his practice on this basis:

The discussions you've got during your PGCE, obviously also designed around particular things to do with historical thinking. So, we got sessions on interpretations, we got discussions on causation. And so, throughout my first year, I incorporated that kind of stuff in my lessons. I planned a series in order to deliver a lesson where I would

focus on causation, for example, and focus on interpretation. And I've tried to as I've been gone through my fifth-year teaching since my PGCE, try to keep doing that basically and probably alongside scheme of work keep the focus of a lesson on a particular historical skill. So, I have been trying to really develop that. Now, obviously we are having the opportunity to look at scheme of work again. So, I am making sure that that focus has been good. (Int 2)

Naomi was found to be additionally supported by current opportunities in terms of resource such as further professional training, memberships, and conference funds in her current school. She stated that having such opportunities was helpful in increasing her ability to improve her teaching of historical thinking. Like John and Naomi, Henry appeared to be highly satisfied and informative in terms of his current teaching practice for historical thinking. His efficacy was mainly boosted by his initial teaching training: he argued that this training has helped him to grow as a teacher alongside his subject knowledge. Additionally, his efficacy had been further enhanced by his professional development activity, training, and networks:

I would say I knew about history and ways of studying history. But my training helped me to understand in a teaching sense what that looks like. I think my undergraduate degree, I guess, gives like a foundation for historical understanding, but I have kind of taken it much further during my teacher training. Then, I become part of the Historical Association. They are kind of a professional body that you pay to be part of it. And they focus on teaching history, I would say, rather than just historical understanding, it is definitely within a teaching context. So, they kind of provide resources online and have a magazine as well. And that I found really, really helpful and challenging in terms of how I'm teaching and what I'm doing and how I could do it differently. And I think I also attended a couple of different conferences as well. (Int 2)

Josie appeared to associate the efficacy of her practice with the schemes of work she created. She sounded very satisfied with those schemes, but she also admitted they could be too tightly focussed on content retention to be fully effective for teaching historical thinking:

So, we have 4 historians within the department, but one of them is senior leadership teams, he does not have to write any lessons because he's got other things to do. And I have got a wider role as well. So, I've written wonderful schemes of work myself about slavery on the Romans. And then we kind of divide up into key things as well. How I'd review is… So, I think we tend to adopt a lot more focus on knowledge in terms of recapping. So, I think it is more maybe a formative task around to try and check to understand the content. (Int 2)

Like other teachers above, Josie stated that her training was helpful in providing a good foundation for her practice. She created her curriculum and schemes according to what she learned during her training. However, unlike the previous teacher, she did not mention much about support, collaboration or further training in her current department. This can be one of the reasons why she tends to feel lower satisfaction and less self-efficacy in her teaching of historical thinking. As for Sarah, Ellie and Audrey, they showed lower levels of engagement with historical thinking when compared to the teachers above. Their discussions revealed that they tended to attribute their lack of teaching of historical thinking to external factors; therefore, they did not perceive any threat to their sense of efficacy. Sarah, for example, related the limitations in her teaching of historical thinking to the GCSE requirements: she reported that they did not leave enough space for teachers to deal with historical thinking:

So, the first I ever came across historical thinking was when I was training to teach. And I don't think it's really developed since then. Actually, it's reduced since my training. It's not something we get to do as much any more since the GCSE has changed. When they changed, there was just so much more content brought in. (Int 2)

For Ellie, the curriculum was to blame, because it consisted exclusively of white British narratives. She reported that this curriculum might prevent historical thinking for the following reason:

Our curriculum is very white British history ancestor and the victors. Like there's no room to question British superiority, and that's what leaving us behind historical thinking, because it's not creating accurate history in my mind, you can't ask them to make a judgment and consider the causes or consequences of something because we're not giving them the full picture. (Int 2)

Audrey tends to evaluate the quality of her teaching according to the profile of her students and their parents. She stated that having a lack of support from students' parents prevented her from dealing with historical thinking in lessons.

And historical thinking is important but aren't supported outside of the classroom. I mean, so it's like if I introduced that into a class, it's not like their parents would talk about it within the home. (Int 2)

This suggests that each history teacher has different levels of self-efficacy. This is affected by their ability to be engaged with current teaching trends, following recent changes in the field; staying active in several communities of practice could also increase teachers' self-efficacy with relation to teaching historical thinking, but content-heavy curriculums and accountability pressures might reduce it.

6.2.3. Beliefs, Values, Attitudes

It is important to make it clear that none of the teachers seemed to have beliefs, aims and values that could be associated with traditional history teaching, based on singular and exclusive points of view, focussed on jingoistic patriotism and militarism. They all stated that history teaching should be diverse, student-centric, and progressive, and have a disciplinary base, as discussed in Chapter 4. Some teachers, however, were found to be prioritising their

ideal teaching beliefs for historical thinking in their practice whereas others experienced challenges in shaping their practice according to their beliefs about the ideal ways in which to teach historical thinking. Table 10 shows the teacher' beliefs, values, and attitudes regarding teaching history and historical thinking.

	Beliefs	Values	Attitudes
Ellie and Audrey	Progressive, Diverse, Relevant	Prioritise content retention and exam achievements	Content-based
Josie and Sarah	Progressive, Diverse	Prioritise concepts and exam achievements	Exam-motivated
Steve, John, and Naomi	Progressive, Student-centred, Engaging, Diverse, Relevant	Prioritise pedagogically diverse teaching and historical thinking	Concept-based teaching Pedagogically diverse teaching for historical thinking
Penny, Jack, and Henry	Progressive, Diverse, Student-centred, Relevant	Prioritise disciplinary thinking, conceptual understanding	Diverse pedagogy and activities for historical thinking Focus on concepts, questioning and analysing

Table 10. Teachers' beliefs, values, and attitudes

Sarah, Josie, Naomi, Ellie, and Audrey were found to have more content and exam-based attitudes towards teaching history, despite advocating a 'progressive' view of history teaching. These teachers, as mentioned in the previous chapters, often seem to be restricted by the demands of the exam system. For example, Sarah stated that although she would have valued the opportunity to engage with more diverse history in her schemes, she would not be able to because of early preparations for GCSE:

> *Year 7 and Year 8 needs to build some foundation for the GCSE course. I don't mean the same topics. We don't do like a mini-GCSE in year seven and eight. But I mean just the absolute fundamentals that they need in order to be able to excel at GCSE like a sense of time and place within British history, because most of the GCSE is British history. They need to conceptually understand the Middle Ages, the modern period. So,*

it's hard to bring new things because anything you try to do and would take them away

from that. (Int 2)

It shows that Sarah tends to shape her practice to meet the expectations of the National Curriculum and examination boards. Similarly, Josie seems to have built her teaching according to prepare her students for examination requirements:

I think what I do recently a lot... Because of the GCSE is that changes. There's a lot more content to get, students struggle to read all that kind of thing. So, we are trying to develop their reading, give it highlights. So, you have the text on one side and questions on the other side they have to highlight their answers for questions. So specifically teach them to skim the key parts of the work in that respect... And also try to do lots of coding. So, get a piece of information, break it down and then draw a picture to help to summarize and that helps them to kind of retain the information as well. (Int 2)

It seems that these teachers, instead of prioritising their beliefs about ideal history teaching and historical thinking, simply try to meet exam-orientated expectations. In addition to the examination system, the pressure of time seems to lead the teachers to abandon their beliefs. For instance, Audrey's observations show this clearly:

If I had, like, unlimited time, I would really try and use historical thinking to be the bedrock of how we planned it. But then also, I would really love to have schemes of work that cross over from like looking at something that happened in the past, comparing it to modern day. (Int 2)

Similarly, Ellie stated that her practice was generally shaped by predetermined and resources such as textbooks, due to the need for practicality and a shortage of time:

What I do is depends on what level I am teaching for GCSE... We focus on the textbook because that's the sort of level that they'll be expecting from them for GCSE. And I am definitely set by things that are provided by the exam board, but I'm quite flexible with

them... I am mainly using booklets and textbooks because they are very practical... I use tests a lot as resources because we are not blessed with much time. (Int 1)

On the other hand, Penny, Jack, Henry, Steve, John, and Naomi appeared to be more capable of putting their beliefs into practice, as discussed in the previous section on self-efficacy. When they were asked to describe their ideas and ideals for teaching historical thinking in the first interviews, their mind maps (Chapter 5) and schemes of work (Section 4.2.4.) looked consistent with the ideal teaching requirements they outlined. Steve, for instance, indicated that his attitudes to teaching history changed totally after having enough years of experience, and he started to prioritise teaching historical thinking more often in his classes:

The content is not the focus of my lessons, the focus of my lessons is looking at the concepts, looking at the themes, looking at the causation, the consequences, the significance of all of the kind of second order concepts that you would associate with history, whereas again, when I first started teaching, it was more about getting them to understand the content and also making sure the content by teaching it as well. So, I think that's kind of how my approach has changed over time. (Int 2)

Other teachers also reported similar approaches when they talked about how they were actually teaching historical thinking. It is also understood that their teaching overlapped with their ideal teaching scenarios for historical thinking:

We focus on historical thinking with our students. I know it's more complex but obviously, we've got to translate this to our students from the age of 11. So, we focus on skills, types of thinking. So, we focus on causation, and we got… what we try to do is having schemes of work that focus on different particular concepts. (Penny – Int 1)

I've always used a range of activities. And I think, it is kind of stretches them in different ways. And the questioning is really important to me for developing historical thinking.

I tend to use more open-ended task like essays or presentations and the answer to a historical question. Because it is where they can give their thinking, basically. So having them actually answer something is important because then that's their own thinking about how they would engage with that. (Henry – Int 2)

This may show that the first five history teachers could be more open to the influence of external factors, such as accountability measures and concerns with time issues, which might reduce their engagement with historical thinking in comparison with to the other history teachers. At the same time, it can also show us that the last five history teachers could be more engaged with other external factors, such as CoP and CPD events, which might increase their motivation for teaching historical thinking. Therefore, it is helpful to appreciate the influence of these factors while trying to understand the data.

6.3. External Factors

In the previous section, I discussed the effect of internal factors on teachers' decision-making processes with relation to teaching historical thinking. The analysis of data revealed, in addition to internal factors, external factors may heavily impact teachers' decisions about teaching historical thinking. Therefore, I will explore the external factors emerging from the data: I grouped them into accountability culture, lack of time, community of practice, the internet, journals, and professional associations, as can be seen in Table 11.

External Factors			
Accountability Culture	Exams - GCSE	Ofsted Expectations	School Expectations
Lack of Time	Lesson Hours	Heavy Curriculum	Additional Responsibilities
Networks	Teacher Training Network - Associations	Colleague Network	CPD Network
The Internet	Social Media (Twitter)	Online Websites	Online Resources

Table 11. External factors affecting teacher engagement with historical thinking. Each factor will be discussed in detail in the appropriate sub-section in the remainder of this chapter.

6.3.1. Accountability Culture

The accountability culture seemed to be a significant issue affecting the teachers' engagement with historical thinking, according to this research. As I showed in the previous chapters, four of the participating teachers (Josie, Sarah, Ellie, and Audrey) often reported that current exam structures (GCSE) led them to teach more content-oriented and less diverse history: this, according to them, reduced their opportunities of dealing with historical thinking in their teaching as they wished. As noted previously, the data showed that when teachers felt pressure to prepare their students to do well in exams, they tended to abandon historical thinking. Yet it is also understood that, in addition to the pressure to obtain good exam results, there are other aspects to the accountability culture. I am going to discuss the examples of these aspects that I found in this research as follows.

It seems that, apart from the GCSE, concerns about league table expectations tend to create some issues that may prevent teachers from engaging in historical thinking. For example, Sarah considered the EBacc (English Baccalaureate) system as a source of severe challenges to anyone wishing to sustain high level and disciplinary based history teaching in schools. EBacc is a set of subjects (English, Maths, Science, Language, and Geography or History) which has been used to measure and judge schools, comparing them with each other. Although the initial

aim, when it was introduced in 2013 by DfE, was to provide qualifications to enable students to continue their higher studies, it now has a different agenda. Consequently, it has the potential to create stress for some teachers like Sarah. Sarah argues that it forces students to choose these courses, regardless of their ability or interest level, creating a situation that makes it impossible to teach historical thinking because a high proportion of students are reluctant and disengaged:

The government introduced the whole EBacc thing. They said 95 percent of students had to do the EBacc. So, they had to do English, history or geography and the language on top of it, and science. And they were going to put that on the performance league tables at every school. So, obviously if you do not have enough students studying the EBacc, you drop down on the league tables. But when they brought that in, schools in all the country had to respond by forcing students to pick history or geography and the language. So, we've ended up with students who firstly, don't want to do history, which is a major problem. And then secondly, they struggle with basic reading and writing massively. When I first started, I would teach kids who wanted to do history, they'd chosen it. And they tended to be very academic and could cope with it. But it is very different now because of those changes. (Int 2)

Furthermore, according to Sarah, this situation creates extra barriers for teachers wishing to teach historical thinking because, due to this system, they have spent all of their time teaching content and necessary GCSE techniques:

So now that with us in the history classroom and it's just like you can't, you have to just focus on trying to get them the content that they need to get a qualification. You can't kind of go on a tangent and delve into historiography and historical thinking because these kids can barely read, and you try to help them understand the concept of the Middle Ages. And even just trying to form the basics with them is really very difficult. So, I think that's been a massive problem as well. (Int 2)

The increase in the number of students subject to the EBacc measure in schools seemed to have led Sarah to think that she would not be able to teach historical thinking due to needing to teach students she feels are less capable of being successful, and therefore she has given up teaching historical thinking. Her argument also showed how the competition and pressure created by the arms-length governance imposed by various institutions affect history teachers' attempts to engage in teaching historical thinking. Additionally, restricting their teaching to compulsory curriculum subjects adapted to the structures and demands imposed by the examination boards seems to have led the teachers to adapt their practices to these requirements, even if they want to teach different subjects and activities. For example, Naomi talked about her reasons for hesitating to teach a subject in which she was interested:

> *We teach history about mediaeval and modern history. I think teaching ancient history would be really exciting. I think actually the students would get quite excited by that. But there aren't the accessible resources out there. And I think that people worry if you go outside of the National Curriculum, what OFSTED might say? Even in academies, although they were not bound by it [the National Curriculum], they are still a bit cautious about that.* (Int 2)

Similarly, Josie shared some of her reservations while creating her enquiry questions. She stated that she tried not to make the questions too open-ended because she thought that if she could not meet her own goals during the observations, she would incur the disapproval of the school administration.

> *They're [enquiry questions] not the most open ones, but we try to. But yeah, I think if you're only if you're literally looking at one person for one lesson, you can't really go too broad because you then end up shooting yourself in the foot because in an observation, if you don't achieve your own aim, so, if I ask something really broad and by the end of the lesson they couldn't answer it, I'd get slammed.* (Int 2)

6.3.2. Lack of Time

Four of the teachers (Ellie, Audrey, Sarah, Naomi) reported issues regarding limited class hours, limited preparation time, content heavy curriculums and the conflicting demands arising from them. For example, Ellie said that she would improve her abilities for teaching historical thinking, if she could have enough time and support:

> *I would say I'm happy to do it, but we just don't get given the time to do it. The expectation is that you just do it in your spare time. And preparing the wonderful lessons takes, you know, a lot of effort and a long time in a day. Like finding resources and, you know, really thinking for provoking questions and planning everything, it takes time. And you don't have time to spend too many hours on a perfect lesson.* (Int 2)

Ellie argued that finding the proper resources, adjusting them to the students' level, and linking them with the targeted subject and objectives demanded a certain amount of time, knowledge, and workload. So, as she stated, if the expectation was that all this work should be done in in teachers' spare time, it raised a question about the extent to which teachers should be working outside of school time. This affects the sustainability of professional development, because, if the system leaves the entire responsibility to the teachers' individual decisions, the results will differ according to their individual sense of motivations and devotion to the profession. For example, Ellie was one of the teachers who showed less engagement with teaching historical thinking in this research, and during the interview, she often stated that she was not challenging herself and her opportunities to carry out further professional learning in her practice, whereas some teachers (Henry, Penny, and Jack) who showed close engagement with teaching historical thinking were doing all the necessary extra work and spending extra time and money to make the reported improvements in their teaching (see Chapter 6.3.3.). This difference can be explained by differences in teachers' internal motivations (i.e., self-efficacy, beliefs, values, purposes), but it also seems to be related to their external circumstances. Ellie's

statement above suggests solitary activity without any sense of support, collaboration, or collegiality in her working environment: this was totally opposite to the way in which Penny, Henry, and Jack defined their working environments (see 6.2.1.). This may imply that there are close relationships between teacher agency and self-efficacy and their external circumstances.

Another issue that Audrey and Naomi discussed was related to the difficulty of meeting excessively high policy-driven curricular expectations despite the limited lesson hours. For example, Naomi reported that teachers and students did not have enough time to absorb the content and then reflect on it:

> *I mean, there is a bit of a drive to try and cover as much history as possible and especially with the National Curriculum having just so many bullet points on it, it is huge. And people just kind of think that they need to tick every single box of that. And so, there is definitely a lot of content when you get to GCSE to try and get through. But if we keep just pouring more and more stories down students' throats, they're not going to have the time to really grapple with it and deal with it.* (Int 2)

Naomi's statement above also pointed out an interesting perception about implementing the curriculum. The National Curriculum actually leaves teachers some space to make their own decisions while creating their own curriculum and schemes as teachers do not have to cover all its suggested content. The main pressure seemed to be coming from the GCSE topic range, as teachers felt the responsibility to cover every area and prepare the students in a way that enabled them to achieve the best results possible. Naomi's discussion may indicate, therefore, that teachers who feel obliged to meet the perceived expectations of the curriculum and examination boards tend to prioritise teaching the exam content by fitting it into exam-based structures without considering historical thinking in depth. In addition to this, the lack of a proper balance between the heavy content and the available lesson hours causes problems for history teachers.

Sarah, for example, says that this problem limited her approaches to teaching historical thinking:

> *Well, our curriculum time was cut. So, we don't have as much teaching time as we used to. We only have two lessons a week at GCSE and we're only going to have three lessons in a fortnight with Year 7 and 8 next year. So that's a problem, physically there is not enough time.* (Int 2)

This means that Sarah has to try to cover the same amount of content but in a shorter period of time. This caused her to prioritise a practice based on content teaching and content retention within the GCSE examination range rather than historical thinking (see Chapter 5.2). Thus, these teachers (Ellie, Audrey, Sarah, and Naomi) reported that although they valued historical thinking as one of the indispensable aims of school history, they may not have adequately addressed historical thinking in practice.

6.3.3. Lack of Professional Development

Some teachers, like Ellie and John, stated that lack of resources, limiting the school budget for subscribing to important journals or paying conference fees, could hinder teachers' professional development when they needed to improve their practice.

> *And, I think, it [historical thinking] gets lost a bit, the further you go. There should be some more CPD time as well to encourage that. And I do think all schools should subscribe to* Teaching History*, but a lot of them won't. And that's just a budget thing. So, I've never been in a history teacher conference or anything, actually because it's so expensive. So wanted to attend one of them recently and it was very expensive. I was just like I'm just going to run out of money.* (Ellie – Int 2)

> *Then obviously you need CPD, you need to attend sort of historical CPD events, if we've got the opportunity to go to, you know, I'd like to do that as well. Obviously, it is the*

issue in some schools finding enough funding to go to CPD events, but yeah. (John – Int 2)

The lack of resources might be restricting the teachers' opportunities to improve their practice in terms of the methods and activities they could apply in their classes, and also undermining their motivation to look for different ideas about teaching progressive history and historical thinking. As will be discussed later, John reported that he closely engaged in more accessible CPD activities in order to improve himself and his teaching. However, it appears that some teachers like Ellie did not have enough opportunities (either internally or externally) to be involved in CPD activities to a great extent. In addition, some teachers, such as Penny, Jack, Henry, reported that although they could not always find enough school funds to participate in these activities, they tried to cover their own expenses as much as possible because they found it extremely beneficial for their own development.

And I am regularly trying to attend things like the SCHP conference in Leeds… and the Historical Association at work meetings and training sessions and kind of going along to that sort of thing and a lot of which is out of my own pocket. (Penny – Int 2)

This recalls a topic mentioned in the previous section: teachers are expected to continue their professional development without sufficient support. If teachers are individually driven, they can constantly search for ways to improve themselves, but additional challenges such as costs, time limitations, or lack of school permission may impact their engagement. Additionally, this expectation can cause the loss of teachers who are not internally driven and need external support for their engagement. Therefore, this can be an important factor that needs careful investigation.

6.3.4. Teacher Networks

It has been understood that the communities in which teachers interact with professionals and practitioners, such as academics, tutors, other teachers, professional

development networks and conferences, have a remarkable impact on their teaching. It seems that teacher training, often called PGCE courses, make significant contributions to the teachers' understanding and teaching of historical thinking. Almost all teachers (Josie, Sophie, Henry, Steve, John, Ellie, and Audrey) stated that the teacher training they received helped them a lot while shaping and improving their practice for historical thinking. For example, John and Henry stated that their initial understanding of what historical thinking was and how it should be taught was shaped in this process:

> *Historical thinking is obviously a research topic. So, for me, when I started my PGCE I actually started to think about what historical thinking is. What was thinking historically was quite new for me in that respect. I've never really given it much thought before that. So, in that respect, it developed a lot during my PGCE.* (John – Int 2)

> *It's kind of began for me properly on my PGCE. So, my teacher training with [name] and [name]. So, before that I knew about history, and I knew about kind of ways of studying history and like topics or events and discourses in history. But they helped me to understand that in a teaching sense what that looks like, and so I think my undergraduate degree, like I guess it gives like a foundation for historical understanding, but it was... I have kind of taken much further during my teacher training.* (Henry – Int 2)

Similarly, Steve explained that how a quotation by one of the tutors had affected him and how it affected his teaching approaches as follows:

> *[name of the tutor] actually said a really good quote, which has stuck with me, which is you can have a teacher who's been teaching for 20 years. But if they taught the same lessons 20 times, they're not teaching with 20 years-experience. They're teaching with 20 sets of one year's experience. It's different. It's that constant reflection and reviewing*

improvement of what you're doing. So, I am constantly trying to improve and update my teaching. (Steve – Int 2)

So far, statements from the teachers showed that teacher training courses may have had a big impact on how they conceptualised their subject and shaped their teaching practices. Penny and Jack, however, had their teacher training before the others, and therefore stated that they could not get much help from these programmes in relation to teaching historical thinking. Since they received their training, a lot has changed within the academic literature and history teaching practices, and, of course, the nature of teacher training courses has been affected by these changes. However, both stated that they have participated in universities' PGCE courses as mentors in recent years, and this has contributed significantly to both in terms of their professional development and their ability to understand and teach historical thinking:

Now we've moved in last few years we've moved more to trying to think about how we really do deep historical thinking and get the students to do this deep historical thinking in more meaningful, more vigorous way. But I think the real influences come from [name] and from [name] at the University. Being involved in these university PGCE course by mentoring helped me a lot because I'm learning what I should be doing with the trainees by being involved as their mentor and that's the big influence and it has changed my practice greatly. (Penny – Int 2)

Naomi and Henry also stated that in addition to their teacher training, they participated in teacher training courses as mentors, and they stated that they found their involvement highly beneficial. In addition to teacher training programmes, the data has also revealed that the teachers' working environment, their relations within the department, the colleagues they work with, and the heads of department also affect their approaches to teaching historical thinking to a remarkable extent l. Nine of the teachers made very positive comments about the schools and department heads of department they worked with: they had improved their teaching in general

and practices for historical thinking in particular. For John and Steve, being able to teach historical thinking well in their schools was closely related to ensuring collaboration within the department and having specialist department heads.

