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PREPARING HISTORY TEACHERS TO DEVELOP YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORICAL THINKING

Terrie Epstein | May 1, 2012

During the past 20 years, research on learning and teaching history has grown exponentially. In a 2007 review of the research on history education, Keith C. Barton found over 200 empirical studies on young people's historical understanding, ranging in topics from how young people make sense of primary and secondary history sources to how sociocultural contexts and identities shape their interpretations of historical concepts and content.*1* Research in the area of historical cognition has illustrated that for most young people, historical thinking is an "unnatural act,"*2* something counterintuitive to their assumptions about how historians reconstruct the past.

In this article, I discuss four of the most common misconceptions that young people bring to historical inquiry, as well as some pedagogical strategies that researchers have employed to correct or complicate young people's ideas. In summarizing the research, I've also simplified it. Therefore, please take into account these caveats: at every age, students' historical understandings range in sophistication, although older students generally have more complex ideas than do younger. And with sustained instruction, which challenges students' misconceptions, young people can develop more complex ideas about the nature of historical investigation.

MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE

Perhaps the most significant misunderstanding held by young people about history relates to the nature of historical knowledge. Many children and adolescents think of historical narratives as true or objective accounts of the past, with little or no room for ambiguity or contestation. Many see the historian's task simply as accumulating and piecing together evidence from the past, with little understanding of the leap taken from analyzing evidence to constructing interpretive accounts. They consider history textbooks to be complete and authoritative because they're written by experts; similar to other accounts; or validated by photographs—and they often read them uncritically, without raising questions.

When researchers gave young people diverse accounts of the same event and asked why they differed, students have suggested that the authors have limited knowledge, incorrect information, or personal biases. A few have recognized that the historian's perspective or framework influenced his or her account, and that two different, even competing accounts, may be valid. Many young people have determined the validity of competing historical accounts by privileging those that are more concrete, include more facts or details, or are more recently published, while more sophisticated students cite the consistency of an argument or comprehensiveness of an interpretation.*3*

Overall, without prompting from researchers or instruction to the contrary, young people rarely take time to consider their conceptions (or misconceptions) of history. When they are asked to comment on the nature of historical accounts, most consider history to be an objective recording of the past, assembled from a clear and complete body of information. Few think of historical narratives as interpretive reconstructions of the past, assembled from fragmentary, sometimes contradictory traces.

MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT PRIMARY SOURCES

Children and adolescents also have a limited grasp of the credibility of primary sources, and even less of the process by which those sources are evaluated and synthesized.

Many consider primary sources to have greater credibility than secondary sources because the creators of primary sources were "there at the time." Young people also interpret primary sources uncritically, often taking the text as fact or at face value. Few take into account how authors' perspectives or intentions shape their representations, and even more sophisticated students interpret primary sources uncritically, taking into account only the most obvious examples of author bias. Most can barely analyze or critique one primary source in relation to another, nor can they adequately evaluate and synthesize primary sources with conflicting information. And studies that examined high school students' use of primary sources to construct historical arguments have produced mixed findings about whether students can use evidence to support their explanations.

Even when students recognize that primary sources provide partial and perspectival information, they have difficulty understanding how historians make the leap from the analysis of evidence to synthesis and interpretation. Some assume that once there is enough evidence to complete a fairly comprehensive picture, the historian simply organizes it and writes up an account. Others believe that historians create accounts from conflicting primary sources by adding up the evidence for and against a particular claim, adopting the assertion for which there is the most evidence, and disregarding that which runs contrary. Few high school students comprehend the role that historians' perspectives or frameworks play in evaluating and synthesizing primary source evidence to construct historical interpretations.*4*

MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT HUMAN MOTIVATION AND ACTION

Researchers consistently have found that young people possess a limited understanding of historical actors' and groups' motivations and actions. When asked to explain why historical actors or groups believed or behaved as they did, students describe people in the past as less intelligent than people today, or even "stupid." Young people also rely on presentism, that is, they project themselves into a historical period, recognizing that circumstances were different than they are now, but responding to a specific situation from a contemporary standpoint. Students also tend to be very judgmental of historical actors, critically asking, for example, why enslaved people "didn't just run away" or how people "voted for a crook like Nixon."5

MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT HISTORICAL CHANGE AND CONSEQUENCE

Young people also hold simplistic ideas about the complexity and effects of historical change. When asked why things in the past changed, many credited singular leaders or causes, explaining their influence in straightforward and linear ways. This is especially the case for young people in the United States, who overestimate the significance of great individuals as forces for change. Young people also have difficulty comprehending complex relationships between or among individuals, groups, processes or events, and rarely credit large-scale economic, political or social factors for change. In explaining the transformation in status for people of color or women, for example, many suggest that shifts in individual or group attitudes—rather than economic, political or legal shifts—are the driving factors of change.