The way we used to deal with historical thinking in our school is… You know, we just establish this as a department. As I said, we've just had a new head of department, which we've gone through all of this completely new, and we've looked at as a department. What is the enquiry question that we'd like to focus on here? I think school environment is important. (John – Int 2)

Equally, my head of department influenced me pretty much by asking challenging questions when we have department meetings and challenging questions about our curriculum. For example, after the recent changes in GCSE, we made decisions for our British depth curriculum. Study of Elizabeth I, even though that wasn't a topic any of us specialized in. And we ignored this topic first but then our new head of department wanted to include her because she is a female ruler and she thought it was really important in the context of our school to have that included and to make sure that part of the curriculum that we provide, offers the idea of a strong female role model and that was driven by my head of department. So, I think specifically here in terms of historical thinking I'm focussing on diversity. You know that that's an example of how my head of department has driven all historical thinking in our department in one direction. (Steve – Int 2)

Ellie, on the other hand, reported that as her school conditions and head of the department limited her teaching freedom and choices, she did not have enough opportunities to teach historical thinking:

But it is difficult because where you work shapes what kind of teacher you are. And so, for example, for the GCSE, my head of department plans everything, and I'm not allowed to stray from it. I have to teach what she plans, and I have to do what she says. So, it can be a real struggle, depending on where you are and how they are supporting you to do the very best. (Int 2)

In addition to university and teacher training networks, four of the history teachers (Jack, Penny, Steve, Henry) appeared to be very keen to attend several CPD conferences in order to improve their understanding and practices for new history teaching approaches. These teachers reported that these conferences were valuable for both improving general teacher competencies such as content and pedagogy knowledge and improving their abilities to engage in new concepts, ideas, and methods for teaching disciplinary and critical history teaching like historical thinking:

I am trying to go to the Historical Association conference. I went to the West London free school conference, and I think they're all really valuable things to help develop historical thinking. (Jack – Int 2)

I went to a conference as part of the fellowship and this one I've been on. And the most recent one was a Historical Association London network meeting but actually, it was three sessions delivered one on doing preparing for Ofsted without preparing for Ofsted and one was on using enquiry questions style teaching at A level and I can't remember the other one was on… and then things like the SHP conferences and I'm going along to that. I attended one in Leeds years ago. And I've attended other SHP conferences as well like three or four times. Obviously, I think that is the best professional development programme teachers can get… so that's been really useful. (Penny – Int 2)

I attended a couple of different conferences as well. So, any kind of meeting with groups of history teachers is really helpful. So, there's one I've been in recently in London, and this is run by a school in London. And also, there's a company called Pixel that our school kind of subscribes to. There are like a big group of schools. And I've kind of been in a couple of their conferences as well, again they are helpful thinking about how and we kind of progress as history teachers and history department. They are useful a lot because often they have a historian speaker as well. So, it's not just teacher-led. They also think about, how these areas of the past fit into developing subject knowledge as well as pedagogy and that's something important. (Henry – Int 2)

On the other hand, Sarah and Josie argued that they tended to find these conferences unhelpful for teaching historical thinking as they were mostly focussing on preparations for exams or pedagogy and content specialisms.

And most teacher training and subject specific training more focus on pedagogy and like the, you know, general classroom teaching and most like the national conferences I've been to in recent years, I like the Pixl conferences in London, which is sort of like training for subjects with different subject leaders or go to London for the day or Birmingham or wherever they are. That's all been focussed on the new GCSE. And how are we going to teach all this content and how are we going to get them to remember it. So, it doesn't really come up with historical thinking anymore. (Sarah – Int 2)

I went to the SHP conference to see, that was a long time ago, actually. I went to a conference in London to help to think about how to push higher for developing students, it was about year eleven. There were one or two conferences, but they have been too specific on content. So, they are doing the content more than doing about skills because we tend to do more of our CPD from Pixl and we go to Pixl conferences. So that's the

case in a group of schools that are part of Pixl. But I haven't been in another conference recently. (Josie – Int 2)

The arguments of Henry, Penny, and Jack showed that these teachers benefitted from both generic and subject-specific conferences, so they commented very positively about how attending these conferences and receiving training helped them to improve their practices. Sarah and Josie, however, sounded as if they were attending only the generic conferences designed to improve teachers' exam-oriented knowledge and teaching. Yet they also stated that they could not the level of benefit from these CPD activities that John, Penny, and Jack had described. This could be an important indicator of the importance of subject-specific conferences and training. Thus, it is understood that teachers' conference selections, conferences' physical accessibility, and budget limitations affecting teachers' ability to attend a variety of conferences may have decisive effects on their further benefit and improvement. In this case, having informal networks in addition to formal CPD activities could help teachers to overcome the issues and increase their motivation to pursue further learning and development. For example, Henry stated that he also benefited immensely from these informal networks in addition to attending formal activities:

I think and kind of my own network, so largely from my PGCE. But also, people I have meet kind of around Reading. And we would kind of talk about, oh, how are you teaching that? Or I might say, oh, have you kind of looked at some of the research on the black Tudors? Have you thought about how you can incorporate that and then might say, oh, I haven't heard of that? And then you can kind of share resources, that kind of networking with other teachers is helpful in terms of developing historical understanding. (Int 2)

Finally, Audrey and Ellie commented that they neither attended any conferences, nor had any formal networks from which they could benefit in terms of teaching historical thinking.

However, they said that they actively used Twitter to follow the current educational trends and to see examples of different teaching. However, their lack of engagement with the wider community and formal events could be associated either with their individual motivation and devotedness level or the lack of support and guidance that Ellie and Audrey received in their current working context. It is also understood that there is a circular relationship between teachers' internal mechanisms and external factors. Teachers, for instance, who are open to challenging themselves, and take risks by trying new teaching methods also appeared to be more engaged with professional development activities and communities as well. This may suggest that such professional communities contribute positively to teachers' beliefs, motivation, and self-efficacy levels. However, the opposite interpretation could also be possible: it could be that teachers with high levels of efficacy and agency find and attend such activities. Thus, this part of the exploration offers a blend of relationships between internal and external factors.

6.3.5. The Internet and social media

The Internet and social media emerged in this study as important and helpful elements that teachers refer to and benefit from when they want to prepare critical and diverse history lessons or when they want to try teaching different topics or applying new activities. Almost all teachers – except Audrey – reported that they were benefiting from online resources, websites, archives, databases, or Twitter to some extent (see, Table 12).

Teachers	Twitter	Podcasts	Websites-Blogs	Archives
Penny	√	√	√	√
Henry	√	√	√	√
Jack	√	√		√
John	√	√	√	
Naomi	√			
Steve	√	√	√	
Josie	√			
Sarah	√			
Ellie	√			

Table 12. Online resources for teachers' CPD

Penny, Henry, Steve, John, and Jack stated that they were listening to podcasts as often as possible in order to be aware of various discussions and new ideas in easier ways:

I look at things like that BBC history podcast because they do interviews with historians so that you kind of picking up on their discussions and the video clips or movies could be helpful for thinking further about historical thinking whatever you're teaching about. (Penny – Int 2)

In addition to podcasts, the online websites, blogs, and databases the teachers were using were found to affect the extent to which they could bring different approaches and perspectives to their teaching. Henry and Penny, for instance, gave several examples of how they were using university databases to prepare unusual activities while they were dealing with historical thinking in their classrooms (see Chapter 4.5). Additionally, Henry, Steve and John mentioned that websites and online blogs were also useful sources of different content opportunities and resources:

And so, I like to search for my resources, and I would use quite often use the websites like the National Archives for British history. And there are some really useful websites. I support them because they provide quite a lot of different topics and then kind sources on that. And things like documentaries as well. So, there are a couple of really good documentaries at the moment and having this resource diversity is really helpful for teaching historical thinking. (Henry – Int 2)

I dip in and out of online blogs as well. I use Twitter as much as I can to kind of keep abreast of some of the new stuff that's coming out in the historical sphere. And I am listening to In Our Time *podcasts. All these things help develop historical thinking. It goes back to the idea of modelling.* (Steve – Int 2)

In addition to all these online resources I mentioned above, it has been found that Twitter also makes a significant contribution to the professional development of teachers and their tendencies to improve the way they teach historical thinking. Again, except for Audrey, every teacher mentioned Twitter as an important CPD place and professional development method in this study. Josie, for example, indicated that Twitter was the biggest CPD resource for her and she often used the ideas that she found on Twitter:

I'd say Twitter is my biggest CPD resource because I often get a screenshot of a lot of things. I could also see what other history teachers do. I have a whole photo of my phone screenshots about what people said. So, when we teach a topic for GCSE, I get the screenshot of ideas for a vision and that kind of thing. That's often how I get all items. (Int 2)

However, Josie's discussions showed that her use of Twitter as a CPD resource was mainly directed towards diversifying her teaching for GCSE rather than shaping and improving her practice for historical thinking. There are many reasons why teachers use Twitter widely for CPD: the application is free and easy to access, the posts are diverse and multi-perspective due to widespread use by other teachers, and the ideas here are more applicable to the real classroom when compared to the ideas discussed in academic studies.

I really enjoy kind of actually going through Twitter, and I like pinning all these posts that I've just found fantastic to be discussing, diversifying the curriculum to make it more accurate as a representation of history. (Naomi – Int 2)

I follow Edu-twitter a lot so there's a number of key thinkers that I do follow and read some of their articles and that has shaped my thinking in some different ways. (Jack – Int 2)

These contributions to the discussion may suggest that the Internet and social media provide various opportunities for teachers to acquire resources that they can apply when they want to make innovations in their teaching, to provide a network where they can easily share their ideas and get help when necessary and find more opportunities to reach more people than they would get by attending physical events.

6.4. Summary

This chapter is derived from the analyses of narrative based interviews. In this chapter, the internal and external factors affecting teachers` decision-making processes have been discussed and analysed. It has revealed that internal factors, such as agency, self-efficacy, and beliefs, have been most responsible for the differences between individual teachers' decisions about teaching historical thinking. Additionally, the chapter showed that professional learning communities, such as teacher training networks and formal conferences, or informal networks, such as Edu-Twitter and history teaching associations, appear to have affected the extent to which the teachers were engaged in historical thinking, the examination requirements, lack of time, and lack of resources impacted more negatively on the level of their engagement. This may suggest that external factors have effects that feed or weaken the internal factors, depending on the various parameters. The next chapter will focus on the discussion of the findings from Chapters 4, 5 and 6 in relation to the relevant literature.

7. DISCUSSION

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents analyses of the findings in relation to relevant literature. This study focussed on history teachers' perceptions of teaching historical thinking and the data were obtained through two interview sessions with ten history teachers working in secondary schools in England. The findings were collected and analysed with the aim of answering the research questions below:

1. What do history teachers understand by historical thinking?

2. What types of knowledge inform teachers' approaches to teaching historical thinking?

3. What influences the decisions teachers make in terms of teaching historical thinking?

It has mainly been found that although all the teachers were either trained at the same teacher education providers or were part of the same university-school partnership, the analyses of the data and findings revealed some interesting differences between the teachers with respect to teaching historical thinking. Chapters 4 and 5 outlined variations in the teachers' level of engagement with historical thinking, while Chapter 6 showed the factors (such as personal motivations, beliefs, and professional knowledge) that played a considerable role in this variation.

This chapter is devoted to a discussion of the factors affecting history teachers' engagement with historical thinking, including the way that they conceptualise the subject. Additionally, even though there were common factors inhibiting or promoting their engagement with historical thinking, the teachers differed from each other in terms of their response to these factors and their way of dealing with them. It makes good conceptual and theoretical sense to understand that there are different 'types' of history teachers (Watt *et al.*, 2014). Chapter 5 showed how teachers differed from each other in terms of teaching historical thinking and revealed that there were four different approaches to teaching historical thinking, which

reflected their differing priorities when teaching history. These are presented in Figure 6 and will be explained later.

Content Orientated	Exam Orientated	HT Practitioners	HT Innovators
• Ellie • Audrey	• Josie • Sarah	• Steve • John • Naomi	• Penny • Jack • Henry

Figure 6. Teachers' different attitudes to teaching historical thinking.

The literature often argues, with examples, that the role of teachers critically impacts the quality of students' educational outcomes (Desimone, 2011; Sancar *et al.*, 2021). It is, therefore, crucial for both researchers and policymakers to understand that there are different types of teachers who operate differently due to their individual features (e.g., beliefs, values, individual agency, and self-efficacy) and/or professional and environmental factors (e.g., school settings, professional networks, and resources) (Soine and Lumpe, 2014). In this study, this difference among teachers mainly appeared in their way of using their PCK and this was mainly affected and shaped by their environmental factors. Content orientated teachers tend to be less eager to teach historical thinking and it has been found that their teaching was mainly focussed on content retention. Exam orientated teachers were teaching historical thinking at a more mechanical level by focusing on requirements for the exam-structured questions and answers. HT Practitioners were teaching historical thinking with a sharp focus and were shown to be eager to develop their knowledge and skills. Finally, HT Innovators were not only clearly focussed on teaching historical thinking but were also contributing to the area by influencing other teachers within their professional community. Table 13 presents all the characteristics which differentiate these individuals with respect to their teaching of historical thinking.

Sancar *et al.* (2021) argue that teachers' classroom practices are more strongly influenced by their personal and professional characteristics, such as their values and beliefs,

than by lesson contents and approaches to teaching methods. Table 13 summarises the key findings of Chapters 4 and 5 and represents the main features of four categories of teachers in terms of their understanding of historical thinking, what they focus on, and how their approach to teaching it has been shaped.

	Content Orientated	Exam Orientated	HT Practitioners	HT Innovators
Understanding of H.T.	Second-order concepts + generic driven skills (questioning, analysing, interpreting)	Second-order concepts + procedural knowledge	Second-order concepts + procedural knowledge + generic skills	Second-order concepts + procedural knowledge + generic skills
Attitudes towards teaching H.T.	GCSE + Content heavy teaching	Disciplinary teaching based on GCSE framework	Strong focus on disciplinary based teaching + focus on value of knowing about the past	Strong focus on disciplinary based teaching + focus on value of knowing about the past
Curriculum Choices	Offer content **within GCSE** range with **in-depth knowledge**	Offer content **within GCSE** range + careful consideration of **in-depth and in-breadth knowledge** but mostly the former	Offer historical topics **beyond GCSE** range and several attempts to connect topics with the wider world history using **breadth of knowledge**	**Curriculum makers** – Coming up with new approaches, ideas, and subject topics. Reflecting their individual professional attitudes.

Table 13. The framework of the key features of the teachers' practices for historical thinking

The evidence gathered from the findings showed that the shared understanding of historical thinking was that it required the teaching of second-order concepts. The majority of teachers (with the exception of Ellie and Audrey) also highlighted further features of historical thinking such as developing contextual substantive knowledge by focusing on the procedural aspects, such as reconstructing the past through the critical analyses of sources and examining interpretations. However, although it has been found that teachers held similar purposes, beliefs, and values in connection with teaching historical thinking, yet these did not appear in every teacher's practice. Chapter 6 showed that the external pressures, such as reforms and policies,

school settings, and curricular demands, can create tensions for teachers seeking to reflect their purposes and beliefs in their practices. But the same chapter also suggested that the teachers who could find opportunities to continue their professional development through formal/informal professional development activities and were employed in schools providing in-school collaboration and support were more able to apply their beliefs, purposes, and values to their practices. Figure 7 demonstrates these interactions and how they can affect teachers' practices.

In this study, all teachers started their careers with their pre-teaching inputs mainly coming from their teacher training, which was found to shape their characteristics, such as beliefs, motivations, and purposes. In their early careers, if they interacted with reforms and policies, curricular demands, and classroom challenges, while experiencing a lack of supportive activities, they faced some tensions between their values and practices. This is clearly seen in the content-orientated and exam-orientated teachers' cases. But HT Practitioners' and HT Innovators' cases implied that when teachers were encouraged to maintain professional development processes, they could reinforce their individual values and purposes in their practice. Furthermore, liberating contexts, such as connections with wider professional networks and communities, have enabled them to align their internal values more closely with contextual factors.
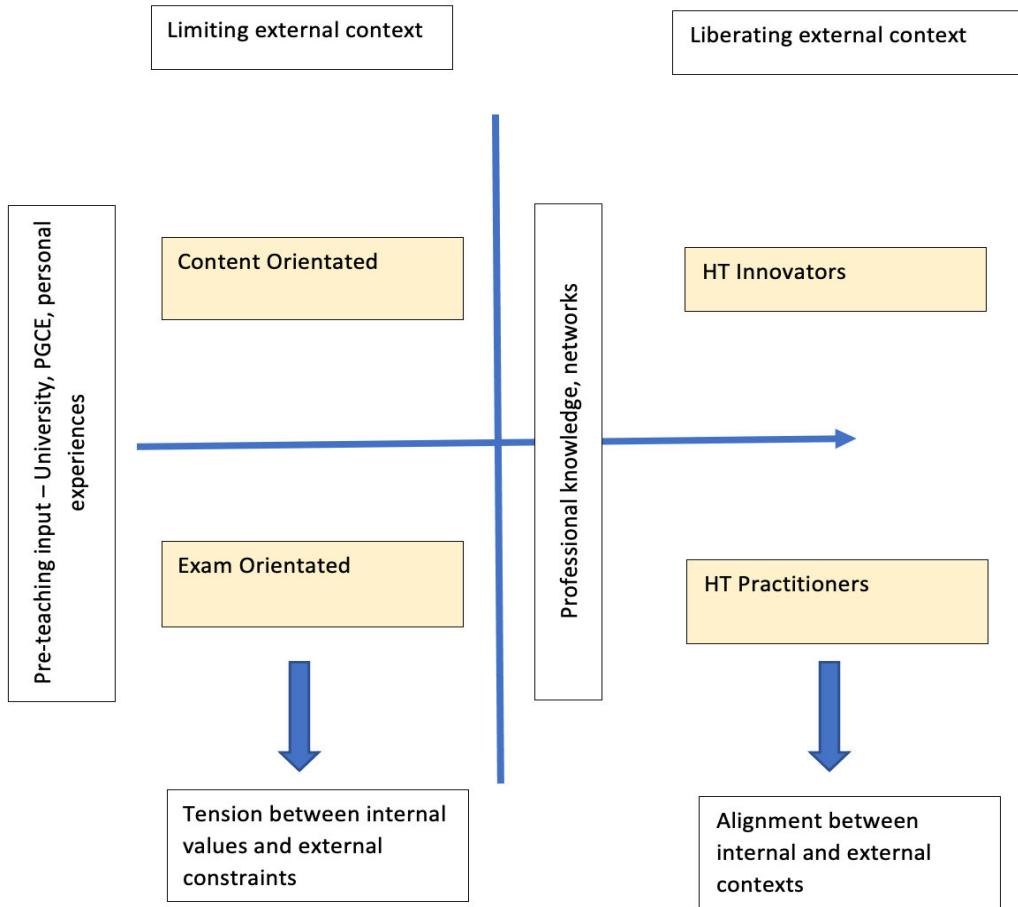
Figure 7. Positions adopted by the teachers.

Figure 7 offers a new explanatory theoretical insight into the importance of teachers' professional growth for teaching historical thinking. The new dimension offered in this figure reveals the possible factors that possibly prevent teachers from becoming innovators or strong practitioners. According to this figure, a positive combination of teachers' internal and external factors and their growing professional knowledge may suggest a better sense of commitment to teaching historical thinking. The detailed features of Figure 7 will be presented and discussed according to the teachers' groups in the remaining sections of this chapter. Discussing the first research question, however, concerning the teachers' understanding of historical thinking, will be easier without grouping them, given the similarities between their responses. Differences and similarities between the teachers became more apparent when they talked about ways of teaching historical thinking. Therefore, to provide further clarity, the teachers are placed into

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groups based on their attitudes to historical thinking for discussion of the findings arising from the second and third research questions.

7.2. What do history teachers understand by historical thinking?

Lee (2011) suggests that the second-order concepts and the procedural aspects of disciplinary history teaching provide necessary conceptual instruments which pupils need to acquire if they are to understand history. In this research, therefore, historical thinking has been defined in relation to the understanding of second-order concepts (such as cause and consequence, change and continuity, which are used to shape and explain the past) and the process of reconstructing the past, using sources critically, and how and why different interpretations of the past come to be. As Chapter 4 outlined, most teachers equate disciplinary based teaching to historical thinking by frequently referring to teaching second-order concepts, which might be the result of a long-standing and deep-rooted emphasis on history teaching as a discipline in England, as Cercadillo (2015) stated. For a long time, second-order concepts have generally been the focus of history teaching pedagogy, as they provided the main disciplinary organising principles (Lee, 2011), and they constituted the first and main stage of teacher engagement with historical thinking in this study. Therefore, the main finding of this research question suggested that the teachers' understanding of historical thinking has been found to be shaped in the light of the curriculum and in the approaches outlined therein.

However, there were some minor differences in teachers' understanding of historical thinking and their approaches to the subject, as well as the terminology they used for defining it. In Chapter 2, it is argued that there is still no "single and agreed-upon" global definition of historical thinking (Lévesque & Clark, 2018, p. 119). The terms 'historical literacy', 'historical thinking', and 'historical consciousness' (Lee, 2011; Rusen, 2005; Seixas, 2006) have been widely used in order to define disciplinary comprehension of history in the literature. Although the term 'historical literacy' is widely used and suggested in the studies conducted on

understanding and teaching the nature of historical thinking in the UK (Lee, 2011), this terminology has not been detected among the participants' suggestions in this research. Instead, the term 'second-order concepts', which was employed by much of the published discourse on disciplinary based history teaching in England (i.e., Clark, 2020), was more explicitly shared by the participants.

Although discussing teachers' terminology may seem a mere matter of semantics, it can be important in revealing their perceptions of historical thinking and their grounded conceptions about teaching it. Biesta *et al.* (2015) have recently suggested that teachers' vocabularies can show their level of understanding of their subject and its requirements. In relation to this suggestion, it was found that there was a relation between the terminology the teachers used and their understanding and teaching of historical thinking. For example, most teachers spoke about second-order concepts when talking about historical thinking, and they also thought history teaching should adopt a disciplinary approach and their practices have also been shaped according to this view. However, in the discussions with Ellie and Audrey the use of this terminology was not strongly evident, and similarly the disciplinary dimensions of historical thinking, although present in their knowledge, were not explicitly apparent in their approaches to teaching it.

Additionally, Chapman (2021) suggested that some procedural aspects of historical thinking, e.g., enquiry, interpretations and evidence, can lead teachers to adopt generic ideas and generalist teaching of analytical 'skills' since these aspects are common ones shared with other disciplines. This was partly evident in this study as well. The teachers' (Steve, John, Sarah, Josie) arguments about evidence, interpretations, and historical sources have appeared to be based on generic techniques of interpreting opposing views, asking for evidence, and approaching ideas critically. For example, Sarah suggested that the activities based on evidential thinking would be helpful to cultivate a questioning disposition and, thus, students

would learn not to accept what they were told without thinking. However, some teachers (Penny, Jack, Henry) mentioned history-specific ways of teaching procedural skills as well. Penny, for instance, saw this ability as a way of understanding how historical claims had been shaped and why there were opposing sources for the same historical phenomena (Chapman, 2011).