Similarly, young people think of historical consequences and effects primarily in relation to individuals or groups. They often discuss how processes or events changed people's conditions or beliefs for better or worse, but rarely examine how events like the Civil War transformed the economy, political alignments and social relations. In considering historical causes and effects, older students are typically more capable than

younger students of explaining how multiple causes and consequences have shaped the past.6

TEACHING HISTORY AS INQUIRY AND INTERPRETATION

By reorganizing traditional teaching practices, even in small ways, teachers can provide experiences for students to comprehend and construct historical accounts in more credible and complex ways. By organizing lessons around open-ended questions, rather than definitive texts, teachers can begin to reshape young people's views of the objective and authoritative nature of historical accounts. Questions that require students to evaluate the revolutionary consequences of the American Revolution or the progressive nature of the Progressive Era, for example, encourage young people to challenge their (and textbooks') assumptions about neat categorizations. Students who confront different historical accounts of the same actors or events can compare the questions, evidence conclusions authors drew. Through these exercises, teachers can enable young people to see history more as an investigation into a past shaped at least as much by the nature of the questions posed and methodologies employed as the answers generated.7

Teachers who have taught students to interpret primary sources have had some success. Students who've been encouraged to question authors' identities and intentions have become more critical in their interpretations of primary sources. Teachers also have organized lessons around historical questions, provided primary sources to address those questions, and challenged and extended students' interpretations and syntheses of the sources. These methods have enabled students to craft historically sound explanations and create more inclusive and complex interpretations as they've learned to handle more challenging primary sources.8

More ambitious attempts to challenge students' misconceptions have involved organizing entire courses around teaching young people to interpret evidence to answer historical questions. Teachers also have modeled—and had students continually practice through oral presentation and written texts—evaluating one or more primary sources, and/or synthesizing primary sources to generate evidence and construct historical accounts. Key elements of these interventions included sustained instruction over the course of a semester or year in historical analysis, synthesis, and argumentation.9

Teachers who have focused instruction around particular goals, such as enabling young people to construct more sophisticated ideas about human motivation or cause and effect, also have had some positive impact. Successful teachers have included materials that illustrate the complexity of human intentions and actions. They've required students to reference evidence when making claims about historical actors' thoughts and actions, and challenged implausible or ahistoric explanations. Teachers also have chipped away at students' presentist views of human motivation and action by explaining how the historical contexts in which ideas and actions unfolded make some explanations more plausible than others. Similarly, teachers who have taught about multiple and interrelated historical causes and consequences, as well as the reasons for and effects of large-scale economic, political and social change, have enabled young people to move beyond naming or explaining singular and simple causes and effects.10

While it's never been an easy task to teach young people to think as historians do, it is possible and desirable to challenge their misconceptions about how we come to understand the past. While most may never acquire the subtle and complex understanding of historical epistemology that years of graduate training and professional practice make possible, all young people can become better educated about how history is practiced and historical accounts are produced.

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INQUIRY-BASED LEARNING

Using Scientific Pedagogy to Teach History

Employing the scientific method in history instruction can improve comprehension and engagement.

By Shana Barnett
July 31, 2019

At the start of each school year, I ask my students, "Why do we study history?" The response is usually something like "So we don't repeat the mistakes of the past." Understanding the ethical, political, and social complexities of historical events is what helps us as a society to make better decisions in the present. But how do we promote this type of real-world learning in our classrooms? Using historical inquiry, much like the scientific method, can improve comprehension and engagement.

MAKING OBSERVATIONS

In the same ways that students in a science class make observations about the natural world, history teachers can engage students' curiosity in the human world through inquiry. Using a contemporary issue pulled from the headlines is a good starting point. Consider events that connect to the content, but also pay attention to the level of difficulty of a piece. Use multiple resources such as video clips or images to provide background information on the current event before assigning the article. Curriculum experts such as Brown University's Choices Program, the Stanford History Education Group, and UC Irvine's History Project provide teachers with many free resources on present-day events.

As the class reads an article, ask students to write down questions and make observations to engage intellectual curiosity about the historical roots of a contemporary issue. For example, to start our conversation on Reconstruction, I started with a lesson on the 2017 protest in Charlottesville, Virginia. Students asked questions such as "Why did people feel the need to build memorials of Civil War soldiers?" and "Where are the most Civil War soldier memorials located?"

Frame the historical inquiry as a comparative question that asks students to assess how different groups are influenced by the same variable. For example,

to connect to our study of Reconstruction, our comparative question was “Are there more Civil War soldier statues (variable) in states that resisted Reconstruction (one group) or those that welcomed Reconstruction (second group)?” This type of question helps students collect and analyze information.

Organizing research into variables and groups helps students begin the research process. In the same way they would set up for data collection in a science lab, students recognize that they need to collect evidence for each part of their historical question.

MAKING A HYPOTHESIS

We often think the word *hypothesis* is used only in science class, but historians also make predictions. Instead of beginning a history lesson with a thesis, start a research activity with a historical hypothesis.

After creating a comparative question as a class, each student writes down an individual hypothesis. Since we had recently completed a unit on the Civil War, many students hypothesized, “Northern states that welcomed Reconstruction created more monuments because they wanted to remember that they won the war.” Some students connected their prediction to our current event on the riots in Charlottesville, hypothesizing, “Southern states that did not welcome Reconstruction created more monuments because they wanted to honor their fallen soldiers. Northern states would not want to build many monuments because the North wanted to focus on bringing the country together rather than celebrate winning a war.” Making predictions encourages students to explore historical empathy. How did different individuals perceive the historical event? Why?

By creating a hypothesis instead of trying to find information that proves an argument, students are left to wonder what the evidence will tell them: Will the data match my prediction, or will it show me something I did not predict?

COLLECTING DATA

Once the hypotheses are developed, students collect a range of primary and secondary sources as quantitative and qualitative evidence. Quantitative evidence consists of numbers, typically in the form of graphs, timelines, and charts to show historical patterns over time. Qualitative evidence includes

descriptive words or visuals, such as written documents, images, maps, and video clips. For example, to provide context on Reconstruction, I shared sources about sharecropping, Radical Reconstruction, and the Black Codes. Primary and secondary sources on socioeconomic perspectives and demographic costs during and after the Civil War helped students gain an understanding of the attitudes and experiences of people living during Reconstruction. Political cartoons and historical newspapers also helped students understand popular sentiment during the time period.

To increase student engagement in finding evidence, teachers can also ask students to find their own sources. For example, a student group in my class found evidence for understanding where Civil War memorials are located. Data collection allows students to engage with sources and see connections to their hypotheses. In this inquiry-driven scenario, the answer is a mystery, and students are invested in producing new conclusions rather than repeating old ones.

ANALYZING DATA AND DEVELOPING CONCLUSIONS

As history teachers, we are skilled in getting students to analyze sources and connect source analysis to historical context. I like to use the phrase *analyze data* with my students because it gets them out of repeating what I say in a lecture and turns them into historians conducting what they feel is real historical research.

For example, many of my students learned that states legalized Jim Crow laws during the same time period that many Civil War memorials were built. This context led many of them to ask questions about racial segregation. They wanted to learn more about the civil rights movement. Most important, many of my students began to ask questions about racial and socioeconomic inequalities that exist today.

The use of the scientific method to teach history is an adaptable, replicable approach. Because it engages students in critical thinking and assessment, the method reinforces the fact that the end result of a history class should not be what can be remembered, but rather what can be done.

Lessons from the History of Pedagogical Methods for Culturally Responsive Teaching and Learning

By Sona Balasanyan

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INTRODUCTION

Galileo Galilei was asked by the church to refrain from teaching his ideas, and, as Albert Camus mentions, "Galileo, who held a scientific truth of great importance, abjured it with the greatest ease as soon as it endangered his life" ([1], pp. 1–2). This was a sound example of impossibility of teaching as referred to truths that might not be easily socially accepted or that were not socialised into a given society.

As mentioned by Mangez and colleagues ([2], p. 15), the mandates and professional identities of teachers are historically defined around the twofold task of teaching and socialisation.

In their educational practices, teachers and learners have historically adhered to social opportunities and barriers for education within various social contexts. Application of pedagogical methods has been culturally sensitive [3]. However, previously (within the classic and modern realities) schools could count on a number of "certainties" that were "taken for granted" as to, for example, what was to be expected from a "good" pupil or a "good" teacher, while now the normative references are shattered ([2], pp. 2–3). Currently the "socialised knowledge" is complex and dynamic as are the societies where this knowledge originates from.

In the contemporary postmodern world, the push for more culturally responsive education acknowledges that in racially, ethnically, sexually, and religiously diverse societies, teachers can best educate students by appreciation of culturally defined experiences and understandings that students bring with them to schools ([4], p. 27). It is here that historical development of common or shared educational practices through social construction of education becomes important to see the great difficulty of getting agreement as to what may be the moral content of teaching [5].

History of pedagogical methods shows that boundaries of knowing are set within social space and time. Each time teachers and learners engage with pedagogical methods, they maintain or alter their beliefs and accepted ways of knowing.

This chapter argues and shows that knowledge is always socialised and even the most innovative teachers and learners are the bearers of their social realities. Further, the more they are conscious about these realities, the better they can utilise their educational practices. The exploration of social problematics of historically located pedagogical methods means, among other things, to accentuate what are the social opportunities for the utilisation of these methods [12].

The discussion of historicity of educational practices does not claim to be objective or universal in this chapter. It relies on nuanced and well-defended description of possible forms or examples of knowing and knowledge transmission within classic, modern, and postmodern worlds. The chapter offers one way to conceptualise pedagogical methods by presenting a brief social history of educational practices around the world [6] to

derive lessons from this exploration for possible cultural responsiveness in contemporary multicultural and diverse educational environments.

The chapter applies the general idea that there is a world of social history of pedagogical methods and education is a historical phenomenon, the ultimate goal of which has been the transmission of culture(s) [7, 8, 9].

In the course of the chapter classic, modern and postmodern realities are seen as paradigms indicative for the development of world education. Classic paradigm is characterised by "directness" of world and cultural perceptions, while modern paradigm explicates a scattered reality formed around capitalist or industrial world. Postmodernism is described as an emerging paradigm indicative of world diversity and possible reflexivity towards the variety of past educational experiences [7, 10, 11].

History of educational practices presented in the chapter is a subjective account of teaching and learning experiences [12, 13]. It is not meant to be and should not be perceived as comprehensive. It is rather to provoke discussion on possibilities and barriers for educational practices. It is also to illustrate an example of writing a brief social history of educational practices with the aim to derive lessons for present times of education.

2. Pedagogical methods from classic to postmodern realities

2.1 Lessons from the classic world

Reflections of social scientists on the history of education in classic times frequently refer to geographical locations and ages or epochs: ancient oriental worlds, Ancient Greece, Middle Ages, Renaissance, and Enlightenment ([7], pp. 14–26).

Ancient Chinese and Indian societies heavily contributed to the construction of education in the oriental worlds. Chinese teachers and learners were described as traditional and disciplined. Chinese education was perceived as "well measured and shaped" ([7], pp. 7–9). The Chinese society recognised three authorities—the emperor (or the governor), the parent, and the teacher. Teaching and learning in this society in classic times would normally take place in a room of an educational house. The walls of the room would be decorated with papers reflecting thoughts of wise men. The classrooms were furnished with small desks and benches for pupils and a larger desk and a tribune for the teacher ([7], p. 9). For the Chinese people, it was essential that a teacher should be strict and pedagogical methods adjusted to this belief. The normative expectation towards a teacher was that he/she should be an authority. The school in classical China would not be open for some hours and would not shut down at all: the schoolchildren would be able to come home early or postpone their class or stay in the educational house as much as they wanted. The learners had flexibility in teaching hours, teaching could take place at every moment whenever the learner wanted, and the reputed teacher, in this case, would have an individual approach towards the learner.