Teachers' contributions to discussion also revealed that their generic beliefs and purposes connected with their teaching of history also affected their conceptions of and approach to historical thinking. At this point, it was wondered whether history teachers in England were affected by four different models (American, Canadian, German, and English) mentioned in Lévesque and Clark's study (2018). Although they defined historical thinking by emphasising the disciplinary nature of history, in line with the general trend in England, the acquisition of generic skills was more dominant in some teachers' narratives of the purposes of teaching historical thinking. These generic skills, such as understanding the roots of current issues and developing critical approaches to the news on the television or social media, have been called 'transferable skills' or 'life skills' by some teachers such as Steve, John and Naomi. Some (Steve, Sophie, Jack, Henry) referred to skills aimed to improve students' cognitive abilities, which were also highlighted by Husbands *et al.* (2003), such as thinking independently, asking for the evidence before reaching a judgment, and being respectful and tolerant of the differences around them. Moreover, some participants, Henry and Naomi, mentioned gaining some competences related to citizenship objectives, but these views were not commonly shared by other teachers. Although the development of students' democratic citizenship skills has been presented as a central rationale for the teaching of history in the literature from Germany, Canada, and the U.S., it does not appear to have a central role in much history teaching in England (Lévesque & Clark, 2018). Accordingly, the teachers participating in this study did not talk much about the democratic purposes of history teaching. Another

reason could be the existence of a separate curriculum to teach Citizenship, which is where the British and democratic values in England are often addressed (DfE, 2013). That is why teachers may have preferred making cross-curricular links rather than teaching these values as explicit objectives in their history lessons.

Additionally, it was found that empathy was a controversial term among the participating history teachers: most of them were cautious and hesitated to teach historical empathy as a historical thinking concept. This finding contradicts that of a similar study conducted by Husbands *et al.* (2003). In their study, empathy was one of the most frequently mentioned concepts, along with causation and change. Although empathy has an influential place in historical thinking in Canadian (Seixas, 2009) and American (Barton, 2008) versions of historical thinking approaches, it has been more controversial in the UK based literature (Cunningham, 2004). It had been placed in the earliest GCSE exam specifications that were taught from 1986, but because of severe attacks from the 'New Right' (Cunningham, 2004), and the problematic nature of the term (Lee & Shemilt, 2011), it was forced out of the curriculum. Although the concept lost its place in the curriculum, it continued to exist, albeit controversially, in history teaching and has appeared in this study. Most of the teachers also accepted that it was difficult to imagine history without empathy, especially while teaching sensitive content (as Penny, Josie, Naomi and Sarah stated); they also suggested that it was a possible outcome rather than a concept *per se.* However, teachers' discussions of historical empathy also highlighted an issue raised in the literature. The term 'empathy' can easily be confused with its original dictionary definition, the ability to understand and share the feelings of another, and the experience of empathy in our everyday life (Lee and Shemilt, 2011). This was the case in this study as well, but Naomi established some links with historical empathy, which means the ability to develop a genuine understanding of why people in the past thought and acted as they did, using evidence based on their historical situations (Lee & Shemilt, 2011),

by using phrases such as 'step[ping] into somebody else's shoes' (Bailey, 1985) and historical perspective-taking (Seixas & Morton, 2013; Seixas, *et al.*, 2015). This may imply the necessity of broader teacher training for teaching historical empathy as many of the teachers (Naomi, Penny, John, Jack and Sarah) stated they would hesitate to teach historical empathy because they did not know exactly what it was.

Additionally, all teachers emphasised the important role of diversity in improving the teaching of historical thinking. Although Counsell (2009) suggested that similarity and difference are the conceptual elements of diversity, this view was not shared by the teachers participating in this research. They defined diversity as content rather than a concept. Bradshaw (2009, p. 5) suggested that teaching diversity should aim to help students to handle the complexities of history by appreciating "the richness of the historical tapestry, the exceptions, the variety of the past in all its fullness". Some teachers, Penny, Jack, Henry, showed awareness of this complexity of past events and they considered various factors in relation to diversity. For example, while Jack discussed diversity in relation to changes in our narratives through time, Henry focussed on local history by involving the stories of people's daily life. Some teachers (Penny and Josie) showed a familiarity with this academic debate, although they suggested that diversity was more likely to be a matter of content. Penny even stated that she tried to approach diversity as a concept, and it led her to a 'superficial' approach because she was just trying to 'tick the box' and was not convinced she was doing something that benefitted students.

Despite the strong emphasis of the teachers on content-based diversity, teachers criticised their schemes of work for not being diverse enough, even for their Key Stage 3 (this is the stage where many teachers felt more freedom to include different subject topics before GCSEs started). However, all teachers expressed their plans and motivations for the inclusion of more diverse histories in the future. Their intention was largely driven by a desire to include

more ethnic diversity according to their students' ethnic backgrounds. African history, women's history and local histories were some of the main subjects suggested by teachers to address the issue of insufficient diversity.

An emphasis on the role of diversity in developing historical thinking skills was also a particular reflection of the current historical context. Literature in England and America (Husbands *et al.* 2003; Lévesque 2005; Seixas 2002) highlight how recent world events such as the War on Terror, the growth of mass media, globalisation, migration and associated mixing of cultures and histories have "precipitated a need for and interest in the past" (Lévesque 2005, pp. 349-350). With reference to this, it will be important to remember that this study took place when George Floyd was killed and massive 'Black Lives Matters' protests started to take place all around the world. Therefore, this may have affected participating teachers, inspiring them to diversify some parts of their curriculum. Similarly, the latest History Association survey (Burn & Harris, 2021) showed large numbers of schools diversifying their curriculum. This may suggest, as Seixas (2002) argued, that current issues or events may lead to a need for correlating different histories of societies and communities and in this way, we can offer better critical historical discourse.

Summary

It has been found that teachers' terminological understanding of historical thinking was closely related to teaching second-order concepts. This was not surprising as all academic and curricular documents in England tend to stress the role of second-order concepts in the development of conceptual and historical understanding (DfE, 2014; Lee, 2005; Shemilt, 2010). Although the teachers seemed to agree over the definition, their purposes and priorities for teaching historical thinking differed. It has been seen that teachers' purposes in teaching historical thinking were largely generic, but their suggested practices mostly appeared to be disciplinary in nature. Finally, although some concepts such as empathy appeared to be

controversial, the teachers generally showed a common knowledge and understanding of the nature of historical thinking. In conclusion, as it has also been contended in the extensive survey of Clark and Lévesque (2018), despite teachers' varied perspectives, understandings, agreements, and possible disagreements over the nature and purposes of historical thinking, significant commonality nonetheless has been found in attitudes to teaching historical thinking in this study.

7.3. What type of knowledge informs teachers' approaches to historical thinking?

When examining the second research question, the literature suggests that there is a close relationship between the different types of knowledge held by history teachers and how these conceptions and understandings shape their actual attitudes in the classroom (Husband *et al.*, 2003). The main aim of this research question was to understand how history teachers translated their ideas of historical thinking into their history curriculum and practices.

To be able to understand this process better, Shulman's (1987) model of pedagogical reasoning and action with Webb's (2002) further contributions (represented in Chapter, 2.3.2.) has been used in this study. Additionally, Webb (2002) highlighted the importance of teachers' lesson planning process as it is one of the critical stages for the use of pedagogical reasoning and PCK, so both teachers' preparation processes and lesson delivery processes have been discussed in relation to teaching historical thinking. The analyses revealed a close relationship between differences in teacher knowledge bases and in modes of teaching historical thinking. Although there are several teacher knowledge bases outlined in the literature, in this research, three of them subject, pedagogy, and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) - predominantly informed teachers' approaches to teaching historical thinking. Other knowledge bases were essentially sub-knowledge bases affecting and shaping the PCK matter knowledge of teachers. For example, knowledge of resources appeared to be important in shaping teachers' classroom strategies, as their discussions mostly referred to the process of 'adaptation and tailoring' of

resources according to the characteristics of students and subject topics (Shulman, 1987; Webb, 2002). Figure 8 is created by considering Shulman's (1987) model of pedagogical reasoning and action and Webb's (2002) model of pedagogical reasoning from an historical thinking specific perspective relevant to the current research. I represented the main points of Shulman's model of pedagogical reasoning as a three-stage hierarchy that teachers go through in which their practice for teaching historical thinking has been formed.
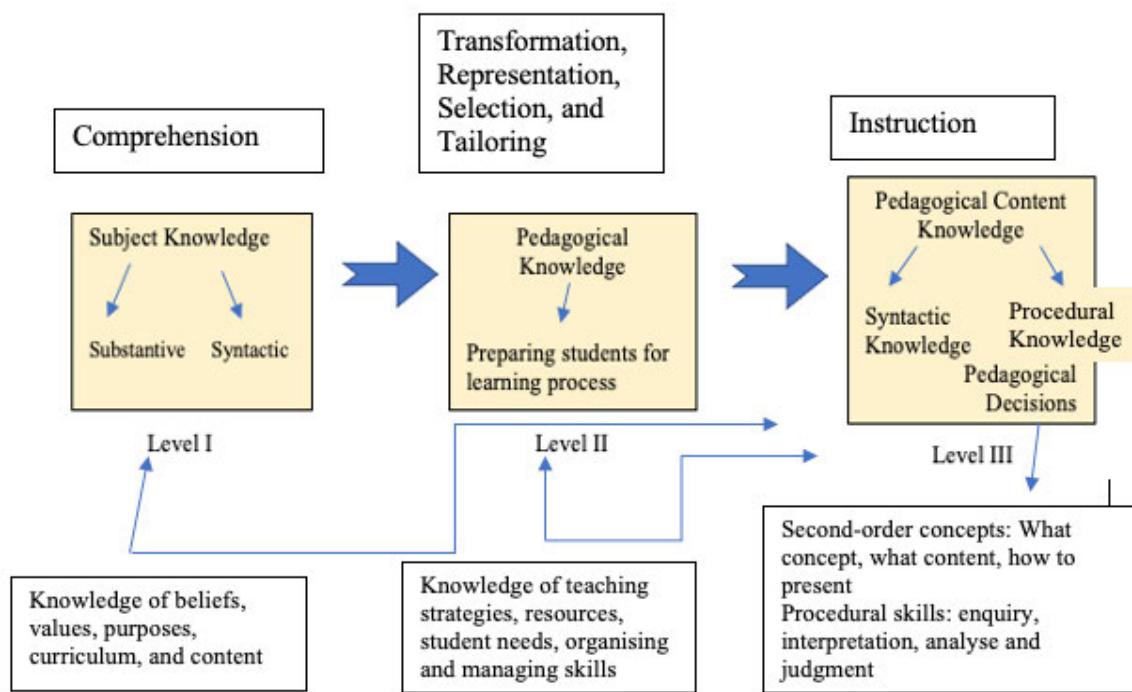
Figure 8. Three-stage teacher knowledge bases and pedagogical reasoning in teaching historical thinking (based on ideas developed by Shulman, 1987 and Webb, 2002)

Based on Figure 8, a three-stage relationship has emerged. According to the data, sufficient subject knowledge (comprehension level) constitutes the first and main stage of the teaching process (Shulman, 1987) because a strong knowledge of the topic to be taught is a necessary condition for securing effective teaching in history (Haydn *et al.*, 2015). However, findings showed that if teachers' discussions remain at this level, they are more likely to adopt practices restricted to developing students' core knowledge of history (e.g., Ellie and Audrey).

The second stage is related to pedagogical knowledge. Some teachers (Steve, John, Naomi, Sarah, and Josie) also pointed out that good subject knowledge is essential but not

enough to provide sufficient teaching in classrooms (Hess & Gatti, 2010). Therefore, teachers discussed the pedagogical knowledge required for managing the classroom settings (selection level), understanding students' individual levels and needs, and adopting the approaches that are most likely to maximise pupils' learning, which are very important aspects of effective teaching (Haydn *et al.et al..*, 2015). There was, however, a differentiation at this level between these teachers. While Josie and Sarah (exam orientated) prioritised attaining the best possible student outcomes from the examinations (Braun *et al.*, 2011) and established their curriculum on this basis, Steve, John, and Naomi (practitioners) prioritised improving students' cultural and generic literacy skills (Hirsch, 1987), when teaching historical thinking.

The last stage was related to the ways in which teachers' utilisation of their knowledge bases in their teaching (instruction level) might lead to different approaches to their work, which Shulman (1987) named pedagogical content knowledge. According to Ní Ríordain and colleagues (2017), teachers need to be subject matter knowledge experts to avoid deficiencies in content knowledge and conceptual errors related to their curriculum. This requires PCK development, since it enables teachers to improve their content knowledge, diversify and modify their classroom practices, and enhance their teaching so that it aligns with their purposes and values. The findings of this research clearly emphasized that while teachers' confidence in their ability to teach historical thinking generally arose from their content knowledge, this was not enough in itself to enable them to apply that content knowledge to their practices: there were several possible reasons for this, including school settings, curriculum and policy requirements, and accountability. Therefore, teachers' use of their PCK was the main area where they differed from each other, and the reason for their classification into different categories. In this study, PCK of teaching historical thinking refers to teaching the syntactic knowledge (second-order concepts) with the selection of the most suitable strategies (i.e., discussion, enquiry, management) and activities (i.e., analyse, interpretation, evidence) to

achieve the best outcomes in this process. Therefore, adopting the transformative model (Gess-Newsome, 1999, p. 14), that defines PCK as the result of a transformation of pedagogical knowledge, subject matter knowledge and context knowledge, was found to be useful. At this level, the differentiation between teachers' historical thinking practices became more visible, since they showed how they utilised their understanding of and beliefs about historical thinking in their lesson activities. And it has been found that only Penny, Jack, and Henry (Innovators) contributed arguments and examples that suggested this kind of knowledge utilisation for teaching historical thinking. The more detailed features of these groups will be discussed in the upcoming sections below.

7.3.1. Content Orientated

The content orientated teachers' (Ellie and Audrey) knowledge bases and their practices were dominated by the subject-content knowledge with reference mainly to the substantive and occasionally to the syntactic nature of history. Audrey's main idea for increasing students' historical thinking was based on introducing more content from the students' cultural and ethnic backgrounds as it would increase the relevance to the students and consequently intensify their engagement. Ellie's contributions to the discussion suggested that if a teacher did not know their subject in detail, then they would not be able to provide enough opportunities to think comprehensively, which is an essential starting point for teaching and thinking historically. However, both teachers' arguments can highlight what Husbands (2011) discussed before: relying on teachers' detailed knowledge can be misleading because although it is the main component of successful teaching, it is not sufficient in itself as it could lead to a potential misapprehension that the more the teacher knows, the better students learn (Haydn *et al.*, 2015).

Shulman (1987, p. 14) notes that "Comprehension alone is not sufficient". This statement can also highlight the importance of making proper pedagogical decisions which enable students to enquire into the subject and discover the history for themselves. However,

Ellie and Audrey have not provided much to discuss on "transformation, representation, adaptation and tailoring processes" (Shulman, 1987) as a part of their pedagogical decisions about historical thinking. Audrey mentioned some activities which they applied occasionally, such as card-sort activities and diamond nine activity (Chapman, 2006), to improve students' conceptual understandings as part of the representation process (i.e., "which stories, quotes, examples, metaphors, comparisons, analogies"), but they also accepted that their engagement with those types of activities was limited and superficial.

Teachers' resource selections were also found to be a limiting factor affecting their historical thinking practice. The last two decades have witnessed a proliferation of classroom resources, especially due to technological developments, and teachers have started to benefit from this abundance, which has enabled them to tailor their resources to fit their specific circumstances and needs (Husbands, 2011). This variety will help the teachers to introduce activities and resources which reflect their beliefs, values, and purposes into their teaching. Ellie and Audrey appeared to be entirely dependent on provided resources such as tests, textbooks or booklets from the exam boards, and they also criticised these resources as being tightly focussed on teaching content without considering thinking skills.

Additionally, these teachers have not shown any engagement with historical sources, which is essential for teaching historical thinking (Counsell, 2001). It is important that teachers should be engaged with historical sources and bring them into the classroom. Working with primary or secondary sources would show "historical value and provide a contribution to student knowledge" (Drake & Brown, 2003, p. 468). Additionally, although Haydn (2011) found that textbooks had become less influential as a resource for history teaching due to a replacement by online and interactive resources as they are more likely to provide variety in activities, and narratives and perspective, Ellie and Audrey mostly resorted to them for reasons of practicality, such saving preparation time.

As for the process of transformation (Shulman, 1987), where teachers need to work on their PCK, Ellie and Audrey's contributions to discussion suggested limited representation and selection considerations for teaching historical thinking: they stated they were mostly focusing on teaching content and content retention. Although the teachers wished to put some effort into addressing students' misconceptions and providing them with 'better historical thinking' by making explicit references and links to today's world, they also stated that they could not introduce these beliefs and purposes into their practice. However, it was evident from their contributions to discussion that these teachers had limited opportunities to learn new ideas in their fields and bring these ideas into their practices (Burn, 2021) as they were only benefiting from their pre-teaching knowledge coming from their teacher training without any considerable collaboration in and beyond their professional communities. To carry out new and different tasks properly, history teachers will need different pedagogical methods, knowledge, ideas, and examples, and this may require further support and guidance. In relation to this, Ellie and Audrey pointed out that they were not continuing their CPD and working in isolation. These aspects will be further discussed in relation to agency and self-efficacy in the coming sections of this chapter.

In summary, Ellie and Audrey knew the content they were supposed to teach and their professional responsibilities to prepare their students for examinations, and they mainly used their content knowledge while they tried to teach historical thinking. Thus, they became content coverers, but this led to some tensions between their aims and practice, as they found this technique insufficient for teaching historical thinking.

7.3.2. Exam Orientated

The evidence from teachers' schemes of work and interview discussions showed that the teachers in this group, contrary to what was discussed in the previous group, drew on several knowledge bases. The analysis of findings (Chapters, 5.2. and 5.4.2) revealed that these teachers

tried to teach the disciplinary and syntactic nature of the subject and reinforce their teaching by using student-centric activities and structures.

Sarah and Josie showed strong subject knowledge, both substantive and syntactic. According to them, the importance of subject knowledge was obvious, i.e., if a teacher does not know the subject well, s/he cannot teach it. But Sarah and Josie also recognized the broader aspects of teachers' subject knowledge such as reflecting on a "set of procedures, skills, concepts and study protocols" (Guyver, 2015, p. 42). What they said in relation to their understanding of historical thinking (section, 4.2.) clearly demonstrated the teachers' knowledge in this area.

In addition to this, Parsons *et al.* (2016, p. 374) emphasise that teachers will need 'different pedagogical approaches to instruction' when they intend to introduce new concepts and content. In this regard, Sarah and Josie benefitted from several strategies mentioned in the literature. These teachers, for instance, were drawing on cognitive science research while teaching historical thinking. Both teachers mentioned the use of several activities such as dual coding (Paivio, 1971). This theory suggests that combining both verbal and visual materials will be a useful learning technique. When the teacher provides visual and verbal explanations together, pupils may process the knowledge more easily and retain it more effectively (Clark & Paivio, 2004). Josie and Sarah's arguments were found to be consistent with this theory. Josie outlined this coding process as coding information in pieces and drawing a picture based on these codes to help students to learn and retain the information. Additionally, both teachers mentioned the use of several activities such as colouring for teaching historical significance, living graphs and diagrams for change and continuity etc. in order to maximise students' capacity for learning historical thinking. According to the literature (see, e.g., Chapman, 2015; Counsell, 2011) such activities will enhance engagement with critical and analytical thinking about history. While discussing these ideas, it was clear that much of their inspiration was

derived from their PGCE training courses, suggesting this may make a considerable contribution to the teachers' professional choices.

What was missing from the schemes of works and teachers' contributions to discussion was the place of enquiry questions. Counsell (2011) suggest that the quality of teaching historical thinking can be determined by considering two aspects: enquiry questions and activities. However, Josie and Sarah have not raised much discussion about the use of enquiry questions, and its presence in teachers' schemes of work was also found to be limited (see Section 4.3.). In terms of the activities, Josie and Sarah's main motivation and rationale for teaching historical thinking were shaped around the development of understanding of the evidence by discussing the sources in the light of their contextual frameworks. Teachers suggested that using a variety of sources from different perspectives, handling students' tendencies to reject some sources for their bias or unreliability and making well-structured enquiries should be the correct pedagogy while teaching historical evidence, as Ashby (2011) also suggested. However, these discussions have not been explicitly mentioned in the schemes of work which they provided for this research. Despite several attempts to engage in causation, interpretation, and source works, as the teachers also accepted, their schemes of work were content heavily. This may suggest that teachers' level of 'instruction' (associated with PCK in this study) has only a limited capacity for addressing historical thinking effectively in their courses.

Consequently, their findings reveal some tensions. The reason why the teachers in this group have more limited approaches at the enquiry stage, despite their strong subject and pedagogical knowledge, is found to be the intense influence of GCSE on their teaching. The structure of GCSE has recently changed, and it has been updated with the qualifications that will feature some new topics and more demanding content; therefore, adopting enquiry-based approaches became harder (Burn & Harris, 2021; Woolley, 2017). These issues arising from

the new GCSE also seemed to be affecting Josie and Sarah's approaches as well. Their teaching practices consisted of exam-centred topics and exam-specific instructional repertoires. It seems that a performative culture caused tension between teachers' professional beliefs and judgements about good practice and the desired performance outputs, which appeared to lead them to set their beliefs aside and prioritise what was performatively valued and approved (Ball, 2003).

In summary, these teachers were found to be strong in terms of their subject and pedagogical knowledge as a result of their teacher training. They were also active teachers in terms of seeking and finding new ways and ideas to improve their teaching. But their professional learning and training were dominated by generic, examination-oriented knowledge and training. Consequently, it appeared that their historical thinking practices were based on their exam-specific knowledge, and they were grouped as exam-orientated teachers in this study.

7.3.3. Historical Thinking Practitioners

The teachers (Steve, John, and Naomi) in the practitioner group were found to be predominantly pedagogy driven, as the findings chapter has explained (see Chapter 5.3). Their main difference from the previous groups is their ability to reflect their aims and knowledge of historical thinking in their practices.

In terms of subject knowledge, teachers demonstrated secure content knowledge, just like the teachers in the previous groups. However, they also made visible references to the syntactic or disciplinary aspects of subject knowledge, as emphasised in much of the literature (see, e.g., Chapman, 2021; Turner-Bisset, 1999; Young & Muller, 2010), in line with what Shulman (1987) suggested on comprehension level. As has been argued, what history teachers understand of teaching historical thinking relates closely to improving students' abilities in enquiry, analysis, evaluation, and argument by teaching second-order concepts and disciplinary

aspects of history. Therefore, these teachers highlighted the importance of having strong syntactic and procedural knowledge for being able to teach historical thinking and this knowledge positively affected their practices as they involve "ordered enquiry, systematic analysis and evaluation, argument, logical rigour, and a search for the truth" (DES/Welsh Office, 1990 in Turner-Bisset, 1999, p. 4).

The teachers linked these relevant skills to pedagogical knowledge and highlighted some issues in the process of implementing procedures. They raised some issues arising from the preparation of students for the process of teaching historical thinking. At this point, teachers' discussions were shaped by what Shulman (1987) called representation, selection, and adaptation and tailoring for students as part of teachers' pedagogical reasoning. It found that teachers' pedagogical concerns were related to making the lesson interesting and enjoyable for their students. As is often highlighted in the literature worldwide (Gorard & See, 2011; Haydn & Harris, 2010) students tend to show low engagement in history lessons, so teachers are encouraged to apply more interactive, enjoyable, and student-oriented history lessons (which means having some control of their learning) (McIntyre *et al.*, 2005). In line with this, teachers referred to the use of several creative and interactive methods such as role-play, drama, and simulation (representation) in addition to the use of hooking titles, images, and illustrations (representation and selection) to increase students' involvement (see Chapter 5.3.1.). Additionally, the use of "the most useful forms of representation – analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations and demonstrations" to represent and formulate the subject in the most comprehensible way for students (Shulman, 1986, p. 9) was evident in their discussions in Chapter 5.3.1. This chapter provided examples of using different resources which may help students to engage with and understand the topic.