Chinese philosophers, such as Lao Tzu and Confucius, emphasised the role of education and knowledge as utilised within society [13]. Confucius mentioned that knowledge is first congenital and then acquired. The representatives of the Chinese society had respect towards people who they believed were born with innate knowledge. Nevertheless, they valued acquired knowledge more as they knew that knowledge transmitted and received with great difficulty required social efforts. They emphasised the importance of pedagogy as far as it enabled being in a society or possessing social skills, and consequently they devalued lessons that would not be useful for life. A teacher who

neglected socially significant knowledge was not respected. Knowing for Chinese people would mean to know things and to act upon these things, to understand socially defined and accepted truths and have own judgments. The nature, individual thinking, and the society were important values on which the educational practices were built. "Shall I teach you what knowledge is? When you know a thing, to hold that you know it; and when you do not know a thing, to allow that you do not know it; - this is knowledge"—said Confucius which is an important call for self-reflection made by a teacher ([14], p. 15).

"Students form a group. They read and repeat letters at loud and write them down on the sand. Two other students write on palm leaves. Another one reads short stories, another one cuts pieces of paper, and a pupil reads the Mahabharata. The teacher occasionally approaches the pupils and answers any questions they may have"—this is a description of an Indian classroom in classic times ([7], p. 11). One can imagine the individual approach of the teacher towards the learners. The school in India was considered to be complete for a pupil when he/she knew writing, reading, and arithmetic. But there was solid groundwork between the instructor and the family of the learner which was indicative of the reputation of the teacher in this society and the closeness of teachers to families.

Through the interdependence of the teacher's and the learner's families, the teacher taught both at the schoolhouse and at the learner's home, which proves the interconnection of the family and education in India. Families invited the teachers to their homes, asking for advice for the child or the learner ([7], pp. 11–12). It is not by chance that the Vedic literature attributed significant importance to teaching being about "sitting next to the teacher". The teacher was seen as a bright man in this society who could discover the truth. Teachers and learners recognised two sources of knowledge—the person and the ultimate foundation of all things.

The Indian society, as a consequence of successful operation of the perceived truth (in its understanding of the essence of things and rational action), considered consciousness and knowledge as basic means for transmitting of socially significant knowledge, for recognising what can be learnt as truth. The foundational value for education practices in this society was in the development of individual consciousness as part of the natural whole where this consciousness was contented ([15], p. 26).

The philosophers and teachers in ancient Greece had faith in human resources and saw happiness in the expansion of human capital. Greece, under the domination of the Roman Empire, first embraced the traditions of Sparta's physical education and then the educational developments of Athens ([7], p. 12).

Music was the most popular subject taught in Greece, while in Rome it was not even taught. The Romans considered the priorities of gymnastics as an important subject and were guided by the principle of "multum, non multa" (the principle of "much, not many" education implies that formal education should not merely introduce too many things but should encourage reflection on culture). In the Spartan society, pedagogical methods were fueling the necessity of continuing education, so that the empire would grow its military influence. On the contrary, in Greece they so valued "just thinking" that sophism developed. Socrates saw the way out of sophism through the development of loyalty and self-esteem ([7], pp. 12–13).

It is known that one of the first models of an educational system was proposed by the Greek philosopher Plato. According to him, the purpose of teaching was to create individuals to perform functions that met their specific social status (as defined by the education system) so that the learners would be ready to fulfill their social roles.

According to the Platonic testimony of classroom-based teaching, the structure of the society could preserve its quality through education. The education system described by Plato was elite with only two subjects taught by soldiers and philosophers. Those who were prepared to become philosophers were selected from a very young age. Greek philosopher Aristotle thought that pedagogy should be directed towards three basic goals: healing of body and mind and development of consciousness. He identified two groups of subjects: those that prepared the learners for citizenship and those that developed their personality ([7], pp. 12–18).

In the Middle Ages, the world history was closely linked to religion and mostly the spreading of Christianity. Schools and universities were operating within the churches and were scholastic in nature. Pedagogical methods were directed to justify religious beliefs. This is one basic reason why afterwards when the religious and scientific institutions separated [16], the way of thinking that was detached from reality and recognised idols was labeled as "scholastic" ([7], p. 136). In all of the countries of the Middle Ages, public education was seen as a threat to society as the "humble" population (the working class) could turn away from publicly owned work and get resistant; hence, education was not meant for masses. The stream of protest beliefs influenced the adoption and development of mass education only by the end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth centuries ([7], pp. 52–53, [16]).

The first university, the University of Bologna, was already established in the eleventh century. Oxford, and Cambridge, Paris and Copenhagen universities were being established and developed from eleventh to fifteenth centuries with major faculties of arts, medicine, law, and theology. In the faculties of arts that later became philosophical, the subjects of grammar, rhetoric, dialectics, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music were thought. These universities were providing elite education of scholastic nature which made them very different from the universities of the nineteenth century [16, 17]. However, the very establishment of universities was to prove that pedagogy started to concentrate around educational settings (and not within houses or churches as was during classic times).

Three forms of being of the classical societies followed each other: theological, metaphysical, and enlightening. In its theological form, the classical society followed polytheism through myths and epics. Then, the scholastic society was concentrated on churches and there was political disobedience [18]. Science and pedagogy before the enlightenment were focused on classifications and dogmas ([11], pp. 14–26). It was the enlightenment era that created the foundations for humanist pedagogy, accentuating critical thinking eventually leading to the split between science and church ([7], p. 27).

Mass demand towards education was growing ([7], pp. 14–26). The world society was entering a new stage shifting from elite education to mass education which was meant to utilise enlightened forms of pedagogical methods.

2.2 Lessons from the modern world

Typical pedagogical methods in the industrial age did not follow the ideology of humanist pedagogy. The educators of the time were often described as "state servants"—transmitters of knowledge to strengthen national ideologies [16].

The major influence that the Renaissance and Enlightenment periods had on the formation of modern society was through the principle of natural equality in education and the spread of mass education.

Karl Marx thought that the type of relationship in classic society was "personal dependence." There was a dogma of thinking and behavior. The fact that the upper class had a privileged position in the modern world was an indisputable and unchanging factor. Such ideas typical to, for example, Machiavelli, were unexpected exceptions in terms of knowledge transmitted and received in the modern societies [16]. From Plato's philosophy to the Hegelian historical idealism, educational practices of the classic societies dominated the educational reality. A widespread debate over the issue of education started in the nineteenth century. Providing free and widespread public education in the nineteenth century was the most important issue for the state policy of the civilised countries [7].

In nineteenth-century Germany, with the advent of the Enlightenment, a new type of educational reality emerged, which was characterised as "ignorant" towards the classical dogmatism and a new society, a new mentality of the German Humboldtian education developed. In modern times, education transformed into a social unit whereby the mobility from one social class to another became possible [7, 17, 18].

Modern societies were very different from classic societies as these were characterised by transitions from one extreme modernist ideological structure to another. Socialist and liberal ideologies were dominating. However, as Toffler said, both socialist and liberalist ideologies were the result of one major capitalist ideology [19].

Did authoritarian forms of sociality collapse in modern society? According to Fromm [19], the social structures of classic society united into one social reality where freedom became "a culture for profit-making". Relying on the Marxian logic, one may conclude that the development of modern society was characterised by the personal independence of teachers driven by their national dependencies. Teaching became a social interaction for raising the price of commodities, qualification of the workforce, and the potential of national capital.

Toffler [20] believed that pedagogical methods of capitalist or modernist societies were directed to preparing learners for factory life. Obviously, the needs of the industrial systems of the modern world were accommodated by the institute of education. Pedagogical methods were designed to teach precision and agility through well-trained mechanical thinking. The state economy was a major value for the modern world. It guided the construction and management of public life through state policies. By the end of the nineteenth century, the appeal of scholars against the social system and modern education was growing. Carnegie said that the worst thing that could happen to a nineteenth-century young man was to receive higher education ([21], pp. 187–222). The modern era, and especially the USSR society, formed and developed an educational program that rejected everything unfit for the concept of state ownership (e.g., talent was rejected). One had to constantly live in obedience. A person used to go to kindergarten in the USSR, then become a pioneer, then get higher education (if wanted), but in every educational setting (openly or in a latent form), he/she was trained to be an "exemplary citizen" and, ultimately, a "subject of pride" for his/her society [20].

From the very first steps of the establishment of Soviet education, the idea of forming a "new type of a person/citizen for the nation" was widespread, as a result of which the main focus of pedagogical methods was on public and nonindividual knowledge and the collectivist ethics.

Foucault believed that education in modern societies, through collectivist-intellectual thinking and state power, was a superficial means for development, but it was in vain at the individual level, and this was the devastating defect of that education [10].

Mass education, especially in the industrial age, became the basis for the formation of an "educational market" and, albeit serving nationalistic and political ideologies, the number of educational settings worldwide increased. The increase in the number of educational settings would then lead to a new interconnectedness of qualitative social changes. It became publicly accepted that education was a personal need. Individualisation of education and pedagogical methods became more and more important, and the introduction of new means of promoting participation of learners in education was signified. Introduction of new measures to promote participation of learners in educational processes (and the shift from teacher-centered to student-centered pedagogical methods) led to massive changes in educational practiced creating space for application of humanist pedagogy.

2.3 Lessons from the postmodern world

Fukuyama noted that the modern age was centered on the ideology of social institutions, and, as a result, societies around the world became either monarchic or fascist or socialist [22]. The modern world was an arena for clashes of ideologies also in pedagogies. In the postmodern world, all social institutions (institutions of education are no exception) have pledged to be liberal-democratic, enabling the formation of new pedagogies for decentralised and global society. Technological advances and information flows created greater complexity in understanding of pedagogical methods and their social environments [23, 24].

The main idea behind the postmodern society was and still is diversity [25]. "Let's fight against totalitarianism, let's activate diversity," said Leotard [26]. The modern world came to an end when this claim was publicly and massively legitimised, when society began to be perceived as the society of "posts": "post-totalitarian," "post-authoritarian," "post-international," "postindustrial," etc. Such a change was conditioned by factors external and internal to educational institutions. All of these factors exist in postmodern society to this day, and teaching is different and yet unified across countries and cultures. Popularisation of education is one important feature of postmodern society promoting the emergence of the so-called knowledge society or information society [27, 28, 29].