Teachers in this group also emphasized the importance of their students' literacy skills in teaching historical thinking skills, which can be related to another important discussion in

the literature (Counsell, 2004; Fullard & Dacey, 2008). Burston (1963:14) asserted that "history, more than any other school subject, depends upon literacy in its pupils as a prerequisite to success and increased literacy is perhaps its most important by-product". The teachers' discussions about the lack of students' literacy skills which caused their inability to develop their historical thinking can also highlight Burston's statement. This led them to adopt practices designed to increase students' literacy skills as a part of their pedagogical justification for teaching historical thinking (adaptation and tailoring to student characteristics) (Shulman, 1987).

As it is highlighted in the literature, focussed literacy teaching can "enhance historical understanding with due attention to the way the history teachers approach speaking, and listening, reading and writing" (Haydn *et al.*, 2015, p. 107). In this context, the examples given by the teachers (see 5.3.3.) are consistent with what is suggested here. Steve's incorporation of literacy activities in every lesson and John's inclusion of literacy-related games at the beginning and end of each lesson can be shown as proof of this. Additionally, Naomi's discussions of using primary sources with the original vocabulary suggest what Chapman (2006) also argued: pupils can cope with quite challenging documents if the teacher helps and guides them through in a skilful manner. However, it should be pointed out here that many of the activities that teachers suggested were more heavily based on generic literacy skills.

It was clear in teachers' discussions and schemes that they laid strong emphasis on disciplinary structures of historical thinking such as causation, change and continuity. Additionally, in the teaching of historical thinking, one of the main aspects that strongly emphasized in each model has been the use of enquiry (Counsell, 2011; Dawson, 2009; Seixas, 2006; Wineburg, 2001; Van Boxtel &Van Drie, 2018). Various reasons and purposes for the place of historical enquiry appear in the literature. For example, several studies emphasised the generic outcomes of studying historical enquiry, such as improvement of critical thinking skills

(Dawson, 2009) or constructivist understandings of social issues (Barton & Levstik, 2004). These teachers' accounts of their beliefs and purposes concerning history and historical thinking were in line with these discussions, since they gave more weight to the interpretive nature of history by emphasising broader educational, social and moral purposes, such as Steve's vision of history as a vehicle for improving students' understandings of today's world.

Wineburg (1991) found that, for developing historical evaluation and enquiry, three reading strategies were central to disciplinary historical thinking: sourcing, corroboration and contextualisation. In relation to this, the most important reference made by the teachers in this group on teaching historical thinking was to the use of evidence and source work. Since these teachers conceptualised the main point of historical thinking as the reconstruction of the past, examining and analysing different sources and thus comparing narratives and ideas were some of the most frequently mentioned activities. These activities suggest a clear emphasis on what Young (2011) stated as 'powerful knowledge', as they may provide students with clear insights on how knowledge is created and how historical truths can change according to the available evidence and our perspectives.

In summary, teachers in this group maintained strong subject and pedagogical knowledge. Additionally, they could identify the ways in which their students needed to be supported and they found solutions on these bases. However, their pedagogical expertise was leading to the general improvement of students' competencies rather than historical thinking specifically. According to the data, their PCK for teaching historical thinking was not as evident as in the innovator group. Therefore, these teachers are grouped as good practitioners but not innovators.

7.3.4. Historical Thinking Innovators

In this group, teachers (Penny, Jack, and Henry) were found to be the most effective pioneers in teaching and developing historical thinking among the teachers contributing to this

research. They expressed strong beliefs about the nature of history as a reconstruction of the past, about the need to develop disciplinary thinking and to incorporate broad real-world understanding, and they influenced the way Penny, Jack, and Henry approached historical thinking and shaped their planning, as recognised by Seixas and Morton (2013) in relation to developing historical thinking in history teaching.

These teachers made use of multiple sources of knowledge and material to inform their professional knowledge bases, such as subject matter knowledge, pedagogy knowledge, and knowledge of the field gained from professional development activities, which have all been highlighted as aspects of enhancing their PCK (Shulman, 1987). The stages and processes of pedagogical reasoning were evidenced across the full complement of this group of participants, covering examples of comprehension (Jack, Henry), and reflection on and evaluation of instruction (Penny, Henry) in line with Shulman's (1987) model of pedagogical reasoning. Their (Penny, Jack, Henry) contributions to discussion clearly demonstrated some significant elements of pedagogical knowledge, such as the ability to "conceptualize, segment, structure and transform the content into a curriculum focussed on core concepts that link facts together meaningfully " (Monte-Sano & Cochran, 2009:128), and methods of introducing the topic in a way that made students curious to learn more about it (esp., Henry and Jack) (Haydn *et al.*, 2015), then promote a teaching system which enabled students to gain some disciplinary competences (Husbands, 2011).

The literature frequently suggests that the use of sources and enquiry are fundamental elements of historical thinking (Counsell, 2000; Wineburg, 2001; VanSledright, 2004). One of the important focuses of their planning for historical thinking was source work activities. Wineburg (2001) says that students' lack of understanding of the discipline will cause them to see the sources as a neutral basis of historical knowledge. Efforts were consciously made to address such misconceptions and develop pedagogy on this basis, which is one of the key

themes in the contemporary literature relating to developing historical thinking around the use of sources and evidence (Ashby, 2011). Notably, Henry and Jack suggested that the sources should be handled in context and, in order to do this, they suggested that key concepts and landmarks in time should be introduced clearly to students (van Boxtel & van Drie, 2012). As discussed above, another important method of improving historical thinking was the use of enquiry questions: Jack and Henry talked about planning overarching enquiry questions in sequences. Additionally, teachers suggested the use of discipline-specific enquiry, with making links to causation, in order to understand what was behind the historical phenomena (Penny), and to change and continuity to see how it affected events afterwards (Henry and Jack); this is suggested in much of the literature in England (Counsell, 2011).

The literature provided a strong indication that lesson planning activities were fertile ground for evidencing and developing PCK (Aydin *et al.*, 2015), especially when ensuring that the full process of pedagogical reasoning was carried through from initial planning to reflection (De Jong & Van Driel, 2004). Similarly, Chapman (2021:8) states that curricula that aim to reinforce disciplinary based powerful knowledge also require "complex planning to deliver progression in knowledge and understanding of a number of dimensions of knowledge". One dimension of this complex planning is related to content knowledge and conceptual knowledge, and procedural understanding: these teachers had this sophisticated understanding, as is discussed above. Another dimension would suggest developing "relevant skills needed to implement procedures, manage information and organise one's learning in the domain" (Chapman, 2021, p. 8).

The decisions that Penny, Jack and Henry made about the use and selection of resources were found to be calculated to improve students' historical thinking, according to the suggestions in the relevant literature (Whitehouse, 2019). It is found that mixing and matching resources in planning contributes to developing new and better PCK, even when a teacher is

reliant on the subject knowledge (Jack and Henry). Developing content resources by drawing on interdisciplinary resources, e.g., politics or museum exhibitions (Jack), or broadening content knowledge by considering a different range of contexts (local, global, national) (Henry) helped them to provide better PCK for teaching historical thinking. Penny achieved most of this improvement by using the specific teaching ideas, activities, and structures that she gained from the knowledge of the field by engaging with articles, journals and conferences. This enabled her to provide a dynamic and interactive teaching environment. Moreover, their PCK also allowed these teachers to believe all students could make progress if taught in a suitable manner. Thus, in this group, students' ability levels have not affected them negatively, in contrast to the examples of Ellie, Audrey, and Sophie. There were activities in Penny and Henry's schemes of work requiring students to discuss and write analytically and discursively; Jack has not provided such a detailed scheme.

In summary, these teachers were found to be driven by improved PCK while teaching historical thinking. These teachers' main difference from the other groups was the detection of the broad sense of planning involved beyond the use of provided resources in order to develop student abilities for historical thinking. Jack and Henry's subject knowledge and knowledge about historical research helped them to improve their PCK and to plan the subject topics in their curriculum without being dependent on available resources. This made the real difference in their teaching and gave them enough confidence and freedom to make their own curriculum. Their approaches to creating their own resources, for example, by using the national archives and museum resources, helped them to broaden their teaching skills (Donally, 2019). Finally, Penny's active attendance and contributions to some conferences, such as SHP, led her to improve her PCK in terms of curriculum structures and teaching methods (Burn, 2021). These outcomes were also in line with several research findings on factors that improve teachers'

confidence (Nilsson & Loughran, 2012), efficacy and professionalism (Park & Oliver, 2008). For these reasons, these teachers appeared in this study as innovatory teachers.

7.4. What influences the teachers' decisions?

As discussed in the previous sections, the teachers made different choices in their practices for teaching historical thinking. It has been seen that teachers' different decisions led to four different teacher categorisations for teaching history, as Table 13 illustrated. Section 7.3 discussed the effect of different knowledge bases on teachers' positions. In this section, teachers' individual features and contextual factors will also be discussed to better understand why teachers adopted different positions in their teaching despite having similar purposes for teaching history.

The literature often suggests that teachers' sense of self-efficacy, agency, purposes, and beliefs are important factors which shape individual teachers' day-to-day practices in the classroom (Ni Riordain *et al.*, 2017). Teacher agency, in this study, is defined as the ability to make informed choices to perform teaching despite classroom and school-based challenges, and thoroughly reflect on the impacts of these actions (Priestley *et al.*, 2012). Teachers' self-efficacy is associated with teachers' self-judgments of their capacities to bring about the desired outcomes through learning and student engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). But there is a limited discussion in the literature asking whether teacher agency is internally developed or is developed by external factors such as policies, school administrators, and students.

Chapter 6 presented both internal factors (such as agency and self-efficacy) and external factors (such as teachers' school environments, educational climate, their professional network, and CPD opportunities). Analysis found that contextual factors affected teachers' engagement with historical thinking. This indicates that although actors may have some sorts of capacity, what they will achieve could be an outcome of the interaction of their individual features with

their ecological circumstances. Therefore, the findings in this study support the ecological agency theory of Biesta and Tedder (2017).

If agency is an outcome, as Biesta and Tedder (2017) suggest, it is important to understand what can lead to a positive agency for achieving targeted goals. In light of the findings presented in Chapter 6, Figure 9

has been created. The interaction between positive external contexts and a high level of internal mechanism may lead to an agency for becoming an innovator, while a blend of negative external contexts and a low sense of inner mechanism may lead to the adoption of content coverer teaching (see Figure 9). In this study, important dimensions which lead to a positive or stronger sense of agency were found to be related to internal (i.e., beliefs and self-efficacy), and external (i.e., network and CPD) factors. These factors will be discussed in the following subsections.
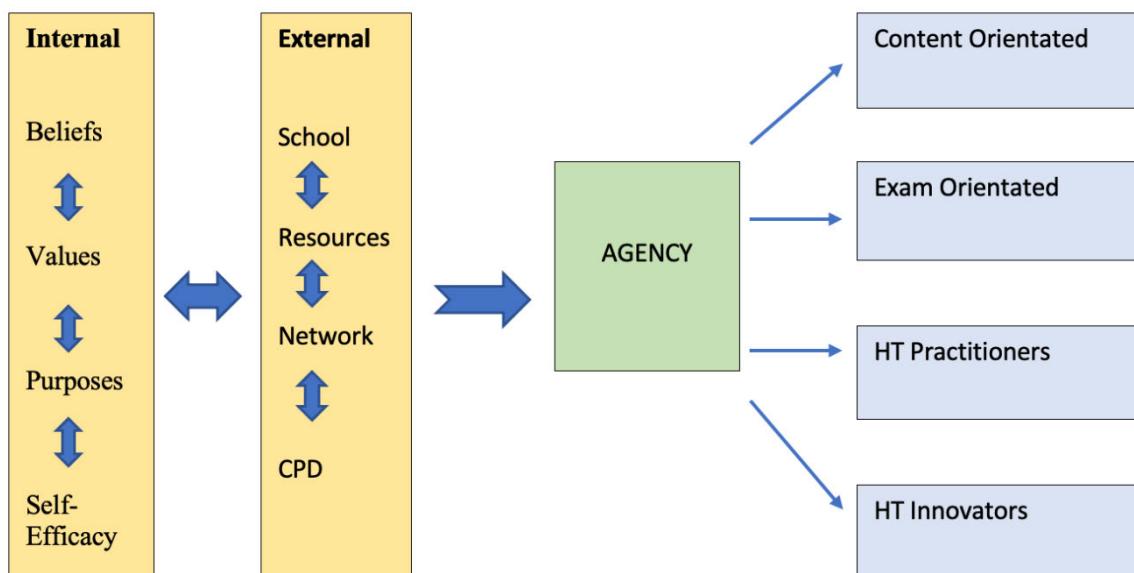

Figure 9. Agency as an outcome of the relationships between internal and external factors.

What this study found is a complex interaction between teachers` internal mechanisms (their self-efficacy, purposes/motivations and beliefs) and external factors (school context, access to recourses and CPD) affecting their engagement with teaching historical thinking.

7.4.1. Internal Factors

The findings indicate that the teachers` engagement with historical thinking and their teaching practice are influenced by several internal factors. Among the internal aspects affecting teachers' decisions about teaching historical thinking were their beliefs and values. Section 2.4.3 shows that there is a significant place in the literature for teachers' beliefs and states that theoretical perspectives on teachers' beliefs can facilitate the understanding and interpretation of their practices (Kramer & Engestrom, 2019). Biesta *et al.* (2015), for example, investigated the effects of teacher beliefs and values, and found that it played a significant role in shaping their practices. In this research, teacher beliefs appeared to be based on the purposes of teaching history, including beliefs about the nature of learning, beliefs about students, and beliefs about teaching abilities (or self-efficacy). In the light of the findings and what has been discussed so far, all teachers involved in this study had progressive beliefs (being student centred, innovative, and diverse in terms of content, perspective, and the pedagogy of history teaching), but not all of them were able to align their beliefs with practices, as the previous section has demonstrated.

The first two groups of teachers (content orientated and exam orientated) implemented purposes and beliefs consistent with fostering students' historical thinking. Ellie and Audrey suggested that teaching history should equip students with relevant skills which could be helpful for their preparation for the world in which they live (section 4.2.3). However, it is also found that their practices (section 5.2) are determined by teaching content-based teaching strategies without paying much attention to innovative or diverse teaching structures. The reason behind this decision was related to the pressure they felt for students to achieve successful results in the exams (Ball, 2017; Hall & McGinity, 2015). Although they seemed not to be satisfied with such teaching methods, they also avoided changing their practices for teaching historical thinking. As will be discussed in the following sections, they attributed their failure to engage

with their desired teaching practices to external factors such as the content-heavy curriculum, time issues, and pressures coming from the accountability culture and their schools' expectations and climate, and this created the tension shown in Figure 7. This was also the case for exam-oriented teachers.

Exam orientated teachers were found to be very keen to teach second-order concepts, historical interpretations and sources, as discussed in section 4.2.4. In this regard, both teachers' beliefs and motivations to engage with these processes are clear. Teachers' accounts of how they created schemes from scratch to involve more historical thinking-based teaching (section, 4.2.4.) in their early careers may indicate their motivation and beliefs, as well as their sense of efficacy (Synder & Fisk, 2016), as they aimed to take risks for positive changes (Le Fevre, 2014). However, as is seen in the previous section, they could not reflect their beliefs and purposes in their practice, much of which (especially in Sarah's case) is driven by the need for students to 'perform' successfully in the examinations (Ball, 2017; Harris, 2021). This fits in with what Harris (2021) found in his very recent study, which says that teachers generally aim to maximise examination outcomes by adopting low-risk approaches. Harris (2021) also says such approaches may not be adequate as they narrow students' experiences of the curriculum. This, therefore, creates a situation where teachers' beliefs and values about ideal history teaching contravene the attitudes shaped by the accountability culture. This finding can reflect what Biesta (2015) highlighted as the tension between educational outcomes and educational values. Therefore, both the content orientated and exam orientated teachers faced tensions in their teaching of historical thinking.

The literature shows that teachers may find themselves in situations in which they need to decide between a focus on educational outcomes and pursuing educational values (Harris & Graham, 2019). It is apparent that all teachers have a responsibility to focus and consider the assessment processes to monitor the level of student progress and take some actions based on

what is needed or what is missing (Philpott, 2011). Maximising student potential and helping them to achieve the best results are obvious and necessary parts of education. However, content and exam orientated teachers seemed to have allowed their narratives and practices to become overly dominated by assessment, whether due to their context or individual preferences, whereas teachers in the historical thinking innovators' and historical thinking practitioners' groups were found to be more able to retain a focus on their beliefs rather than on assessment, resulting in their practice of enquiry based and disciplinary teaching for historical thinking (Chapter, 5), despite similar contextual challenges.

It is clear that teachers have to teach a similar GCSE curriculum and they all have to face accountability pressures. The reasons behind this difference between the participating teachers can be complex. While some studies in the literature focus on external factors such as school environments, structural conditions, and CPD (Fullan, 2007), others tend to emphasise the role of individual factors such as teacher values (Verloop *et al.*, 2001) as well as teachers' self-efficacy (Biesta *et al.*, 2015; Priestley *et al.*, 2012). It is difficult to say which set of factors is more influential for the participants in this study, but the effects of both will be discussed in the following sections of this chapter.

Another internal factor found in this research is self-efficacy. The literature review chapter (section 2.4.3.) suggests that teachers' self-efficacy is related to their perceived ability to adopt attitudes based on their purposes, values, and beliefs and, thus, their personal satisfaction with their current practices. Findings showed that content and exam orientated teachers sounded less satisfied with their teaching, whereas historical thinking practitioners and historical thinking innovators appeared to be more satisfied with their current practices. As discussed in the explanation of Figure 7, content and exam orientated teachers were found to be benefitting only from their initial teacher training knowledge and the ideas, methods, and activities they learnt during that training (see section 6.3.4.). Therefore, it could be said that

exam and content orientated teachers tend to express less confidence in their practice and teaching abilities, which indicates their comparatively low sense of efficacy (Bandura, 2006).

Content orientated teachers depend on their current knowledge without any professional development and, in a less collaborative and supportive teaching environment, seemed to become isolated from opportunities to adopt new teaching methods and improve their teaching (Batt, 2010). These conditions might also have affected teachers' level of efficacy and confidence (Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2001). For example, Sarah's perception that she will have problems if she cannot meet her own objectives at the end of the lesson (section, 6.3.1.), and Audrey's idea that historical thinking is not something that teachers can teach in reality (section, 6.2.1.) may suggest that they have relatively less confidence and support for trying new ideas and strategies in their practices (Wheatley, 2005). Therefore, these teachers have adopted low-risk strategies and given more value to supporting educational outcomes. This may have created obstacles which inhibit teachers' professional growth and efficacy for teaching historical thinking in more progressive and effective ways (Larrivee, 2000).

On the other hand, the other two groups of teachers attributed their level of efficacy to their professional development activities in addition to their pre-teaching knowledge and inputs. These teachers, especially historical thinking innovators, create dynamic opportunities and networks for their professional development (Coldwell, 2017), and this seems to have affected their self-efficacy for teaching historical thinking in a positive way, as Gallo-Fox and Scantlebury (2016) suggested. Henry's observations on the importance of having a professional network where he can discuss and critique his teaching ideas (section 6.3.4.), Steve's ideas about improving his pedagogical knowledge in order to engage students more with historical thinking (section 5.3.1.), Jack's ongoing actions to improve his subject knowledge in order to increase his ability to teach historical thinking (section 5.2.), and Penny's active contribution to history teaching-specific conferences (section 6.3.4.) could be the facilitators improving their

self-efficacy (Moussay *et al.*, 2011). Bandura (2006) states that self-efficacy operates as a motivator. According to Bandura (2012), self-efficacy establishes the degree to which individuals motivate themselves: thus, low self-efficacy results in a low level of motivation (as seen in content orientated teachers' contributions to discussions) while high self-efficacy results in a high level of motivation (as seen in the historical thinking innovators). Therefore, "when faced with obstacles, setbacks, and failures, those who doubt their capabilities slacken their efforts, give up or settle for mediocre solutions, those who have a strong belief in their capabilities redouble their effort to master the challenges" (Bandura, 2000, p. 120). This provides a helpful explanation for the differences that might appear among these teachers while they are engaging with historical thinking.

Although the discussion so far has focussed on considering how external situations can affect teachers' efficacy, the converse is also possible. Some teachers have stronger individual motivations, such as personal agendas, goals, and aspirations, which may have led them (especially the historical thinking innovators) to become more active (Larrivee, 2000), to take responsibility for making progress in their present teaching, and also direct their future actions (Priestley *et al.*, 2015) with reference to teaching historical thinking. These teachers' beliefs (iterational patterns) may therefore form a basis for their self-efficacy (present-evaluative elements) and their motivations (projective elements). This process, named a "chordal triad" by Emirbayer and Mische (1998, p. 972), was more evident in the contributions of historical thinking innovators.

Additionally, Priestley's (2015) suggestion, that teachers` efficacy may be dependent on cultural, structural, and material aspects of the current conditions, can also be helpful. One of the critical aspects that emerged in this study revealed that teacher motivation for engaging in historical thinking would also be dependent on the conditions which their workplaces offered. The school culture or ethos (Le Fevre, 2014), heads of department (King, 2016), colleagues,

and the degree of collaboration within schools (Fullan, 2015) would therefore be the leading factors in teachers' workplaces. The effects of such external factors will, however, be addressed separately in the following section.

In summary, as all teachers in this research have similar understandings, beliefs, and purposes with reference to teaching history and historical thinking, the influence of iterational patterns (beliefs, values, and purposes) has not made much difference to their current teaching practices. Teachers' present-evaluative and projective considerations were found to offer more helpful explanations of the factors affecting their engagement with teaching historical thinking. As Biesta and Tedder suggested in their 'Ecological Agency Model' (2007), the teachers' attitudes are best understood in terms of the ongoing interaction between their personal capacities and external circumstances, and how that eventually influences their agency.

7.4.2. External Factors

The previous section has already exemplified the interplay between the internal and external factors affecting their decisions in relation to teaching historical thinking. Contextual factors often appeared to play a significant role in teachers' sense of efficacy, beliefs, practices, and motivation for teaching. This interplay between the internal and external factors in relation to the teachers` decisions to teach historical thinking is also akin to the findings of other empirical studies (Day, 2000; Le Fevre, 2014). External factors affecting teachers' decisions will be addressed and discussed in the remaining parts of this section.

7.4.2.1. School Contexts

It is not possible to implement new teaching practices and to grow professionally without considering school contexts (Sancar, *et al.*, 2021). The findings suggest that school culture or school ethos have a huge impact on indicating the main values and beliefs with which teachers tend to accord (King, 2016). As the literature suggests, in a school culture that is unsupportive, and focussed solely on getting the best results from exams, teachers would feel

insecure about trying something new, because changing tested and sanctioned teaching attitudes could be linked to risk-taking (Le Fevre, 2014). That is why it is important to consider the conditions and values of the schools in which the teachers work, in order to have a better understanding of the external factors influencing their teaching. In this study, it has been found that most teachers often acted in accord with their teaching environments. On this basis, one of the elements leading content-orientated teachers to engage with historical thinking superficially and concentrate mainly on content teaching can be also correlated with their current school conditions. Teachers' comments such as "no one teaches historical thinking" (Audrey) or "what we often do in the school, preparing students for the exams" (Ellie) can clearly demonstrate how their school context negatively affected their engagement with historical thinking. Such statements can indicate more clearly why these teachers preferred to focus mainly on content coverage without challenging the accepted teaching methods and taking risks by trying new strategies, because when teachers cannot find guidance, support, or examples that encourage them to challenge themselves (Fullan, 2007) they are more likely to remain in safer positions (Le Fevre, 2014).

Opfer *et al.* (2011) indicate that teachers' collective beliefs constantly interact with and impact their individual beliefs. Therefore, a collaborative school setting should be a high priority for teachers' professional development. The literature argues that teachers surrounded by colleagues who are risk-takers, influential, and who provide support in the department, could be more open to change and improvement in their teaching (Garet *et al.*, 2001). This was evident in this study as well. The content orientated teachers (Ellie and Audrey) are both found to be working in a less collaborative school environment, with colleagues who were not open to negotiate, or cooperate in planning something new and different. Having positive relationships in a department can facilitate teacher change, as communication and collaboration generate the sense of responsibility, safety, trust and courage necessary for risk-taking (Fullan, 2015). In this

way, the agency and self-efficacy of teachers could have been improved, enabling them to take further action to enhance their current and future practices for teaching historical thinking.

Similar school settings and their impacts have also been detected in the case of content orientated teachers (Sarah and Josie). Their uncollaborative collegial relations (Fullan, 2015) within the department and exam-prioritised school values so thoroughly inhibited their sense of efficacy that they could not prioritise taking risks in their teaching (section 6.2.1.), which aligns with the findings of Durksen *et al.* (2017). They undertook a survey involving 253 teachers in Canada, in which they focussed on the connection between motivation and teachers' professional learning. Their findings suggested that teachers' collaborative and collegial learning contexts were very helpful for improving the teachers' sense of efficacy. Additionally, Le Fevre (2014) has also noted that the process of learning new strategies and techniques, and applying them to the classroom (Parsons *et al.*, 2016) is often challenging and stressful; therefore, school leaders should adopt positions with the potential to foster an environment where taking risks is perceived as something positive. The observations of the content orientated teachers in the present study, however, especially those of Sarah (section 6.3.1.), show just the opposite of what Le Fevre (2014) suggested. Thus, the reasons behind the first two groups' lack of engagement with historical thinking were found to be constrained by contextual factors (White, 2018; Biesta & Tedder, 2007).

The contextual conditions of the last two groups were more positive. In the Historical Thinking practitioners' cases, the school structure and culture fostered their agency, since their pedagogical skills, risk-taking skills, and their resolve to teach historical thinking were supported by their schools (Hadar & Brody, 2010). Steve, John, and Naomi were able to engage in more effective contexts where they could have the support and collaboration they needed to enable them to involve historical thinking in their teaching: this positively affected their self-efficacy and motivation and then led them to exert more agency. This is in line with the

statement of Spiteri and Chang Rungden (2017) that teachers' collaborative efforts motivate them to support each other and make them more eager to take risks when accommodating new teaching skills. This positive interaction between the internal and contextual factors influencing the Historical Thinking Practitioners group also seemed to establish the efficacy of the teachers` engagement in teaching based on new ideas, pedagogy, and teaching structures for historical thinking (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005). Steve's experience of effective and helpful collaboration provided by his current head of department, for example, fed into his individual capacity by helping him become more proactive and creative (see Section 5.3). Consequently, working in the schools which are agency supportive, these teachers became more confident and willing to teach historical thinking. Similarly, John's observations on how the ethos and values of his previous school negatively affected him, eventually making him feel more restricted in his teaching, may show the impacts of different educational contexts on teachers' practices (Braun *et al.*, 2011). So, it can be said that one of the main influential factors in shaping these four types of teacher groups (either positively or negatively) was the ethos of their current department and school.

The Historical Thinking Innovators group, however, experienced a slightly different situation. These teachers, instead of being affected by their school/department contexts, appeared to be influencing their departments and more immediate educational contexts. Penny and Jack were already heads of the departments in their schools, and thus had more authority to lead their department according to their educational beliefs, values and purposes. This also highlights the fact that teachers' years of professional experience and their status in their school critically shape and influence their teaching practices (Fischer *et al.*, 2018). Additionally, as Figure 9 illustrated, positive interactions between teachers and school leaders give teachers opportunities to experience authentic and meaningful professional development. Then, as the literature suggested, such positive interactions encourage teachers to improve their classroom

practices, draw attention to and apply new curricular strategies and improve their collaboration within their school and wider communities (Gallo-Fox and Scantlebury, 2016). Henry, in this study, was the example of a teacher working in these school settings, since he was employed in a department where he could find opportunities to improve himself professionally by attending professional learning activities and engaging with CoP: thus, he showed active engagement with historical thinking.

Gallo-Fox and Scantlebury (2016) also suggested that positive school settings inspired teachers to extend their positions as school leaders and teacher educators. Penny, Jack and Henry illustrate this by actively pursuing their professional development and taking wider roles within their schools and professional communities (Luka, 2015). For example, despite the previous disadvantages of Jack's situation (see Chapter 6.2.1.) within his department, he took responsibility for changing the current conditions. Jack first honed his knowledge and skills by continuing his professional development, and then became a head of department with more opportunities to create alignments between his progressive beliefs, professional dedications and values, and his school context (Kramer & Engestrom, 2019).

7.4.2.2. Accountability and Performativity Culture

Content and exam orientated teachers were found to be more affected by the performativity and accountability culture which exists in the UK educational system (Ball, 2003). They all suggested that GCSEs had a great impact on the way they taught historical thinking. Therefore, instead of focussing on the purposes of the curriculum and its educational values, these teachers' approaches were found to be largely directed by the instructions and structures of final examinations. The long-standing effects of the marketization of education (using international measures and exams to offer a competitive economic edge) resulted in league tables creating pressure for teachers to perform well in the examinations (Ball, 2003). According to the literature, however, these pressures often negatively affected teachers and

caused failure to apply desired improvements (Harris, 2021; Mutch, 2012). This negative impact was also visible in Sarah and Josie's statements about teaching historical thinking.

Additionally, the pressure of performativity culture and league tables (specifically EBacc) was evident in Sarah's contributions to discussion as an obstacle to engaging with teaching historical thinking. The EBacc (English Baccalaureate) has been introduced by the government into the examination system; among its new measures is a change in the place of history on the curriculum (DfE, 2019). In England, the key problem in education has been viewed as low attainment in core school subjects by the policymakers and politicians, when compared to international competitors (Maguire, 2017). The introduction of EBacc has caused a rise in the number of students studying history (JCQ, 2016). Although, in theory, this seems like a positive outcome, it can also be the cause of the decrease in educational quality if history departments are not ready for these additional students both in terms of school resources and teacher workload. Sarah's observations in the interviews emphasised this possible issue.

Working with an increased number of students may lead history departments to adopt a relatively easier and less extended curriculum with more exam-based preparation to improve positions in the league tables, as Snyder and Fisk (2016) stated. For instance, social cognitive theory argues that when teachers work with students who are not expected to be successful, they tend to expend less effort on preparing and teaching structured and well-developed lessons, and in the case of any single difficulty, they may give up easily (Snyder & Fisk, 2016) as was the case with Ellie, Sarah and Audrey. The teachers' beliefs about their students impacted their professional attitudes in the classroom, I accordance with the suggestions of Biesta *et al.* (2015). Audrey, for instance, said that her current students would not be able to undertake complex historical thinking activities successfully, because of their low abilities and the lack of parental support. That was her reason for adopting 'only very core areas' of historical thinking, although she used to teach historical thinking more extensively in her previous schools.

7.4.2.3. Professional Development

The final aspect that impacted on teacher decisions was their involvement in professional development activities. The difference between the teachers' professional development activities was one of the most notable factors affecting their engagement with historical thinking. This study, therefore, has emphasised indications that a teacher's confidence can be significantly increased by professional development activities such as professional collaborations, coaching and mentoring programmes and other sources of support (e.g., conferences, associations, social media), as several studies in the literature have argued previously (e.g., Batt, 2010; Coldwell, 2017; Moussay *et al.*, 2011). Seixas (1993) recommends that history teachers should be integrated into the scholarly community to be able to encourage teaching historical thinking in the classroom. This involvement would allow teachers to stay abreast with historical debates, interpretations and pedagogy. Findings in this research have suggested that two factors were particularly important in their effect on teachers' professional development: their initial teacher training and their professional networks and collaboration.

7.4.2.3.1. Initial Teacher Training

Initial teacher training (ITT) plays a major role in forming teachers' professional identities. Many teachers (apart from Penny and Jack) stated that their understanding of historical thinking and the pedagogical techniques required for teaching it were formed through the knowledge that they gained from their PGCE courses (section 6.3.4). Therefore, this study suggests that initial teacher training/ education can have a big impact on how teachers think about and teach their subjects.

The findings of Tack *et al.* (2017), showing that teacher trainers' characteristic features considerably affect teachers' classroom practices, were confirmed in this research. The influence of participating teachers' tutors and mentors had a strongly significant effect on their understanding of historical thinking and the formation of their teaching practices. For Henry,

for instance, the relationship he established with his tutors and friends caused him to start his career with a personal agenda full of the relevant teaching and learning aims, targets, values, and ideas (Larrivee, 2000) and this network guided, supported, and helped him with upskilling through his career. On the other hand, there are also studies stating that there may be gaps or contradictions between theories learnt during the ITT process and later in-class practices (Koc *et al.*, 2009). Ellie and Audrey exemplified this situation. Their PGCE training was the main knowledge source that they drew on in their current teaching, since they had not continued their professional development. However, they were not as engaged as Historical Thinking Innovators group, who continued their PD for teaching historical thinking. This highlights the importance of teachers' pursuing CPD activities in their career.

The findings of this study also highlighted the importance of the quality of ITT courses, as they are essential in preparing new teachers to provide a sufficient level of teaching, especially when they appear to be the only available source of professional knowledge. This can, however, create some confusion, especially since the literature shows significant variations in quality, purposes, objectives, assessments, and achievements among the training courses in the UK (Woolley, 2017).

DfE (2021) recently published a market review report on the current situations of ITT, especially under the impacts on Covid-19 challenges. The report highlighted very critical areas where strong and efficient developments are needed. For example, the report stated that "few partnerships had a sufficiently ambitious curriculum, including on subject-specific content, and some instances where partnerships did not work closely enough to ensure effective and integrated curriculum delivery". DfE (2021) also found that, too often, "curricula were underpinned by outdated or discredited theories of education and not well enough informed by the most pertinent research and concluded that the ITT sector must now develop stronger and

more ambitious curricula". These problems seemed to be very worrying since the place and value of ITT courses were found to be very influential on teachers' identities and practices in the context of this research. More importantly, however, this research revealed a strong need for subject specific training within initial teacher education. In this case, the current climate, in which ITT is being driven towards a focus on genericism, can be seen as an obstacle to progress (Burn, 2021). If teachers are to be expected to teach historical thinking or to have the powerful knowledge that they need to work with the substantive, syntactic, and procedural aspects of history, more attention needs to be paid to providing such subject specific training in initial teacher education (Burn, 2021).

7.4.2.3.2. Teachers' Network

The findings of this research highlighted the fact that teachers' networks and communities (such as colleague collaboration and the wider professional community) are essential factors that increase teachers' confidence and influence and shape their practices to accommodate new teaching methods (Spiteri & Chang Rundgen, 2017). There was a significant difference between teachers with a large network (historical thinking innovators) and those operating in a relatively narrow professional network (content and exam orientated) in terms of their approaches to teaching historical thinking, as Figure 7 illustrated. At this point, the findings revealed the positive effect of professional networks on teachers' decisions to teach historical thinking. But they also suggested how different networks and CPD could influence their professional improvement in different ways, according to the claims of the teachers in the research, the related literature often makes similar claims (Chang *et al.*, 2011; Prenger *et al.*, 2017; and Willemse *et al.*, 2015).

The literature highlights the important role of communication and collaboration in schools in enhancing teachers' confidence and skills, and argues that school administrators should provide more opportunities (e.g., in-school training) to equip teachers with the necessary

knowledge, skills, purposes, and structured activities (Gallo-Fox & Scantlebury, 2016; Prenger *et al.*, 2017), and should allow more space and time for teachers to communicate and support each other (Spiteri & Chang Rundgren, 2017). This, however, was just the opposite in content orientated teachers' cases, and they showed very little engagement with CPD, and their professional networks seemed to be limited to their school networks. As discussed in the previous section, their school settings have not offered them much support and guidance for their endeavour to teach historical thinking. Furthermore, as discussed in section 6.3.2., they are expected to do their upskilling activities individually, and in their free time. In this regard, this study's findings are in accord with those of Burn and Harris (2017) in the Historical Association's annual survey in 2017. According to the survey, sixty per cent of participants reported limited opportunities to attend subject specific CPD events (Burn & Harris, 2017).

Moreover, the findings of this study also revealed not only that CPD opportunities were limited, but that some of those that existed were unhelpful for teaching historical thinking as they were generic and exam board run training courses. Generic and examination based CPD training is a much-debated issue within history teaching circles (Burn, 2021; Coldwell, 2017). The literature often emphasises the necessity of subject specific training: for example, Willemse *et al..*, (2015) argues that enquiry based CPD activities encourage teachers to review their practices in the light of new ideas, to create new classroom practices and adopt them in their curricula. In this research, the issue has been highlighted by Sarah, Audrey, and Penny (see, e.g., Section 6.3.4). Although recent changes in the curriculum required teachers to improve their subject-specific knowledge, the opportunities provided to teachers were often more likely to be in the form of an exam board briefing or generic in-school training (Burn, 2021). Especially if schools were struggling in terms of examination outcomes (as seen in Audrey's school), middle level managers might not be in favour of prioritising subject specific CPD over improved generic exam training (Burn, 2021). This was exactly what Josie and Sarah

highlighted in this study. Their CPD opportunities were limited by practical concerns, and they only received generic and exam orientated professional development training. Thus, their exam orientated practice was not surprising in such conditions. This was also comparable to the historical thinking practitioners' circumstances. Except for Naomi, these teachers were offered such limited resources that their main sources of CPD were Twitter and *Teaching History*: in this respect they were no better off than the exam orientated teachers.

This echoes the findings of several studies investigating the motives behind teachers' CPD decisions. For example, Bett and Makewa (2018) argue the potential benefits of using social media platforms for informal PD activities since they are an easy means of accessing, sharing, and discussing experiences. Similarly, Murray and Ward (2017) found that the free use of Twitter could be the main motive for intense teacher participation, whereas face-to-face CPD activities, such as conferences, annual conventions or workshops, might cause issues such as a dwindling training budget, limited available space, travel expenses, and a shortage of free time (Marshal, Puny, & Skykes, 2008). This was also the case with the history teachers' CPD decisions in this study as well. All the teachers stated that they were using Twitter as a CPD source, whilst only three of them were participating in formal and face to face CPD activities. Easily accessible professional journals (e.g., *Teaching History*) for history teachers and free social media networks (Twitter) were found to be helpful to supplement the limited opportunities provided for history teachers' CPD activities, as only one participant stated that their school provided a regular budget and free time for teachers to designate as CPD time. Although informal networks like Twitter seemed to be helpful, according to the literature and participants' contributions to discussion, there are also points that need to be considered and supervised, such as autonomy and quality control.

Only one group, the historical thinking Innovators, showed enough dedication to pursue CPD activities despite the aforementioned limitations and challenges. All teachers in the

historical thinking Innovators group were keen to engage in several CPD activities, such as SHP and History Association conferences. This may explain why these teachers are more willing and motivated than other teachers to teach historical thinking. Their ongoing engagements with the professional community, networks, and training seemed to help them to move forward and take more initiative in reflecting historical thinking in their practice. As discussed before, whereas exam-orientated and content coverer teachers acted more like technicians who were doing what they had been told to do in their teaching, Historical Thinking Innovators were acting more like autonomous individuals who took control over what they were doing. This may be due to the knowledge and confidence which Historical Thinking Innovators gained from the conference, CPD and similar professional activities that these teachers had the opportunity to attend. These opportunities seemed to increase their agency and self-efficacy. And now, they (especially Penny) have turned into influential people in their professional communities, and become contributors to CPD activities.[2] Such training and activities, according to their claims, positively influenced their subject knowledge (substantive and syntactic) and PCK, as seen in Chapters 4 and 5. Additionally, it may also have affected their sense of efficacy and agency in terms of teaching historical thinking (Biesta & Tedder, 2007), and this may suggest that having close links with the professional community contributes not only to their knowledge but also to their professional identities (Burn, 2021). Therefore, it can be said that there is an urgent need for professional development activities focussing on teachers' subject specific knowledge and transforming this knowledge into in-class practices, since they can considerably increase teachers' professional knowledge, skills, and confidence. However, these teachers also stated that they had to participate in these activities in their own time and without any kind of resource

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[2] The data for this study were collected in 2020. From that time until today, the participants continued their studies and progressed in their careers; this information may not be included in the collected data. Penny has delivered talks and workshops at several conferences, for example, and has a well-known and widely followed education account on Twitter.

funding, in line with what Burn and Harris (2017) found. This can highlight important factors that school leaders, educators, and policymakers should take into consideration.

It may not be realistic to expect teachers to contribute to such activities in their own time and without support and funding. As we have seen, the content coverer and exam orientated teachers eventually abandon them in favour of the most accessible, albeit limited, resources (Sarah and Josie), or they do only the things that are necessary and obligatory (Ellie and Audrey) in the absence of necessary guidance, funding, and time. Otherwise, the risk of having teachers who are too distant from CPD and, thus, who offer "inert information about the past rather than engage them in tackling historical problems, while those who have opportunities for closer interaction will be able to see (and share with their pupils) the ways in which historians' questions and interpretations are responding to current concerns can be expected" (Burn, 2021:130).

The data also showed that mentoring could be beneficial for experienced teachers as well as for new teacher candidates. Rapid changes in the educational landscape require teachers to stay updated to expand their subject knowledge and raise their pedagogical standards (Bubb, 2004). Therefore, there is a need for teachers to be constantly upskilling. Staying in touch with the educational landscape helps teachers to develop new expertise, improve their existing knowledge, receive strong support, and have access to new educational structures (Collinson *et al.*, 2009; Desimone, 2011). In this study, the historical thinking Innovators formed the only group whose entire membership had the opportunity to work as mentors for initial teacher education courses, and this was found to be very influential and helpful for their teaching of historical thinking, providing benefits such as knowledge about new ideas and approaches (section 6.3.4). Their confidence and willingness to engage historical thinking was also supported by interactions with student teachers and opportunities to 'keep in touch' with the wider history education community through university mentor meetings, as Woolley (2017)

also argued in her Ph.D. thesis. Additionally, this was extremely beneficial for long-serving teachers, such as Penny and Jack, by connecting them with new theories that they could link to their daily teaching practices. There was a significant difference between the mentors described by the teachers in the sample when they were recollecting their own teacher training and their own experience as mentors. Jack and Penny, for example, considered themselves as completely independent from their mentors and regarded their own approach as very different from the training they had received ten years previously. As I argued before, history teachers' opportunities for connecting to professional communities of practising historians could be very restricted. Therefore, interactions with university courses and tutors might be one of the very last remaining links connecting many of the teachers with the wider subject-specific communities and discourses (Woolley, 2017).

7.5. Conclusion

The findings showed that history teachers shared a common knowledge and understanding of the concept of historical thinking. However, their historical thinking teaching practices differed from each other. This difference was found to be derived from their way of applying PCK to their classroom practices. Moreover, the results revealed that the difference in their practices did not arise merely from differences in the teachers' professional knowledge: their personal characteristics (e.g., individual agency, self-efficacy, professional beliefs and dedication, willingness to change) and external circumstances (e.g., professional development and school contexts) were influential in this process. Based on these factors, the study identified four different types of teacher approaches to the manifestation of agency in teaching historical thinking. In the content-orientated and exam-orientated groups, the teachers whose beliefs were fixed by their early negative and inhibiting experiences (Ellie and Audrey) or those who faced dissonance and conflict between their professional beliefs and current teaching practices (Josie and Sarah) have also been restricted by their contextual circumstances and could not engage

with historical thinking in the ways they intended. Historical thinking Practitioners and historical thinking Innovators were found to have more opportunities, including a wider range of sources of information or stimulus such as participation in CPD programmes, collegial conversations and collaborations, and wider networks within the field (Murray & Ward, 2017), to improve their subject specific knowledge and skills in teaching historical thinking. In the long term, this may have also improved their internal domains (although *vice versa* is also possible) as this new knowledge will require changes in their teaching and attitudes (agency) and provide a better sense of confidence (self-efficacy) (Priestley *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, in contrast to the content-orientated and exam-orientated teachers, who devote more effort to overcoming issues such as accountability, content-heavy curricula, and limitations on the time allowed for history in schools, they were more able to apply their beliefs to their classroom activities. Thus, according to this study, they were able to act with greater agency when teaching historical thinking.

8. CONCLUSION

8.1. Introduction

This research aimed to explore the expertise of history teachers in England in teaching historical thinking. Chapter 1 introduced the research and provided a national and international context where the concept of historical thinking was introduced. Chapter 2 provided a review of the literature in relation to the purposes of history teaching, the knowledge bases of teachers' learning and practices and the factors affecting teachers' decision-making processes. In this context, teachers' individual and ecological agency, their sense of self-efficacy, professional and personal beliefs, values, and attitudes were addressed as the theoretical ideas underpinning the study.

Chapter 3 displayed the ontological and epistemological positioning and explained the study's designs by introducing and explaining the data collection tools. For this qualitative research, constructivist and interpretivist research paradigms have been utilised. The research was mainly influenced by the theory which claims that reality can be socially, culturally, and historically constructed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This study aimed to explain not only what history teachers thought about teaching historical thinking, but also why they thought so. These aims naturally shaped the decision to investigate their philosophical belief systems and, consequently, tools which would allow exploration of history teachers' thinking from different perspectives are utilised. In addition, it was important to explore and understand the reasons why history teachers might adopt different attitudes to teaching historical thinking. As Scotland (2012) states, a group of people growing up in similar circumstances may have different interpretations of their realities. This naturally led to the adoption of social constructivism, which accepts that people's social reality depends on their feelings in their specific environment and their general understanding of themselves (Jackson & Klobas, 2008). The data analysis

processes, therefore, involved the interview data, schemes of work and mind maps, which were also explained in detail in Chapter 3 to ensure the quality of the research.

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 presented the findings for each research question, and Chapter 7 provided a discussion of the findings by considering the relevant literature and theoretical ideas. This chapter now restates the research questions and give answers to them. Afterwards, the contributions to knowledge, practical implications, and limitations of this study will be identified.