The sharp increase in educational attainment in major countries of the world was the first factor contributing to the change of educational practices from modern to postmodern societies. The need for rapid allocation of educational resources emerged. This put emphasis on effective internal management and quality assurance of education which has been attributed to the social demand for teaching and learning. For example, since 1985, educational institutions in the United States have operated towards increase in teaching participation, learning outcomes, assessment of quality of academic programs, quality control with the aim of efficiently allocating human and material resources to educational outcomes. This is a process which, having the same basis of existence but different illustrations, continues to spread all around the world ([21], pp. 187–222). This process increased the power of learners to influence their educational attainment as they began to perceive themselves as decisive subjects for education. Growth in the number of teachers and learners across countries and across educational institutions has led to the perception of teachers and learners as very diverse social groups. This was another factor contributing to the modifications of educational experiences which are to react to the demand for services that would simultaneously accommodate various teachers and learners in different contexts (regardless of their nationality, ethnicity, gender, etc.).

Important characteristics of postmodern pedagogy emerged due to technological advancement. Technologies have been the most important means by which global

economic development impacted sectors of societies (also education). Technological development enabled creation of virtual universities/learning environments and distance learning systems, which naturally created a community of teachers and learners unique to the space and time of the postmodern world. Diversity of educational processes increased. Technologies created new opportunities for teachers and learners to collaborate with other social communities and organisations. Increasingly, people gained public understanding of the fact that they are educated at every moment of their lives. Innovative or advanced teaching methods imply education through modifications that address diverse problems in the society, diverse people, and their cultures. At the same time, it is not senseless to suppose that such complex formation of educational practices jeopardised the very predetermination of the ultimate reproduction of socially essential and socialised knowledge since the focus is on the ways of knowledge delivery rather than the knowledge itself.

Baudrillard believed that the postmodern society should be described as a reality of nonmaterialised symbolic meanings attributed to the material world [30, 31]. There is a crisis of authentication; there is no clear distinction between the real reality and the symbolic reality; therefore, there is no reality, and teaching is directed to creation of simulations. Foucault's portrayal of society where there are no ultimate truths seems to be more than applicable in the case of the postmodern world [10]. Everything (also teaching) is uncontrollable but is still perceived as manageable. According to Derrida, the life of postmodern society is a constant self-representation, and the individuals—the teachers, the learners—are passive observers of this representation [32]. They are present at the societies only physically, but their minds are complex "traveling" around the world through the Internet and technologies which have significantly reduced social space and time [20]. This is a society where, according to Derrida, power is subordination, meaning is meaningless, and therefore teaching is nonteaching—pedagogical methods cannot be easily framed or defined [32].

In the postmodern society, the social space is increasingly separated from the physical space and is accelerated in social time. Globalisation is predetermining changes in educational experiences. Educational practices originate in accord to the logic of globalisation and multicultural practices.

Giddens emphasises that in recent human history, mankind and the society are far more close to each other than during other times [23]. From this perspective, social phenomena are reflective projects that are constantly changing and renewable. Teachers are learners which are freer from social and physical boundaries, so that they are more likely to reflect on what they teach and learn, but this reflection is harder in an increasingly entertaining surrounding of new technologies.

3. Conclusions

Lessons from the classic world showed that the parent and the teacher were respected authorities in the past. The reflection towards thoughts of wise men was accentuated; there was flexibility in teaching hours. The role of education and knowledge as utilised within society, self-reflection, loyalty, and self-esteem of learners was valued by the teachers. Individual approach towards education was accompanied by the closeness of teachers to families and development of learners as citizens. The principle of "much, not many" education implied that formal education should not merely introduce too many things but should encourage reflection on culture.

The modern world legitimised that mobility from one social class to another was possible; however, teaching became a social interaction for raising the price of commodities, qualification of the workforce, and the potential of national capital. Education followed collective ideologies and was in vain at the individual level. As individualisation of education and pedagogical methods became more and more important in the context of legitimised mass education, the introduction of new means of promoting participation of learners in education became important creating grounds for the development of postmodern educational practices.

With postmodernism, pedagogies for decentralised and global society emerged. Technological advances and information flows created greater complexity in understanding of pedagogical methods. Popularisation of education occurred; rapid allocation of educational resources took place. Teachers and learners hence became decisive subjects for education to react to the demand for services that would simultaneously accommodate various teachers and learners in different contexts (regardless of their nationality, ethnicity, gender, etc.). Self-representation became a very important part for applying pedagogical methods.

Lessons from postmodernism showed that pedagogical methods cannot be easily framed or defined; educational practices originate in accord to the logic of globalisation and multicultural practices.

As social phenomena are reflective projects that are constantly changing and renewable, teachers are learners are freer from social and physical boundaries. They are more likely to reflect on what they teach and learn. On the other hand, this reflection is hard to achieve in an increasingly entertaining surrounding of new technologies. This is one important barrier that teachers and learners have to overcome in order to assure culturally sensitive education in the contemporary world. However, they can be more reflexive towards the past in doing so.

The history of educational practices shows that the less the members of the societies perceived each other as teachers and learners on a daily bases, the more likely it was that the social privilege of educational institutions to produce and reproduce socialised knowledge would increase. Public perception of education as a socially inaccessible value emerged in classic times when the public perceived education to occur only within educational settings (as physical space). The society realised the importance of the role of individual teachers in classic and modern worlds.