8.2. Contribution to Knowledge

This research contributes to knowledge by:

1. ***Providing insight into how history teachers conceptualise and understand historical thinking in the English history teaching context by examining the similarities and differences in how the term is defined.*** As the concept of historical thinking has been one of the topics that has gained considerable attention in history teaching for two decades (Lévesque & Clark, 2018), sharing new and updated data on this highly popular and valuable research area can make an important contribution to our knowledge. Lévesque and Clark (2018) outlined an English model of historical thinking in their research, stating that the longitudinal theoretical and curricular studies constituted a more disciplinary approach to teaching historical thinking. Although Lévesque and Clark's (2018) study is one of the main sources of the theoretical framework for this research, it does not give a consideration to what the history teachers in England think about historical thinking, and how they actually teaching it. The findings of this research also provided a detailed data regarding how history teachers in England conceptualise the place of historical thinking in the national curriculum, education policies, and examinations, and how they respond to the demands of these elements. Therefore, this study contributes to knowledge by providing in-depth data on the ideas, values, and practices of history teachers who are responsible for implementing

the curriculum and teaching the relevant theories. Additionally, these data allowed me to categorise history teachers based on their understanding of the term and how they approached it in their teaching: these categories are innovators, practitioners, exam-oriented teachers, and content coverers. These categories offer new perspectives for the curriculum and policymakers as well as educators. This will be an important contribution because the quality of students' educational outcomes depends heavily on the quality of teachers' knowledge and expertise in the area; therefore, it is vitally important for the curriculum designers and policy makers to understand what influences teachers' conceptualisations and abilities (Soine & Lumpe, 2014). So, if the aim is to teach historical thinking to students, it is essential to develop teachers' ability to teach it, which means that it is necessary to identify the factors hindering teachers from being innovators or strong practitioners. It is important to know that there are different types of teachers and to articulate these differences, which can contribute to further understanding of why differences exist, how they shape teachers' practices, and what makes teachers fit into these different categories (Postholm, 2012). The answers to these questions will be helpful in training, supporting, and guiding teachers in a way that enables them to achieve the required standards of educational quality. If the educational aim, considering all the current debates about developing an educational system which is student-centred (Lévesque & Clark, 2018), critical, innovative, and inclusive (Husbands et al., 2004), is to have teachers who avoid being just content coverers, this research (although it is small-scale) can provide some suggestions for further research. Therefore, the results of this can contribute to curriculum designs, enhance teacher training programs, inform educational policies, and educational research.

2. **Examining the different teacher knowledge bases and establishing the relationship between these bases and the degree of engagement in teaching historical thinking**

makes another contribution to our knowledge. Again, four categories emerging in this study revealed e different kinds of teachers' practice by showing whether they focussed on content teaching, exam preparations and achievements, following the curriculum, or making their own curriculum by meeting their educational aims and objectives. This shows that a combination of different knowledge bases may lead to specific outcomes. This can be considered as interesting and new in the literature and raises several questions. First, how we can encourage teachers to improve their knowledge, and subsequently apply various knowledge bases to their practice is worthy of deeper study. It has been seen that teachers may adopt secure, tested, guaranteed teaching methods and strategies in a performativity culture, regardless of how knowledgeable they are about their subject and pedagogy (Ni Riordain et al., 2017; Wilkins, 2011). The 'content orientated' teachers showed considerably less diverse knowledge of pedagogy, and it affected their PCK about teaching historical thinking. However, there was no considerable gap between 'exam-orientated' teachers and practitioner teachers in terms of their level of professional knowledge. The difference seemed to come from their decisions about which type of knowledge to prioritise and apply while delivering their curriculum. Thus, the second important question can be whether all history teachers will use diverse teaching in terms of substantive and pedagogical knowledge to shape their practices. How history teachers can be encouraged to adopt such teaching will be the subject of important further study. In this research, the teachers who could effectively apply various knowledge bases in their practices differed from the other teachers in terms of their subject-specific development through their in-service careers. This highlights the importance of subject-specific teacher development and subject-specific in-service teacher training.

3. **Developing a sense of understanding of teacher agency.** By considering the relationship between external factors (i.e., accountability, performativity, CoP, and network) and

internal factors (i.e., beliefs, values, efficacy, purposes), it has been possible to understand some of the factors that hinder or support professional growth in the current educational climate amongst history teachers in England (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). This study found that within a performative system (Wilkins, 2011), teachers tended to respond in different ways, as it suggested four categorisations in which teachers manifested their agency in teaching historical thinking. The reason behind these different responses seems to be related to strong and interrelated relationships between teachers' individual mechanisms and external contexts (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). As several studies (Batt, 2010; Coldwell, 2017; Sancar *et al*., 2021) suggested before, although some external mechanisms (i.e., accountability, workload, time issues etc.) negatively impacted some teachers' professional development, some teachers were able to detach themselves from these negative factors and focus more on aligning with their internal systems (i.e., beliefs, values, purposes) thanks to positive external contexts (such as supportive and collaborative working environments and sustainable relationships with their professional community of practices). This study, therefore, suggests thinking further about how a culture of supporting teachers to help them to reach their personal goals can be established if the aim is to have more teachers acting as agents of change, as the relevant literature has previously argued (e.g., Chang *et al*., 2011; Willemse *et al*., 2015). And, as will be outlined later in this section, this effort needs to be made by ITT providers, policymakers, school leaders, and teachers themselves. This again may show that teacher agency is not a gift residing naturally inside the teachers; instead, it is more likely to be an outcome of a process which demands systematic support, guidance, and effort both internally and externally.

4. **Considering the impact of teacher professional development.** The literature review chapter provided a theoretical perspective suggesting that professional development opportunities could be a precursor to developing teachers' beliefs and attitudes in order to

change their teaching practices (Desimone, 2009; Kramer & Engestrom, 2019). Similarly, the impact of professional learning (or development) in this study suggested a cyclical or iterative process in which external inputs, such as CPD conferences, professional networks or guidance, led to changes in teachers' beliefs, motivations, level of efficacy and attitudes, and subsequently to changes in teachers' practices (teacher agency); a cycle in which teachers' internal motivations (i.e., beliefs, values, purposes) prompted them to consciously seek such activities and support to improve themselves is also possible, according to the dynamics of this research. For the participants in the research, both scenarios were applicable, therefore there is no clear answer as to where this cyclical process starts, i.e., being driven by teachers' internal mechanism or their external contexts. But what appears clearly is a strong relationship between these factors and teacher growth (Sancar *et al*., 2021). It was also evident in this study that professional development motivates teachers to enhance their individual features (e.g., their agency and self-efficacy) and improve their teaching of historical thinking. Investing in more studies which explore teachers' professional development would be beneficial: the findings in this study suggest a need for subject-specific development. The teachers who were found to be innovative were strong professionals, who had experienced subject-specific professional development interventions, which were critical for their achievements. According to the current debates on the relative merits of generic or subject-specific approaches to teacher professionalism (Burn, 2021), this study can highlight the importance of providing subject-specific pre-service and in-service teacher training if our aim is to develop more innovatory teaching.

8.3. Implications of the Research

By providing insights into history teachers' experiences and concepts of teaching historical thinking, their professional knowledge, and the external and internal factors affecting their engagement in historical thinking, this research may have implications for ITT providers,

people designing and delivering ITT courses, school leaders, and history teachers themselves, as listed below:

- In terms of the implications for ITT providers, knowing that history teachers' understanding of the subject could vary widely, even in a similar educational context, will be important to considerations about how we can best prepare teachers to teach historical thinking. In recent years, ITT has had a generic-driven tendency (Burn, 2021). However, as other studies in the literature suggested before (Ni Riordain *et al.*, 2017), the findings of this research also highlight a strong need for subject-specific training within initial teacher education. Additionally, the findings of the research data show that initial teacher training (ITT) plays an important role in shaping teachers' professional identities. It is therefore recommended that teacher training courses should have a big impact on teachers' conceptualisation of important educational concepts and aspects. This is also discussed by Guberman and Mcdossi (2019), who indicated that teacher educators had a huge impact on teachers' professional identity and development. Although teacher candidates may develop in different ways thereafter (mostly because of their adjustments to conditions in the schools where they are placed), ITT courses are among the contexts where teachers start to reconsider and develop their professional identities (Guberman and Mcdossi (2019). This study found that most of the teachers found their PGCE courses and trainers very influential on their ideas about historical thinking. They end up adopting very different approaches and practices after starting their career due to the contextual issues (e.g., accountability, performativity, student profile, school ethos), but ITT can still be very effective in providing a theoretical foundation of teaching theories, academic debates, and strategies. But teacher training courses have flexible and different structures, so it can be expected that they will have different emphases. Even so, it may not be easy to ensure that all candidate history

teachers will receive similar quality training which covers all important parts of history teaching (i.e., comprehensive substantive knowledge, historical thinking, ideas about diversity, equality, and justice etc.). Most of the teachers in this study were trained in the same university which made it difficult to see the impact of such training differences in their discussions. However, one teacher received training in another university, and the training of two teachers was older than the rest of the teachers. These two teachers' discussions suggested their initial training was not very effective in terms of teaching historical thinking. Despite this, these teachers declared that they overcame this issue by continuing their professional learning (see, Chapter, 6.3.4.). There is no certainty that all history teachers will follow professional development opportunities, bearing in mind that in this study that there were several teachers who seemed more isolated and reliant on their knowledge from ITT courses. But it is certain that all teacher candidates will receive training in order to become qualified teachers. Therefore, this training appears to have a crucial role in for preparing teachers and equipping them with all key and necessary knowledge and skills possible. Reflecting on such standards as quality, similarity or difference, as the focus of teacher training courses is an important area. As it stands at present, teachers can get their qualifications through teacher education/training programmes at educational institutes, works-based teacher education/training programmes, or private qualification providers. Thus, working on how all these different training programmes can provide equally well-designed programmes for all teacher candidates is an important area for further research.

- Universities/institutes of education/schools/departments should offer opportunities for teachers to help them to develop skills through school-university collaboration. The evidence from this research emphasises that teachers who have contacts and interaction with universities and teacher trainers were more confident, motivated, and open to

engaging with historical thinking and shaping their teaching system with new methods and ideas. Especially, teachers' engagements with ITT providers' mentor training were found to be very beneficial, especially for teachers whose training was relatively outdated or who felt disconnected from the field or had lost motivation. The meetings and discussions with teachers, trainers, and student teachers were helpful to rekindle their motivation and to encourage them to analyse their teaching and to link them with new ideas and theories. Additionally, teachers could also provide some benefits for both educators and student teachers by providing insight and experiences from the school and real classroom conditions and by building bridges between theory and practice. Mentoring and school partnerships are part of the existing system, but the evidence gathered from this study re-emphasises the benefits of creative partnerships and collaborations between schools and universities for the benefit for all parties.

- In terms of the implications for schools, findings also revealed that teachers who showed less engagement in teaching historical thinking were more isolated and were working in less collaborative environments. Thus, it could be said that a collaborative and supportive atmosphere in schools and history departments is one of the key determinants for teachers' professional growth and success. Then answering some questions such as how more collaboration between teachers could be fostered or how a space for teachers to engage their collective imaginations could be provided for the greater good and success in teaching would make helpful contributions for future studies. The evidence from this research provides some examples of how head of departments (HoD) can felicitate change (Chapter 6.2.1.) by providing a dynamic environment where teachers feel supported and confident with new approaches. Therefore, middle-leaders could be influential in teachers' professional learning, and they could help and encourage teachers to be autonomous and confident by supporting their professional growth,

supplying educational resources, and creating opportunities (time and resource) for their CPD activities. So, this implies that the beliefs, values, and attitudes of middle leaders who lead and influence their departments is important. Therefore, supporting and guiding these leaders' professional agency in order to help them to establish a dynamic and collaborative working environment could help other teachers as well. Taking such responsibilities for teachers` professional development could be mutually beneficial (for the school, departments, and students) as it would have an impact on educational outcomes. Working in dynamic and supportive departments can positively encourage teachers to try new resources, curricular, and extracurricular ideas, which would lead them to adopt more progressive and innovative teaching strategies. Arranging teachers` hours and workload in a way that gives them time and space to reflect on their teaching, to meet, share, observe and interact with colleagues and their further professional networks would improve the quality of their teaching. This can also be beneficial to reduce the stress and pressures coming from the accountability and performativity culture especially in recent times with the impact of Covid19 pandemic. Having such opportunities during their teaching can equip history teachers with skills to become independent, confident, and reflective.

- Another aspect that schools should consider is to what extent they send history teachers on types of training. The evidence gathered from this study is that teachers should have access and entitlement to subject-specific training opportunities. However, who should be responsible to provide and entitle such trainings seemed is problematic. Schools may have challenges in providing time and resources for such training opportunities. Sending teachers to professional training events could be an issue for schools as they need to cover all the expenses such as travel, registration, and cover work, and such issues could prevent schools from encouraging their staff to attend subject-specific training.

Although in this research, some schools appeared to send their staff to either conferences or to provide in-school training workshops and courses, they are either exam-specific or generic based. But some teachers (especially Josie and Sarah) stated that those conferences or training courses have not had any impact on their practice for teaching historical thinking (Section, 6.3.4.). And this highlights, one more time, the importance of subject-specific support and development. So, the important question is how many schools would be able to pay for teachers to attend subject-specific conferences such as HA or SHP conferences. Thus, taking responsibility for providing opportunities for professional training would be essential for all parties such as education authorities, associations, schools, or institutes. The Historical Association, for example, runs several workshops and fellowships, but unfortunately in limited numbers. So, considering how the number and capacity of these networks and communities could be increased would be beneficial. Schools may send their staff to attend such training and events, but attending these activities once or twice may not effect a significant change for teachers. Thinking about sustained engagement, therefore, would be essential. This study, however, indicates that teachers who are considered to be innovators commented on how their engagement with such training helped them to improve their teaching, but also observed that they had to cover those activities by themselves without any support. Therefore, the extent to which this is sustainable and inclusive of other teachers is debatable. But if the aim is to help more teachers to move forward in their teaching, it is recommended that a sustainable and expandable supporting culture should be established.

- In addition to educational authorities, associations, institutes, and schools, teachers themselves can take some responsibility and seek opportunities to enhance their professional learning. First, this study finds that contributing to ITT mentorship

programmes is beneficial for teachers. Four teachers (Penny, Jack, Henry, and Naomi) debated how re-involvement in the academy through these programmes helped their professional growth (Chapter 6.3.4.). Three of them were grouped as innovators, which shows the significance and benefit of working with the history educators and trainee teachers for their professional growth. Further studies can be helpful to explore the impact of these programmes on teachers' practice and development. There are several teacher networks, such as the teacher community on Twitter. This study finds that teachers benefit considerably from Twitter as part of their CPD activities. Twitter has allowed them to be part of a new type of social network. This provides a unique experience that enables teachers to interact and collaborate professionally with colleagues in other institutions as well as those in their own communities. Such platforms are beneficial as they are easily accessible free places where teachers can help each other, and thereby encourage more teachers to attend and contribute. However, the need for some elements of quality control in these platforms should not be ignored. Finally, this study suggests that, even though there are multiple issues and challenges that teachers are expected to overcome, they are nonetheless the key people when it comes to making changes in their practice.

8.4. Limitations of the Research

As with all research, the current study is not without limitations. Therefore, I have outlined these limitations below:

1. This is a qualitative study conducted on a small scale which focuses primarily on history teachers' perspectives. Therefore, the findings of the study may not be generalised to a wider population and may not be applicable to all teachers from the same and different fields. However, the findings of the study can be used as a

beneficial and informative source for researchers and educators about history teachers' potential conceptions about teaching historical thinking.

2. The sample of this study is also another potential limitation. Participating history teachers were identified in a particular geographical area and had similar educational backgrounds. Therefore, it is acknowledged that teachers trained in different locations and with different training providers could have different understanding, ideas, and experiences. Additionally, the research suggests a model of categorising the history teachers. Therefore, it would be beneficial to acknowledge that this is a small-scale exploratory study, and further work would be necessary to see if this model can be applicable to other studies. Consequently, the findings of this study may not be suitable for demonstrating generalisations within the UK context. However, it can still be beneficial to gain some insights into how ITT courses may have an impact on history teachers' thinking and influence their teaching.

3. The data collection process and tools may be another limitation of this study. The data were collected through two interviews by using semi-structured questions, the mind map, and the narrative approach. Therefore, there is always a risk of teachers being misleading in their answers, as this is in the nature of self-reported data. To minimise such issues, I analysed teachers' schemes of work to understand what was on their agenda for teaching historical thinking. Additionally, I explained the process of triangulation to ensure the quality of data in Section 3.6.

4. This is an interpretive study. Therefore, another limitation can be linked to my personal beliefs, ideas, and values. Interpretivism usually allows much room for the researcher's bias or misconceptions, and the data may be affected heavily by the researcher's personal viewpoints (Thomas, 2013). In order to minimise this potential bias, I provided as much evidence as possible about the collected data. In Chapter 3,

I explained the whole methodological process, giving details of the data analysis process in Chapters 3.5.2. and 3.5.3. I also applied the triangulation method across data collection tools in order to maximise the credibility of my research and to minimise the effects of bias and preconceptions. Additionally, my knowledge and experience were also important factors during the interpretation of the data. The interpretive approach requires well-trained and capable researchers who can see and interpret complex social phenomena from the participants' perspectives and present these viewpoints in meaningful and consistent ways (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Since my research aimed to examine history teachers' knowledge and conceptualisations of historical thinking, I also needed to have a comprehensive degree of knowledge and understanding in the area. Although I have done extensive reading and reviewed relevant literature focusing on critical theories and research in the field, there have been times when I needed additional support and guidance. In order to minimise the potential problems that are associated with these factors, these analyses and findings have been seen and controlled by the supervisors of this Ph.D. research.

5. I conducted this study in a different language from my mother tongue. Therefore, my language skills may have been another limitation when gathering the data from participants. To minimise misunderstandings or ambiguity, I sent the interview transcripts back to the teachers and asked them to confirm and finalise the accuracy of the conversations. In addition, I sought support from my supervisors when faced with potentially confusing unfamiliar phrases in order to draw the most accurate conclusions.

8.5. Concluding Comments

When I first started working on this research 4 years ago, I had concerns about conducting comprehensive qualitative research, especially in another country and language.

Although I had a sound and successful BA and MA background, I had a tendency to question my own abilities, and this, in fact, helped me become a successful researcher and education scientist in my field. I have been well aware that the Ph.D., by its nature, is a process involving ups and downs, leading to much self-criticism. Therefore, I relied on self-criticism from time to time. It eventually turned out that I was able to see my own strengths and weakness, which made self-improvement possible over time. At the beginning, being surrounded by many hardworking, knowledgeable, and intelligent researchers from all around the world fed my self-criticism. Subsequently, as time passed, I started to benefit from this environment and evolve, explore, and grow as a Ph.D. candidate in my field.

Even though I had decided what I wanted to study for my Ph.D. by the end of my MA degree, I was well aware that I had a lot to learn about the topic itself. Additionally, I was also aware of the difficulties of the complex and challenging process of doing a Ph.D. Because of my previous experience, however, I was informed that if I studied regularly and if I could be orderly and planned, the Ph.D. process would be a smoothly linear progress towards success. Therefore, although I sometimes struggled to do so, I was able to manage to keep things under control most of the time. Nonetheless, I should admit that it was a process that gave me both enjoyment and much suffering from time to time, but I definitely grew both personally and professionally.

The most enjoyable year of my Ph.D. was undoubtably the first. Both the feeling of freshness from starting something new and the satisfaction from constantly learning something new were very enjoyable for me. Once I started digging into the literature, I realised there was another universe waiting for me to explore. I still remember how I read the theories and ideas with amusement and then tried to discuss them with everyone I knew, regardless of whether they were interested or not. Studying the purposes of history teaching was one of the most enjoyable parts of this process, as it helped me to become more familiar with my own

profession. I remember that when I got to the point where I was learning about the agency and efficacy, I became e totally lost and I had to spend considerable time to absorbing the new theory and ideas. It was very enjoyable to learn, evaluate and discuss ideas such as how human beings learn, grow, develop, and adapt psychologically and environmentally on an academic basis. Furthermore, working with theories (e.g., Shulman's frameworks for teacher knowledge bases) about teacher knowledge and development helped me to understand the way that teachers carry out elements of their professional roles, in much greater depth than before.

With this satisfaction, although it was still occasionally challenging, I completed the confirmation process successfully and concluded the first year of my Ph.D. journey. Ye, I must admit that the rest of the journey was not as easy or straightforward as would have been naturally expected. The main data collection process started at the worst time possible due to the Covid-19 Pandemic. Covid-19 itself and the ensuing lockdowns and quarantine restrictions made this process much harder than it should have been. I was, however, extremely lucky to be able to contact ten very brilliant teachers who were kind enough to agree to make contributions to this study in such terrible conditions. Thanks to their help and contributions, I collected deep and rich, despite the other various technical issues. Beyond the boundaries of this research, listening to my participants and seeing the admirable work they did in the course of their careers gave me considerable motivation and inspiration to carry on and do my best for my own career. I should also acknowledge that I learned a lot from my participants during this process. I remember that, after some of the interviews, I went ahead on my own and dug deeper to understand what they were saying during our interviews. I have even acquired knowledge of several historical topics which I had never heard about before. In this way, it was a challenging, but also enjoyable, satisfactory, and inspirational process for me.

When the data analysis process started, the difficulties arising from the Covid-19 Pandemic began to hit me harder. The most challenging and painful stage of my research was

undoubtedly the data analysis process. Being away from my natural working environment (Ph.D. office, library, and Ph.D. hubs) undermined the process to a greater extent than I could ever have imagined. Feeling isolated from the university and research environment and confined at home made it difficult for me to find the motivation and psychological readiness to continue this process. However, the desire to be a professional researcher helped me to find a fibre of motivation to carry out doing the analysis, to meet my deadline and survive mentally in the face of the pandemic. No matter what, I kept trying.

This challenging time continued until my applications to present at two highly prestigious conferences, BERA 2021 and HEIRNET 2021, were accepted. These acceptances helped me to stand up as they were powerful reminders that I was doing something valuable and there would be people ready and willing to listen to what I had done. These academic accomplishments helped me to improve the findings chapters. I experienced a similar reinforcement of my motivation while I was writing my discussion, from the acceptance of my application to present in AERA 2022.

Now, near to the end, I can confidently say that I was able to go beyond my initial assumptions of a linear and straightforward Ph.D. process. It is because, throughout these years, not only did I manage to complete my dissertation within a reasonable time, but the research papers emerging from this project, which have been accepted on numerous occasions by prestigious international academic conferences, were also significant indicators of the academic value and quality of my Ph.D. research project. It was a process consisting of reading, re-reading, thinking, writing once, re-writing three times, editing and then re-editing and importantly learning. I learned a lot and I have the satisfactory feeling of making contributions to my field, science, and the world's knowledge. The main contribution of my study is what historical thinking is and its place within the current educational climate in England. My research broadly investigated the perspectives and approaches of history teachers towards

teaching historical thinking in order to show how history teachers who are responsible for delivering the curriculum understand and teach this concept. All these aspects of the study made a significant contribution to our knowledge, as it not only produced further information about historical thinking, which is considered a highly important area in itself, but also established wider links by showing differences in history teachers' comprehension of historical thinking, their attitudes towards teaching it, and their use of their professional knowledge in this process. Furthermore, as it was an interpretivist and explorative study, it explored deeply the aspects which hindered or supported history teachers' engagement with historical thinking. In addition to subject matter knowledge, history teachers' individual conceptualisations, motivations, and concerns, such as purposes in teaching school history, targets, and values seemed to largely influence their teaching practices. Moreover, this study revealed four different categories of teacher and suggested possible reasons for the differences between them. A better understanding of the different types of teachers can benefit everyone within the educational profession, especially in the current climate where there is a lot of ongoing debate about the curriculum, knowledge, teacher training, and accountability. I feel very lucky and proud to be able to generate further knowledge through my research and fill the knowledge gaps within the targeted areas.

Completing the Ph.D. was a privilege for me. Thanks to this, I think I am close to the beginning of a new journey where I can start to make a practical contribution to the academic world by expanding my research agenda and teaching.

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10. APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview Protocol

INTERVIEW I

1-) What do you understand by 'historical thinking'?

Prompts:

- why do you think that? Where has that thought come from (from your own experiences of being taught history, or perhaps from your training)?

2-) Would you draw a mind map diagram on how do you go back teaching historical thinking effectively in your classrooms?