The more teaching was perceived as relevant to all individuals and to societies in general, the more likely it was that awareness of educational opportunities outside educational settings would increase. Education would then be perceived as social value available to anyone. Educational settings were viewed as one way of getting education, but educational opportunities outside these settings gained significant importance. Every individual started to be seen as a potential teacher and learner. The likelihood of the society to be perceived as a “learning or knowledge or information society” increased. This is what happened in the postmodern world.

The analysis presented in this chapter therefore explicated the importance of understanding of educational practices and pedagogical methods associated with social environments, space, and time—the history (and subjective accounts of it). This is to see the societal directives of knowledge production and what educational practices the teachers and learners are likely to perform or may perform.

The present world has created diverse forms of pedagogical methods. Education is no longer the prerogative of formal educational settings. This leaves space for the

hypothesis that classic and modern forms of educational practices (concentrated in physical educational settings and on individuals) have been modified. Yet what are the implications of this on individual teachers and learners, and the pedagogical methods these teachers and learners utilise are still a matter of continued research in the historicity of educational practices.

Acknowledgments

Hovhannes Hindlyan's *Collection of Pedagogical Thoughts* has been a major source for inspiration for the development of this chapter. This is an Armenian manuscript which has not yet been translated into English. Hovhannes Hindlyan was a nineteenth to twentieth century Armenian thinker who presented a history of pedagogical methods. The idea of writing such a history in this chapter came from his book. He carried out a historical comparative analysis of pedagogical works. As Hindlyan's work has not yet been translated into English, this chapter presents a unique opportunity to get familiarised with some of his insights. Based on his thoughts, this chapter applied the general idea that there is a social history to pedagogical methods that can be subjectively written (rewritten) to inform educational practices.

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Pedagogy of Teaching History

Unit I - Understanding History

❖ Nature of History:

- A study of the present in the light of the past
- History is the study of man
- It's a reconstruction of the past
- History is dynamic
- History is concerned with man in time
- History is concerned with man in space
- History is Objective & scientific record of events
- Multisided
- History is continuous - past is connected to progressively emerging future ends.
- Continuity and coherence are the necessary requisites of history
- Relevant - to present life
- Comprehensiveness

❖ **Historical Thinking Concepts(Big Six - PeterSexias& Morton),**

- **Students should be able to :**
- Establish historical significance -
- Use primary source evidence
- Identify continuity and change
- Analyze cause and consequence
- Take historical perspectives, and
- Understand the ethical dimension of historical interpretations.

❖ **Correlation of history & Political Science: Internal and External**

- Internal and external- with Political Science with another internal topic.
- External with different subjects -literature, science, mathematics, geography, economics, craft.

Unit-II-Constructing History

❖ **Difference between facts and opinions & arguments**

- A fact is a statement that can be proven true or false. A **fact** indicates what happened, who was involved, and when it occurred
- **Opinion**: explains how or why something happened.
- FACTS
- Accepted universally
- Have data to back up
- Historical evidence is found
- Can be observed and tested
- Everyone agrees
- Egs: India got independence from British in 1947
- Hitler was Chancellor of Germany

- OPINION
- Subjective
- Cannot be always proved
- Personal
- All may not agree
- Egs: If Hitler was not the Chancellor of Germany, second world war would not have occurred.
- King XYZ is a great ruler

❖ Historical argument

- In History, an argument is collecting information about the past and presenting it in an organized way.
- Begins with a question, is supported by claims which in turn are supported by evidence
- A reasonable and persuasive argument requires a clear, comprehensive and analytical thesis, supported by relevant historical evidence

❖ Need for Multiperspectivity

- For a truly democratic society
- In order to give students an understanding of the world they live in, history teaching needs to be inclusive and it needs to include different perspectives.
- There is no single one truth …History by nature is complex
- Develop critical thinking
- Using multiperspectivity makes history teaching more dynamic, challenging, and motivating for students and has the long term consequence of educating generations for peace, tolerance, and democracy.
- It develops the capacity to think critically, process information, take decisions, and cooperate, while students are prepared to form their own judgments and opinions.
- The use of multiperspectivity by teachers and students implies a decentring of the educational approach, with the aim of making students aware of the many possible different points of view regarding a given event in history.

❖ **Evidence based interpretation: difference between primary source and secondary source, the 6 C's of source analysis, importance of source analysis**

❖ Primary Source: A primary source is a document or physical object which was written or created during the time under study. These sources were present during an experience or time period and offer an inside view of a particular event .Eg :news footage of an event

❖ Secondary source: A secondary source is a document or recording that relates or discusses information originally presented elsewhere. Secondary sources involve generalization, analysis, synthesis, interpretation, or evaluation of the original information. Eg: article written about an event by a non eye witness

❖ 6 Cs of Analysing Sources

- Content
- Context
- Communication
- Citation
- Connection
- Conclusion

❖ Importance of source analysis

- Source Analysis promotes construction of historical knowledge. Knowledge is not doled out by the teacher or textbook but is constructed by the learner himself and hence it becomes a learner centric approach.
- This construction of knowledge takes into account multiple facets of the source such as content, context and citation. The learner learns to use authentic sources to construct history. The source is not taken at face value rather it is examined through a critical lens and hence objectivity is promoted.
- Use of source analysis helps to cultivate a research bent of mind. One formulates research questions and tries to reach a conclusion based on what one identifies and interprets from the source.
- It is a firsthand learning experience for the learner and hence learning is concrete, meaningful and permanent.
- Learners become critical thinkers. These skills are extended to real life situations and one will refrain from trusting sources whose authenticity is doubted

❖ Collingwood's approach to reconstructing the past through historical imagination