Discussion about the mind map:

- Can you explain your mind map?

- What and why you decided to put on the mind map?

- What they find effective? Why?

- Where did they learn about it?

3-) And finally, if you don't mind, can I ask you to share and explain your scheme of work to me so that I can have a greater insight on the purpose of this study? How do you think your scheme of work helped to develop students' historical thinking?

Prompts:

- are you and the department happy with your current scheme of work in terms of historical thinking?

- do you feel that anything is missing from your scheme of work in terms of historical thinking or would you like to add anything to the next scheme of work in terms of teaching historical thinking?

- to what extent do you contribute to the determination of the scheme of work? Do you think is it important to take part in decisions of this kind? How?

- (in case of participants do not mention about historical thinking concepts during the any of the questions above, and then, during the discussion about the scheme of works if they start to talk about it) do you think are the historical concepts important part of historical thinking?

INTERVIEW II

1-) How is your understanding of historical thinking developed over your career?

Prompts:

- tell me about your training and your career development and how that is influenced your understanding of historical thinking?

- what might have influenced your teaching?

- was there anything in your school which really changed how you teach?

- who would you say was the biggest influence on your training?

- have you been on any in-service training which has been particularly helpful for you?

Appendix 2: Consent Form

University of Reading

CONSENT FORM

Project title: Exploration of History Teachers' Expertise in Teaching Historical Thinking

I have read and had explained to me by Latife Eda Kuzuca the Information Sheet relating to this project.

I have had explained to me the purposes of the project and what will be required of me, and any questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to the arrangements described in the Information Sheet in so far as they relate to my participation.

I understand that I will be interviewed and that the interview will be recorded and transcribed.

I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I have the right to withdraw from the project any time, without giving a reason and without repercussions.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the accompanying Information Sheet.

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to being interviewed: _____ _____

  yes no

I consent to this interview being recorded: _____ _____

  yes no

Name:

Signed:

Appendix 3: Ethical Approval

C: SIGNATURE OF APPLICANT:

Note: a signature is required. Typed names are not acceptable.

I have declared all relevant information regarding my proposed project and confirm that ethical good practice will be followed within the project.

Signed: Print Name: Latife Eda Kuzuca   Date: 30/04/2019

STATEMENT OF ETHICAL APPROVAL FOR PROPOSALS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE ETHICS COMMITTEE

This project has been considered using agreed Institute procedures and is now approved.

Signed: Print Name: Karen Jones
(IoE Research Ethics Committee representative)*

                                            Date   30 May 2019

* A decision to allow a project to proceed is not an expert assessment of its content or of the possible risks involved in the investigation, nor does it detract in any way from the ultimate responsibility which students/investigators must themselves have for these matters. Approval is granted on the basis of the information declared by the applicant.

Appendix 4: Mind Maps

Mind Map 1 — Historical Thinking

Historical Thinking (centre)

- Evidential thinking
  - using sources in groups rather than on their own to see what they can learn
  - what can we infer about...
  - Avoiding students just saying sources are 'biased'
  - Utility - more than 'reliability'
  - what is source useful for
  - 2 sources - how much do they tell us?
  - Seeing that historians construct history not using historians as evidence.
- It's an interpretation anyway
  - Holocaust done differently
- Significance
  - overlaps with other concepts
  - don't teach explicitly at the moment
- Causation
  - WW2 - building on thinking from WWI
  - Alphonse the camel story
  - WWI
  - aiming to get students to see nature of causes
  - long term / short term / trigger
  - Timelines
  - How sources as interlinked
  - language example
  - industry fundamentals etc
  - Giving graphs / showing change through time
- Interpretation
  - IR enquiry 'Disasters + trouble' or 'dawn of Liberty'
  - GCSE - why do they have different views.
  - Not much on schools of thought
  - A level - evidence to support + challenge
- Change + Continuity
  - scaffing vocabulary
  - though role/gangster base
  - e.g How Power changed from monarchy to Parliament James I → George III
  - volcano = rapid
  - language analogies (snow = temporary)

Mind Map 2 — How to develop historical thinking?

How to develop historical thinking? (centre)

- Range of Contexts — Local, Global, National
  - Diversity
- Staggering the teaching of concepts e.g evidence thinking
- Sequences
  - With one main focus but touching on other areas
- Empathy + understanding of context → engagement
- Revisiting knowledge + concepts
- Range of activities / assessment
- Questioning — Answering a historical question with open ended task

Appendix 5: Coding Cycle

Ellie Int 1

E: Thank you so much. My first question is basically what you understand by historical thinking. So how do you define this term?

Ellie: To be honest, I think it's something more you consider while doing your training. And it just sort of keep less conceptual the more you teach, I think. Probably because you just get used to it. And the level of questioning that you have to do. Historical thinking, I think it comes more into play when considering your schemes of learning. And I think most of the secondary schools and the departments that I've worked in, the historical concepts have always been a consideration while assessing. So that's how we normally do historical thinking, like we do obviously on a day to day basis. But when we actually consider what progress we should make with historical thinking like causation, significance change and consequence. Sorry.

E: It is fine I can hear you.

Ellie: And things like that really. So that's how I would say we do at my classroom.

E: You were saying what you try to achieve while teaching second-order concepts actually...

Ellie: I mean, I didn't really... I'm not, I guess, I'm not necessarily up to date on all educational sort of debates. I follow a few Twitter accounts, but yeah, I guess if you if you apply historical thinking to sort of just modern situations, it's going to give you a better understanding of them I think. So, if you consider the significance of what's going on now in America and then you look at why it has happened and then eventually consider the

consequences, it will I can imagine it would be really effective in looking at all sorts of events, not just past ones.

E: OK, thank you so much. My second question is about drawing a mind map, My main question is that how do you go back to teaching historical thinking effectively in your classroom? It is basically what you teach for historical thinking. What are your main goals, activities, concerns? What you like to focus more etc?

Ellie: Ok.

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T second order concepts

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. debates - dated

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.F. - social media

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. - H. C.

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Past - Present
H.T. Cause and Consequence

Reply
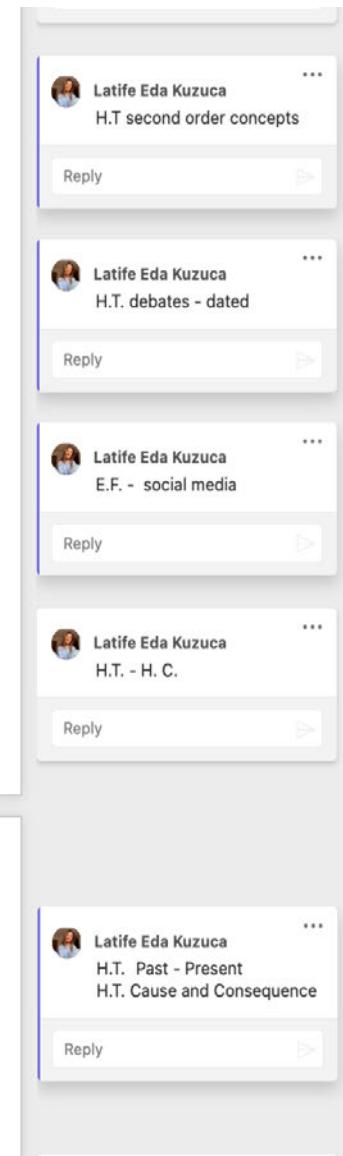
Ellie: Yeah, I got some stuff. So, what I got is, first thing we can do is like an investigative title, a title we can argue and think about put and pull everything together. And then for our assessment- so that summative -informative- and questioning, resources, and card sorts and diamond nine things like that. And long term and short-term planning just in general on a lesson to lesson basis and to sequence, and debating. And sources. And I suppose that's it.

E: And how would you describe your teaching of sources? How do you decide your sources or how do you use them?

Ellie: Depends what level I mean for GCSE I do... We focus on the textbook ones because that's the sort of level that they'll be expecting from them. And for GCSE I definitely use things that is provided by the exam board, but I'm quite flexible with them, like choosing key stage 3 ones. I'd give any of them a go... They are all practical and a good discussion for going back to books, textbooks... Sometimes, I find them online. I use tests a lot for like resources because we don't want to be blessed with much time and sometimes to look at other people would like providing some good changes so that I can use it. So yeah, as long as the source is clear and they (students) can deduce the background themselves, because I think it's really important that they do it not me. And that's a gap that I've found in quite often at the beginning, like they haven't got enough contextual knowledge and can't get to where you want them to be. So, you must make sure that you have taught them enough content and you give them the tools and they can pull out as many things as possible.

E: Thank you. And also, you mention about the assessment of historical thinking, right? I know assessing historical thinking can be really challenging. So, what's is your most preferred method to assess it?

Ellie: We do this with questioning, but like I said, I think it is kind of making reading and then writing something to us, like we give them a question normally when they can argue with and then we can see how much they can do with question we give them like... I don't know they are kind of questions like why or not, which was more significant, the Black Death or (other topic is unclear) something like that. We give them something that they can genuinely argue with. And they know enough about both of them. And that's the only way you can assess that actual thinking skills and ability to argue with the question because you need to know the knowledge behind it. So, like we do it, we give them, we prepare them for the assessment. We tell them what the question is going to be. And then we go through what they could write, and we sometimes plan it and scaffolding it and give them some guidance. It always allows them to show us what they think about it. And, we try to help how they support their argument. Does that make sense?

E: Yeah, definitely. And if it's all then I can ask you my final question.

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Knowledge - Pedagogy

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. sources

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Practice - textbooks - GCSE

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.F. - exam boards

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Key Stage 3 - Flexibility

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Resources - textbooks

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Questioning with significance

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. argument skills

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. content knowledge

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. content knowledge

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Assessment - Content Knowledge

or what would you add more/

Ellie: In the current circumstances... My head of year is asking our work is not diverse.

E: Excuse me you said it's not diverse, right?

Ellie: Yeah.

E: OK.

Ellie: It is very white British history ancestor and the victors. Like there's no room to question British superiority, and that's what I think we definitely need to consider, because it's not creating accurate history in my mind, you can't ask them to make a judgment and consider the causes or consequences of something. We're not giving them the full picture. So overall, like, I think every school I've worked on, including my training schools, they have very similar curriculums like year seven, always do medieval and maybe start the Tudor's... year eights always move on to the industrial revolution, tend to do slavery and maybe a bit of empire if we lucky, and that sort of gives you an option to diversify a little bit, but not really like. And then year nine is pretty much World War I and World War II and the Holocaust. Like it's been the same what I think at all. And I just think we're not we don't allow for them to actually grow as historical thinking because we don't actually challenge any of their views and they don't challenge any of the knowledge we give them.

Ellie: So, in terms of contributing, like I've always contributed, I was head of the key stage three and me and my colleague Barbara and started to redesign the curriculum to try and make it more a bit more vigorous. And it's complicated to find the time to do the reading yourself and get your own knowledge and also doing the planning. But I think most departments tend to be fairly fair and they ask you to contribute. Sometimes all the staff don't spend as much time as you...

E: Yes and I was going to ask you, you said you criticized the curriculum as basically limited in terms of diversity and repetitive in terms of key stage. In your current department, for example, would you like to ask change it. Do you do this kind of works?

Ellie: Oh, yeah. Like, I'm terrible. If I don't like something, I would say I don't hold back. Yes. I literally I texted my department last night and said like, I really don't like our key stage 3 curriculum. It's not diverse enough. We need to be better. And basically, I found that as long as you're willing to do the work, I mean...

E: I'm sorry I couldn't hear you. You said as long as you were willing to...

Ellie: Do the work, like you can't just criticize it and then not be forward thinking and making it better. So as a result of that, I will lose a chunk of my summer holidays probably and look at planning some alternative lessons or even just to amend the lessons that are

in there with a different narrative maybe. But yeah, I think most schools tend to be quite flexible and happy with change as long as enough time is given.

E: Yeah. So the key thing is finding someone to do the work and enough time then.

Ellie: Yeah, yeah, like all teachers. I would say I'm happy to do it, but we just don't get given the time to do it. The expectation is that you just do it in your spare time and the wonderful lessons that take, you know, a lot of effort take a long time today. It like resources and, you know, really thought for provoking questions and planning and it takes time.

E: Mm hmm. Yes, I understand. So can you share me some example of scheme of works one or two would be enough for me?

Ellie: Yeah, that's fine. But obviously I am not in school at the moment. I'm probably going to be what I will be back in a couple of weeks. I can send you the map. We were planning to go. I can send you that.

E: Yes, if you don't mind, it will be important for me. You can just take a picture of your scheme and send it to me if possible.

Ellie: Yeah, that's fine.

E: And I'd like to ask, what is your available time to do our second interview?
.
.
.

E: Thank you so much. Have a nice day.

Sidebar comments:

Latife Eda Kuzuca
SoW: Diversity issues
E.F. - Networks

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
SoW: unsuitable for HT
E.F. : Contextual limitations

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
SoW: Planning
E.F. - Time issues
E.F. - P.D.
E.F. - School Context

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Challenges of creating scheme of works for teachers

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.f. - School Context

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Individual agency and efficacy

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.f. - school context
E.F. - Time issues

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
I.F. - Agency
I.F. - Efficacy
E.F. - Time

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.F. - Lack of collaboration

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.F. - L. Time

Reply

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Ellie Int 2

E: Well, my question today is 'how is your understanding of historical thinking developed over your career?' I mean, you can talk about anything you can like related historical thinking.

Ellie: OK, so I decided I wanted to be a teacher over the years. I thought I wanted to teach primary children. But as I got older, I realised that wasn't for me. And when I was about 14, I decided that I wanted to be a history teacher because I just absolutely like to study a number of the subjects that are super interesting. I started to be like, hey, let's look at history today and every day. So, there's the personal side of it. And, you know, it's a subject we can have a lot fun when you teach it. So that's why I decided to teach history. I'm realistic about historical thinking as much as every single history teacher. Everyone wants vigorous learning and engagement with enquiry questions and higher order thinking in every lesson, but it doesn't happen in reality. Because it's just impossible. Like teaching to deliver fantastic lessons all the time, it's really difficult. So, I think what most history teachers do and what I definitely do, is every so often pull out all blazing lesson with sources, with evidence, with thinking with enquiry and really look for children. Historical thinking is something that you start off, I think, with the best intentions, and then it just sort of gets through in. And it's I don't know if it's a conscious thing or subconscious thing anymore. Like, this is really everything how much do I actually do in my lessons or is it actually just always there and I'm just saying used to it? So, I think what I want children to get out of my lessons is enjoyment. I want them to learn some stuff about our world and our history, and I want them to leave as thinkers, not just a question, everything on those value, not just throw a bias everything and to like form an opinion. That's what I really want. But can I do both? No, you can't just sit on the fence. You have to decide which one you prefer, which ones are more important. I think that more than any other subject, that essay writing and analytical skill is so important in all subjects, especially with that they need to do to pass to a later stage. Yeah, I just want them, I want them to have fun and I want them to get some transferable skills.

E: How would you decide those things? How would you decide what you are going to do, what you're not going to do? What you're going to focus on more? Are there any personal criteria to do it?

Ellie: Yes, and it depends on work it depends on the exam board. It's like if I'm teaching key stage three, it's a bit more free. And I can consider what will be fun. It depends how depends on the course. It depends on so many factors how much energy I have. But it is free. I guess it's free with me. Like what do I think is going to engage them today. Or it can be task driven, it can be really fun, maybe we'll have a go at this. So like murder mysteries. I love a murder mystery. I do one with cholera in the Victorian and Victorian London. I do one on the slave trade such as what killed a slave owner on a plantation. Sometimes it's roleplay, sometimes it's a human timeline. Sometimes lend themselves to be more fun. And there's so much that you can talk about the Industrial Revolution and the machines that were made to make them interesting and choosing the things that are most relevant to encourage their thinking.

E: So far, I understand that your one of the key concerns is making history fun and enjoyable. Then I'm starting to think about the purpose of teaching history. What is the main purpose for you to teach history.

Ellie: I think now more than ever, it's really evident that we can't let past mistakes constantly cloud over our future. So, like, I think it's really important, especially now, to develop and consider how we are teaching stuff like slavery and colonialism. And it's only with the future generations if we diversify our history, that they're going to know what happened to stop it from happening again. Like histories... it is overlooked so much as a subject. But actually, in terms of humanity, it's really important to make sure that we are covering all bases in our past. And like Empire or something we passionately teach because it is our job to teach. Actually, yes, we were a massive empire. We did have a third of the globe, but actually, we were a*******s like... We didn't treat people very well. We took a lot of wealth in places like India and within our empire, like World War One. Indian soldiers fought for us as it happened in Australia, all those places. And it's really easy to look at our history as a country and become very patriotic and one sided. But it's our job to make sure that we show people both sides as well. I think a lot of historians at the moment, a lot of history teachers are pushing towards and seizing this opportunity to make changes into our curriculum to educate the future generations of what our past really is. So, for example, I'm at the process of transforming our key stage three, especially when it comes to year 8 slavery, I can't teach it the way that we're taught any more like, oh, look, here's the triangle of trade, here's middle passage. This is what happened on the ships. This is what happened when they got to the plantations. That's no discussion of Britain's role in that. We one of the biggest slave traders, you know, and it's and it's things like civil rights in Britain. We all talk about Malcolm X. We must talk about the people like Rosa Parks. We had our own civil rights activists in this country at the same time. And I think it's only by teaching history and exposing children to the past, they might like it. I loved it. I loved history when I was a kid and I got into it more when I got older. So, it's our job to make sure what they do know is relevant and can shape them in a way that is fair and. Yeah, that's just really overlooked that really annoys me.

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Personal motivation - Interest
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Personal motivation enjoyment
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Motivation – personal interest
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Acceptences for teaching H.T.
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.F. Accountability and subject
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.F. - curriculum and time
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
I.F. Teacher motivation
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
I.F. - teacher attitude
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
P.H.T. - H.T. activities
Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. - Subject topic
Reply

E: I see. Well, thank you so much. Oh, I just wondering if you go back to your training, how would you define this training in terms of historical thinking?

Ellie: Oh, it was great. It was so solid. It was rigorous. It made you think everything, make you think about how you would be teaching it. But it's so difficult. This is what I think needs to be considered when once you've left your PGCE, you see such a different world and you don't have time to spend four hours on a perfect lesson. And it's a mixture of like… it does come more naturally. But I wish we would give them more time because I think every teacher would pull out the stops more often, like once a month. So I actually think the ███ course and Rebecca's way of thinking and I know well, that's, of course, how is phenomenal. And I think after we left, it got lost a bit. There should be some more CPD time as well to encourage that. And I do think all schools should subscribe to that teaching history, but a lot of them won't. And that's just a budget thing. So, yeah.

E: Do you think you have enough CPD opportunities? And how do you find them in terms of their efficiency?

Ellie: Oh, not much, without a doubt. And I guess they are really important. Yeah, the understanding of first and second order concepts that come from teaching. The idea of actually how to teach something like causational significance is it's really important. And every single teacher I know takes interpretation differently. And I just take the interpretation that I was taught during my training. Like, that's what I've seen. So, that'd good to share and discuss them more often.

E: What is a difference between your understanding and the others?

Ellie: So I mean, basically how they exampled one, each of you interpretation. So we were taught that it's somebodies view of the time and it's the creation of what they view as the time. But the interpretation, from AQA, is that that person could have looked at the time and is writing about it later on. And that's their view. So, for example, in the Nazi element of the AQA course, they choose a gun and a boy who both went through the Hitler and spoke about it in the 70s. That's their version of interpretation. Whereas us through reading and we've used interpretation can be like a film, somebody other than Christopher Nolan who did Dunkerque. He didn't live through Dunkerque. But his research and he that's his interpretation of that event. So that's how I see it, that you don't need to have lived through it, because every lesson of history I teach is my interpretation of the event. So it's every.... ███ has one of the best courses, I believe, and I think it makes a really good caliber of teacher because it is so focused on conceptual learning and it does set you up to do well. But if you stick it, a lot of people don't, I guess.

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Activities, methods and techniques

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca

Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.F. – CPD

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Latife Eda Kuzuca
E.F. – Journals and budget

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E.F. – Budget

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E.F. – CPD

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H.T. second-order concepts

Reply

Ellie: Absolutely...

E: So you said ▮▮▮▮▮ and some other tutors of yours were being really helpful for you. Do you have another influential people or influential events on your mind to talk about?

Ellie: I mean, my history teacher, she inspired me massively and we just had so much fun. And she never, ever really quite realized the impact she had on me personally. And I think my first head of department was phenomenal. She was supportive. She encouraged me in so many ways. She was really sad when I left. And it is about working as a team. And sometimes the team you have doesn't always see eye to eye on that so far at the moment. But my head of department, she just let you be independent. She trusted you. And she encourage you to push outside the box and give me things like, you know, that is more key things. And she supports the one hundred percent and the use of, you know, feedback after observations was always done with such good structure and intent. It can be easy to just rip somebody apart if you don't agree with their teaching style. So I think it did work. So I would say like Rebecca massively, like I learnt how to speak, saying like what diversity resources that we got hit me up five years later and then Rachel was just phenomenal. So and my own teachers. There is my main source of influences. I wouldn't

say where I am now. I'm massively influenced by what they do. I don't agree with everything they do, but I behave because that's what we do and enjoy the journey and the opportunity. But it is difficult because it is who work with shape, the teach you are and that school. And so, for example, the GCSE my head of department, she plans everything and I'm not allowed to stray from it. I have to teach her lesson, and I can't say I'm good with that. But I have to do what she says. So it can be a real struggle, depending on where you are and how you got supporting you to do the very best.

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Knowledge subject Teacher differences

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E: Well, I see thanks. Do you have any plan for future? Would you like to do something to change it?

Ellie: I think the best transferring key stage 3 to key stage four. I mean this year, I need to expand my knowledge of the white British history that I teach, I teach white man victory history. But I've had enough time now about the current events. I can't continue to teach the history that I teach without being more diverse. So I'm going to make a real contract, I have been offered head of key stage 3 in the last few days. So, I was like OK, and I want to have a look at our curriculum and see where I can bring some more diverse figures, events and reshaped the way we teach it. So that's what I'm going to do with the key stage three is trying to make it a bit more diverse. And then the key stage four is learning because there's a lot of stuff I don't know. So I've changed the boards and I'm teaching America, which I have some knowledge on, but I haven't done more in Asia in years. So for me learning about the Korean Wars and Vietnam again, because it's when you don't know something and you're teaching from the textbook, I think it's a bit robotic and you can't split the information like little titbits, you know, all factors or, you know, you're less confident in your teaching. And I think that's a really does show. So for me, next year, it's going to be a learning year and hopefully the year after that will show like some more events and lessons and more fun and just more confidence. But all those sorts of things take time.

E: Yes definitely. So, what's the plan then for this learning year.

Ellie: Nothing specifically now. I should be better. But I'm on a few teaching groups on Facebook. And I follow a few Twitter accounts, but nothing massively. I've never been in a history teacher conference or anything, actually, because it's so expensive. So wanted to attend one of them recently and it was very expensive. I was just like I'm just gonna run out of money. So, yeah, like, I have done like a few Pixel things in the past to do with history. A few management things in the Pixel. But, I just I really feel like we need to be allocated time for CPD, like it's really important and we just don't. And teachers very much expected to just do it on their own back but we are only human, you know. We have given like prepare a period only fortnight or something. To go and look at what's happening in the world of education, that'll be amazing. But yeah, I used to be part of teaching history and then, yeah, just a few things online, but not very much.

E: Of course. Especially when you have to lots of stuff to catch up to consider.

Ellie: Yeah. And it's just like, I've just started a new school as well. Like, if I'm going back to sometimes doing my own show, you know, that I had a bank of lessons and some amazing, some are Ok. And I need the kids and I need the staff and I know what I'm doing. Whereas you walk into a new place oftentimes after a year off, you know, plus new kids, new staff, new spec, new lessons. It's just like, wowww.
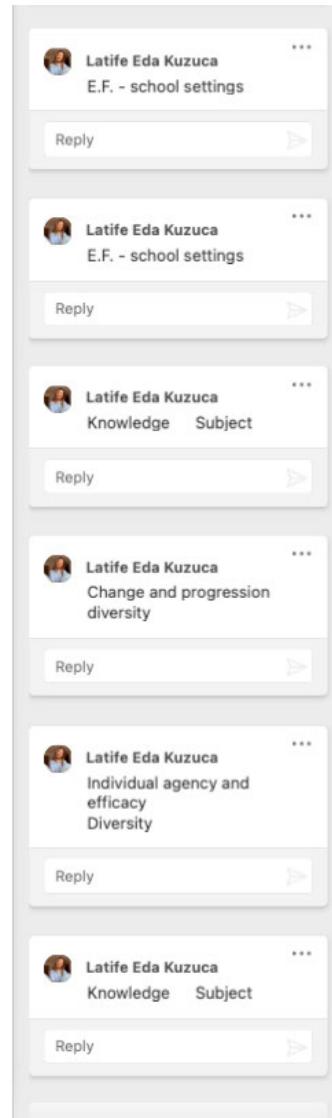
Josie Int 1

E: All right. Thank you so much. I just want to ask your ideas about historical thinking. It's basically what do you mean by historical thinking? How would you define this term and how would you use it?

J: Well, I think... I haven't thought about these kinds of things since my PGCE, I feel. I think the way we have to teach now is so... I say historical thinking tells me more about kinds of skills we use in history and with evidence and also in terms of teaching, try to get the students to recognize how the history went basically the methods of history, try and get that interpretation, cause a consequence, change and continuity, significance, that kind of thing. All forms of historical thinking about dialogue, about discourse and related to their interpretations... I think it is important that making the students recognize it is not just a curriculum or textbook, but where that tends to come from, where they get their sources from and that kind of thing.

E: Mm hmm. So basically, more about the second-order concepts, I guess?

J: Yes, that's well, that's my understanding of it. Yes.

E: What do you think about wider purposes of historical thinking?

J: No not that kind of concept. I think, on the curriculum we have kind of democracy. Those concepts tend to be called expressions of British values. And that kind as it comes in, they are going to say that kind of curriculum as well. And then I widely estimate their social role. But I am not aware that historical thinking as a term could build a wider link into the whole curriculum. I just think about history.

E: All right. Thank you so much. My second question is about drawing a mind map, but .... You hear me?

J: I come back, they start, it's all right. My whole laptop died.

E: Oh, really? Are you OK right now?

J: Hello, yes.

E: Can you hear me clearly right now?

J: Yes, I can.

E: OK, good. Now, I would like you to draw a mind map diagram. It is all about how you go back to teaching historical thinking effectively in your classroom. And while you are drawing it, if you can also talk about it simultaneously, which would be really helpful for me.

J: Yeah, that's fine. OK, let me think first. I was a teacher who find it difficult. Because we have to do these kinds of concepts in terms of the exams at the end of the year. Because the exams have become so challenging thanks to the government changes. We have to kind of stop from year eleven and then put those different ideas down to so that year seven. And so we start to year seven in terms of what history, we do key skills... So we do for example historical thinking at year ten significance we do first read the significance the whole way through our curriculum, using the cards for ours remember the remarkable very great change. And that's the kind we use for individuals and for events.

J: They can start to see why, what impact that we have across history, across time, and they can start to assess why they can't repercussions. That has at the moment significance individuals and events. So, year seven we have a kind of historical skills unit at the start with key people and key events, we also.... (poor internet connection)

J: Because we start our GCSE curriculum at the year nine. So the starts year nine, we do a kind of what GCSE history is, and talk about things like the key we do. We focus on trying to bridge the gap where because our course starts with crime and punishment, which makes sense because year one thousand... It what happened before with a from the key skills, interpretations and now accounts and that kind of thing as well.

J: We also... we also historical thinking in terms of... We have really big focus on interpretation that guess it is the GCSE exam now. They have to use two interpretations in order to compare either different and what they mean that they have to get that. What influences, are they taking sides of the political history and that kind of things. And interpretations we can look at how historians form them, how you can start to challenge them as well. And it is what we do for year seven.

Margin comments (Latife Eda Kuzuca):

- Influence E.F. – teacher training
- Perspective of H.T. Cognitive skills
- Perspective of H.T. Histography
- Perspective of H.T. Second-order concepts
- Perspective of H.T. Cognitive Skills
- Perspective of H.T. Histography
- Knowledge PCK
- Practice of H.T. second-order concepts
- Practice of H.T. second-order concepts and histography

E: Hello. Hi again, can you hear me? Yes, I can hear you right now.

J: I think it is SKYPE.

E: I understand. I mean, hopefully, we can finish it. So you were drawing a mind map and you were explaining it to me.

J: OK, so I can start again. So, I was to think that my approach to teaching historical thinking, I'd be to talk about what makes good history for the students, well, how does a historian work and how he can use how the students can get to grips all those different categories or ideas are. So I have decided, the significance and consequence change and continuity and the other ones, we have the foundation for our teaching. So you spread these different concepts from year seven so they get the idea of how history is formed. Particularly at year seven, we tend to start with a chronological approach that starting with in terms of picking individuals, and how so how they shape science, how they shape significance how they shape diversity. So, students can better be equipped with recognising the people at that time. We introduce very early to year seven. It certainly is the whole way through up until GCSE. They have a sight for each person and event. we have the different revolutionary... far reaching impact and with change. I remember at

that time they come and find me created significance for being quite laid down. So it doesn't seem too challenging to do. They can start to compare and contextualize what is a significant event. And when we do that from year seven in the right way up to year eleven. because, in year 10, we have case studies, crime and punishment we use that to assess what is the most significant, I will say obviously the evidence, is a crucial part of history.

J: So we do obviously the source of evidence, but the same concepts we want them to become familiar with historical thinking about sources and basically not trusted straight away. I think they seem to think they are from the past therefore it is fine. But we want them to engage with problems, to think about why that makes reliable or not reliable using them, we couldn't cope so content and original purpose and language and we are kind of looking a comprehensive, objective, accurate, that kind of things. You know a few years ago my friends... They start to label what they can see in that picture, what questions they have said they can ask them that and what makes a useful source.

E: oh I have just lost you again. Can you just repeat what you said I'm sorry.

J: Yes, I think I said use of evidence. And how did figure out what happened? How with evidence you want to show them, they don't dismiss the sources. So how we say useful and not useful. But if you can learn from it. But you've got to think about why where it's coming from. What purpose... That's the key thing I was telling my students the purpose of the sources. And why are they able to make it? What's your intention and how would you use that to form your own opinion? I mean, anytime you do that with interpretations, because the exams have to engage in, historians' point of view. So, we try and invent that quite earlier. But we wanted to be for many historians so that we can put them out, so you can see the historians and people who write books and then we think, you know, what's that point? And you have a knowledge you can ask to see where they found that interpretation from. I often get to interpretations of history at A or history B and why, what you're going to use to back up that opinions. it is against any kind of statement in history. You've got to support it with evidence of the past and your own context, statements about contextualising it as well as they can see how the history.....

E: Yes, you were mentioning your mind map and you were talking about the use of historiography as historical thinking ideas.

J: Yes, yes. I was saying how... I have used, in terms of interpretations for me very important part of my curriculum... This is actually although I say that we weren't using that until the exams change, we were quite guilty of not engaging historiography as much as we should have done. but actually a positive thing and we use it more. I think it's a way of reapproaching students to engage the further. I say another part of the historical thinking, it's a kind of, we call it a big picture, not just of expression. Our scheme of works have cause and consequence to change and continuity, to explain why things happened or what caused them. It was a person to say to happened because of this, actually what else were going on and how it can link to events.

J: So it's about trying to get past years to think beyond the immediate effect would look at our lessons and seeing how it could be further linked to us. So I think it also helps that. That's why it helps at this time. I think, is so important to historical thinking to have to contextualise things, not see this in isolation but different events into linked... That's how history works and... The ripples that have been different key things, we try to reed important part as well. Even if you start, as I say, we're doing this is how it fits into this guidance. Try to understand why without key things, why it's important and what it's going

to lead to as well. Some sort of I say for historical thinking how it works in terms of teaching our school.

J: So, I think because diversity, it's a skill, I think, we don't want it as a skill and we intend

E: Definitely, have you finished drawing your mind so far.

J: I think yes, it's a bit chaotic, I think. Yes.

E: It's all right. Can you also talk about how do you prepare yourself to deal with the historical thinking? for example, how do you find your resources? So basically, how you prepare yourself for a teacher.

J: So, we have teaching history, so we I mean, again, my colleague and I, we trained together, we have done our PGCE together with Rebecca. So, you know, teaching history articles that we don't tend to read them as much now, I think is definitely influence, I think, Christine Counsell influences our teaching of significance. So, they might be more... not that intentionally, but I think it's just kind of floats specific myself.

J: We tend to try and say, even suggest students what works they can do like what books they can read, the fictional and nonfictional that links the key topics, they get a bigger understanding as well.

J: And in terms of our CPD, we tend to try and do something about the subject. No, as I say, teaching pedagogy the actually more about us like content celebrating. For example, we've sat the American West on that kind of thing. So you have the context more than we do about skills because we tend to do more of our CPD from pixels and we go to pixel conferences. So that's a key group of schools who part of Pixel and we get the ideas of how you can teach history from that, as well that forms more of our understanding historical thinking more than specifically maybe magazines at the moment.

E: OK. All right. Have you been any other conference apart from Pixel works?

J: I went to the SHP conference to see, that was a long time ago, actually. SHP conference, I went to a conference in London to help think about how to push higher and developing students, it was about year eleven. There were one or two conferences, but we've been too specific. I've given training myself. I haven't been to conference recently.

E: And as my final question, I would like to ask you to share and explain one or two of your schemes of works that you use currently. And can you briefly mention what they are and what they aim?

J: Of course. So, we have 4 historians within the department, but one of them is senior ship teams, he does not have to write any lessons because he's got other things to do. And I have got a wider role as well. So I've written wonderful scheme of works myself about slavery on the Romans. And then we kind of divide up into key things as well. So slavery one for example. So, slavery we start with the phantasms, actually Africa before slavery. So, try to Myth buster. Did Africans pull the I will that they all see elements of the conjured up as more by looking at how before slavery and the condition of their wealthy, the head of understanding of mathematics and so students get different process to challenge their preconception of what they think Africa is and then look at the impact the slave trade has had on the continent and how West do that. Then we go on to become a small kind of little passage and then going to life on plantations. But again, for plantations we do interpretation. And so you give two interpretations. One, that life was easy because they get to live with their families of the sun shines with the simplistic a bit. Trying to get the idea of how useful different opinions and the other interventions of life is backbreaking. And they write how they write an essay on which they agree with most.

J: And again, they start to think about how that two interpretations have been formed. So one could be a slave master saying as opposed to interpretations of the slaves and then we look at options we look at abolition. Again, we look at interpretations of that respect and we look at what the most important reason for the abolition of slavery was. They have to look at the evidence and then before they reach that conclusion, so as that scheme of works got a literacy focus in terms of the key words. And that's a consistent theme throughout that and extended writing using interpretations to try to help them stay engaged with sources just for their interpretations then argue their cases, that's the slavery scheme of works. And it has an assessment at the end that's got a lot exam skills to go with it.

E: If you review the scheme of works, would you change it in any respect?

J: So I think what we tend to adapt lot more focus on knowledge in terms of recapping. So I think it is more maybe formative task around to try and check understanding the content. But I think it is about maybe... At the end of modern slavery, we look at how the impact of slavery exists today. But maybe we could further look at how it led to what the impact the abolition of slavery was, that could be another kind of broad. You could go off into the idea of contextualizing it to see why we can give the news this week, given them why there's still such as a discourse around a subject in America because of slavery, abolish the papercuts that could be said. We could add to it as well. Potentially that would be one thing we could do to improve, we did have civil rights scheme of work.

E: All right. If it's all you want to share, I don't have any further question.

J: Thanks again. Have a nice day and see you on Friday.

Josie Int 2

E: Today my question is, how your understanding of historical thinking developed through your career? Feel free to mention anything you wish related to your individual progress about teaching historical thinking.

J: OK, so I guess I probably... although I didn't ... GCSE, A level and university. I didn't... never taught in terms of historical thinking, I wouldn't have used those terms before. I don't think really... I think, in my opinion, teaching history, since I didn't study at a university, I wouldn't... Be taught about discourse, looking interpretations at university, but not really historical. We would use historical thinking. So, I think I probably didn't really... I think it was my PGCE with Rebecca that actually was a real key turning point. There were six of us who did the PGCE and that was three who didn't achieve at the time. And I think those sessions that engaging with the teaching history our skills and reflecting as a group, discuss to get... That sense out, to appreciate the depth of history in terms of subject to teach. And that's that. I think that's the key point for me was a kind of weekly sessions and our PGCE for me at Reading. Once you get into the schools, you're a bit more messed up doing marking and that kind of thing... But definitely, it was all sessions at the University of Redding where we started to discuss these key elements and how they can best help the students to understand and develop the appreciation and understanding of those different ways of historical thinking. I think that's very important to look at how different history teachers are and how they can apply it to their own practice.

J: And then I got a job in 2013, along with ▇▇▇▇ who you interviewed, I think, last week. And so we thankfully trained together and got the job together. I think in our first year and NQT year we definitely were... I think I personally felt that with historical thinking and how we could because the schemes of work that existed there weren't great. So we basically tried to rewrite lots of them, put into practice the things that we learned from the PGCE... So, thinking about how could do... different activities to help get the skills across the unit, how significance can be understood by students, that kind of things? I think that definitely had an impact early on my career. I don't think I'd think about it is so obvious that... I think I do instinctively... Historical thinking... I tend to think about day to day. I think because I've been doing this so long, I probably do it automatically. And then because I'm also head of the year, I guess I have that the two sides, my career and I got the academic pastoral approach of the whole group and the history teaching. So it's a bit more diluted, probably.

E: Mm hmm. Well, you said the scheme of works wasn't really great and I assume you needed to develop them with your colleagues. Can you talk about what was missing in those schemes of works and how you develop them?

J: Everything! So they were... Literally non-existence... lots of folders with different activities. And let's say, for example, it might be the First World War have lots of different sheets, but no cohesion no narrative to whether what was going... So basically stripped it back and what where you got the endpoint to be the scheme of work, what we want them to understand, what key skills to develop. And we basically shared out between us, the lessons to plan and every week that make that an effective scheme of work. So, I mean, now, seven years later, that little bastard, it been all re-worked but at the start... we first started 2013 14, it was non-existent. So it was about thinking you can... How we best teach civil rights and what we want to do, what is really had to do. So we had to that we had to basically take a year briefing of time every half term and put things in place to make it appropriate.

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E: Yeah. Well, after starting your work life, I mean, how did you use your training knowledge?

J: So, I think... I mean, simply I use some of the activities we have been taught...So ████████ and others were teaching about change and continuity, that kind of thing, but more in terms of... So more thinking about the connection between two PGCE to school. The school was more about I think I've read to my notes and think okay how what was change and continuity, how the best way to do it. I read the kind of our sources for years, I like to put them bases term for my planning in terms of the best way. So change continuity, I tried to put my readings into lessons as well so I think its something that would be effective.

E: Mm hmm. Thanks. Apart from your reading from your training, what kind of CPD activities you are doing?

J: Ummm not a specific, you know, I follow teachers on Twitter. But that's not... I think it's a little casual, but no conferences though.

E: Thanks. Is there anything else?

J: I follow a lot of history educators. I can't think of any of the names of my head, but I think I will say that teachers who a part of the SHP network, and I think that's who I, for example, my phrase go completely blank, but I can see this thing. So teachers and tutors who part of SHP network.

E: In our previous discussion, you said lots of interesting stuff to teach, but I realised we missed some kind of activities that you like to use while dealing with students. Can you also talk about them briefly?

J: So I think what I found recently is there's a lot... Because of the GCSE is that changes. There's a lot more content to get, students struggle to read all that kind of thing. So we are trying to develop their reading, give it highlights. So you have the text on one side and questions on the other side they have to highlight their answers for questions. So specifically teach them to skim the key parts of the work in that respect... And also try to do lots of coding. So get a piece of information, break it down and then draw a picture to help to summarize and that helps them to kind of retain the information as well. So I'm trying to get into accounts. So because I summarise and ask some questions, for example the Spanish Armada, I get all the different key events to the picture form, they cut them out, replace the right order, add information to each picture and then link. So this led to as an outcome of this, as a way of saying how it was before and how each event links the next one and this kind of stuff we use from year seven up to a year eleven and what else...

J: And finally, significance is important. So how I that actually do it like a digraph. They are coloring. Five means huge impact part three means that not really remarkable. So these are Christine Councill's for us, but they coloring and radiograph. And how significant is that person can use that quite frequently.

J: Umm,. I say twitter is my biggest CPD resource because I often get a screenshot a lot of things. I could also see what do I have a whole photo of my phone screenshots about what people said. So when we teach the topic for GCSE I got screenshot ideas for a vision and that kind of thing... That's often how I get all items. Is cool.

E: Well, I realised that there is an interesting discussions between my participants… there's interesting discussion about use of empathy, you know, it's kind of controversial to use it. So what do you think about it?

J: So I think it's important but also it is so hot is that because to teach it we've got no experience. I think we did more examples for teaching the Holocaust... we use the ideas that came from... (trying to remember). So this is the impacts, as they might say, empathy. But what would you do, here is a situation? What do you think the people who ended... what would you do? So we did more to show how it's actually... Too difficult to empathize because they weren't in that situation. Like they might say, I would have told the Nazis who they were... Actually... So that's how empathy is important, but difficult to do in terms of the Holocaust. But we all that we also try and get to see things like diary entries and that kind of thing, or reading, engaging in a historical and non-historical source and what their personal reflection is on that. I think it's important to get their opinion on what they think. But I think it's hard when they are experiencing it, but I think they need to have the context and be able to think. That is what needs to be developed basically.

E: Mm hmm. And also, as a final question, can you briefly talk about why do you choose the scheme of work that you send me?

J: Because it is what I made. And so I thought to send this is one of those I've made, I think has got the best represents the things I put into place in terms of ideas and skills and what kind of things we try to focus on. That's why I chose slavery in that respect. Yeah...

E: OK, well, thank you. That's it for today. After I finished transcribing our discussions, I will send you to have a look. And if you'd like to change or add anything, you'd like is welcome.

J: Thank you. Thank you so much. This time was easier than the last time.

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Practice activities

Reply

Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Perspective second-order concepts – significance

Latife Eda Kuzuca
Perspective of H.T. empathy
Knowledge PCK lack of experience

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Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Practice Empathy - Holocaust

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Latife Eda Kuzuca
H.T. Practice Empathy - challenges

Reply

Appendix 6: Schemes of Work Examples

The key skills being assessed are:
- ✓ *Knowledge and Understanding*
- ✓ *Source Analysis*
- ✓ *Chronology*
- ✓ *Interpretation*

The assessment comes early the scheme of work to fit with the reporting schedule.

Key Question & Learning Outcomes	Links to the Wider Curriculum	Activities (inc. AfL, where possible)	Extended Learning
1. **Why are Historians like Detectives?** - To **identify** the key skills of a Historian	**Literacy/Numeracy across the curriculum:** Literacy- key words, description **Cross-Curricular Links:** PSHE Citizenship	*Prepare for Learning: Video needs to be loaded, pupils will need mini-whiteboards for the starter* **S**- Share learning objectives. Show montage from "Sherlock", students write down any characteristics/ skills that are needed to be a detective. **M-** Feedback from starter- identify skills needed to be a detective and then discuss as a class/ or as TPS which ones might be similar to being a Detective. Then pick an activity from **M -** Match the history skill to the definition.	**Set vocab as hw** - Complete spellings - Write a sentence which includes the word etc

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		MP: Go through as a class, students self assess. If many mistakes made they can re-draw on the little one below, cut these out and stick on back page of folder to refer back to. **P** – (long plenary activity) Explore the historian's skills by completing a mild hot scorching task. **R**- Students write down answer to key question on post-it note.	
2. **Why is Chronology so important in History?** - To **identify** why chronological order is important in History - To **apply** the key skill to real events	**Literacy/Numeracy across the curriculum:** Literacy – key words Numeracy – chronological order **Cross-Curricular Links:** Maths PSHE Citizenship	*Prepare for Learning: Space needed for the timeline in the plenary, seating needs to allow for peer support, video loaded, card sheets need printing, scissors and glue needed. History detectives over view sheet needs to be printed to be added to this lesson and in following lessons – print on bright paper.* S - Show "History is Awesome" video. Students to list the individuals they recognise on mini WBs. VIVOs for those with the most M – Share Learning Objectives. Students complete the card sort of historical individuals studied at TMCS to create a timeline in books across a double page under a suitable title Mini Plenary: show next slide with first three pictures in order. Students self-assess their work so far and use coloured pages in planner to show progress (Green = 3 correct etc)	**Due L8** - For the year given in the plenary, research a fascinating fact that happened for that year and present this in a visual way with pictures/ facts etc.

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		EXT: can students add 1 or 2 key facts relating to each event? Independent research using materials in class could also be set for more able students Get students to share their transition projects in groups and add their transition individuals to their timlines P – Complete the chronology quiz before going through as a class and self assessing/correcting answers in green pens. Finally, students should write down what chronology is and why it is important for Historical detectives on the **case report sheet**. *Date cards are on end of powerpoint.*	
3. **How did a Celtic Tribe fight the Roman Army?** L.O To **construct** a narrative account of Boudicca's rebellion	**Literacy/Numeracy across the curriculum:** Literacy – through paired reading and paired reconstruction of story with visual prompts. **Cross-Curricular Links:** English	*Prepare for Learning: cut out cards –. Cards needed one between 2. A3 paper for narrative diagrams. Stories printed one between 2 – HA story available.* E – Students come up with words to describe Roman army. Teacher then sets the scene, differences between Celts and Roman armies S- Students pair read the stories one between 2 and place the cards onto the text when the card comes up M- Students then re-construct the story as a narrative diagram, using their cards. They stick these onto A3 adding arrows, links and labels. Challenge: Can they do this without peaking at the story LA: Bullet point breakdown slide can be printed or shown on board if LA class, to support narratives MP: 2 stars and a wish from partner + time to act on wishes P: Analyse narratives, where did it go wrong for Boudicca -what could she have done differently.	

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4 **Why did the Barons Challenge King John?** - Knowledge and Understanding - To research the key features of King John's Life - Causation- To explain what led to the sealing of the Magna Carta	**Literacy –** Quiet reading, key words. **Cross Curricular** Citizenship, Law	Higher activities p56-61 of Dawson Prepare for learning – S – Use images to suggest what King John did (raised taxes, greedy, lost lands in France). RAG how well they already know the tale. Green could then outline it for class. M- Quiet reading of King John's life. Read with lower literacy group, for more able, key words and partners to support. M – Use the information from story of King John's life to judge King John against some criteria of being a good King by filling in work sheet. EXT – are there any other criteria he should meet? P – Write an explanation of why the barons became angry at King John.	Research 5 clauses from Magna Carta not included in the lesson. Create 5 modern magna carta clauses of their own