- Collingwood's approach opposes the 19th century positivist or scientific approach to constructing knowledge.
- Scientific method is suitable for physical sciences but not so for History.
- A historian cannot actually observe events as they took place, hence Collingwood claimed that historians must use their imagination to reconstruct and understand the past.
- Methodology used by Collingwood has three aspects: Re-enactment, Interpolation and Interrogation

❖ Re enactment

- To understand a human action of the past, historians need to re think the thoughts of the people involved.
- For this re thinking, one needs to examine relics, read documents related to the event and visualize the situation as it was seen by the author of the document
- We not only follow the thoughts of the personality involved but also follow his/her thought process

- Eg: Gandhiji's experiences in South Africa that led to the concept of satyagraha

❖ Interpolation

- It is necessary to interpolate between the statements in a document, interpolate between what was said and what was implied.

❖ Interrogation

- Critical questioning just like a lawyer
- take into account the biases of the document's author
- corroborate statements with other historical evidence,
- judge whether the evidence makes sense in the context of the historical construction being imagined.

❖ Significance of Collingwood's approach

- Helps to enter the minds of the personalities
- Causes a shift from 'history as a record of past events' to 'history as a record of human experiences'
- Empathizes with the personalities and people
- Collingwood describes historical events as having an inside and an outside.
- History of the past often triggers the happenings of the present.

UNIT-III-PEDAGOGIES OF TEACHING HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE (PROCESS, MERITS AND LIMITATIONS)

❖ Lecture Method:

- It is a traditional method of teaching. It involves the combination of explanation of the content by the teacher and incorporates the free exchange of ideas and opinions between the students and teacher in the classroom.

Procedure:

- Planning
- Presentation
- Evaluation

Merits

- Economical
- Time saving
- Stimulates students thinking ,motivates them.
- Better scope for clarification.
- Personal contact
- Flexibility
- Training in listening and developing good audience habits

Demerits:

- Tendency for teacher centric classroom
- Does not consider individual differences
- Average students will not be able to focus attention throughout
- Monotonous

- Discussions may go offtrack

Project Based Learning:

A project is a purposeful activity which involves creative and constructive ideas carried out in a natural setting through which solutions to various problems are found.

Procedure:

- Providing a Situation.
- Choosing
- Planning
- Executing
- Evaluating
- Recording

Merits:

- Based on laws of learning
- Related to life
- Correlates all the subjects
- Training for democratic way of life
- Dignity of labour
- Character building
- Problem solving

De-Merits:

- All topics cannot be dealt with through this method.
- Wrong selection of topic
- Neglect of drill work.
- It is time consuming and expensive.
- Not suitable for all age groups.
- All may not contribute with their efforts.

Co-operative Pedagogy:

- Think-Pair-Share (TPS) is a **collaborative learning strategy** in which students work together to solve a problem or answer a question about an assigned reading.

This technique requires students to
(1) **think individually** about a topic or answer to a question; and
(2) **share ideas** with classmates.

Discussing an answer with a partner serves to **maximize participation**, **focus attention** and **engage students** in comprehending the reading material.

- Decide on how to organize students into pairs.
- Pose a discussion topic or pose a question.
- Give students at least 10 seconds to think on their own. ("think time").
- Ask students to pair with a partner and share their thinking.
- Call on a few students to share their ideas with the rest of the class. Hints and Management Ideas
- Pre-assign partners. Rather than waiting until the discussion time, indicate in advance who students' partners will be. Otherwise, the focus

may become one of finding a partner rather than of thinking about the topic at hand.

- Change partners. Students should be given an opportunity to think with a variety of partners.
- Give "think time".
- Monitor the discussions. It is important to listen to some of the discussions so that common misconceptions can be addressed and unique ideas shared with the whole group.

Buzz Group

- Buzz groups are teams of 4-5 students formed quickly and impromptu to answer questions related to the content to be learnt.
- Each group can discuss one or more questions and all groups can discuss same or different questions.
- Informal discussion students need not arrive at consensus.
- Simply exchange of ideas take place.

Unit- IV- Learning resources [uses and importance]

Audio-Visual Aids-

Webster's Encyclopeadia Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language, defines Audio-Visual Aids as

"training or educational materials directed at both the senses of hearing and the sense of sight, films, recordings, photographs, etc used in classroom instructions, library collections or the likes".

Television:Widely used as educational tools 1950s

Three general approaches to the use of TV broadcasting in education

- Direct class teaching
- School broadcasting
- General educational programming over community, national and internationalstations which provide general and informaleducational opportunities

Films: can be a powerful educational tool which can stimulate inquiry, thinking and ideas.

- Impacts on the viewer as they engage the senses and emotions influential in moulding popular understanding of the past 'actualizing the past'
- Teachers can use film not only as a mechanism of narrative engagement but also as a vehicle for teaching deep understanding about historical knowledge and the nature of the discipline
- Film is a leveller – children can relate to it no matter what their family background or learning abilities.
- Teachers may not have the time or confidence to use film effectively in lessons so training and support are important.
- Film can be a gateway to exploring complex ideas and open children's eyes to other ways of looking at the world.Young people are increasingly visually literate and the curriculum needs to reflect this.

Documentary: is a recording of an event, generally based on peoples perspectives and/or genuine facts

- "Creative treatment of actuality" John Grierson

- Documentaries are not just about facts but facts are used to create socially critical arguments inviting the audience to draw conclusions about topics and issues

Maps:

A map is an accurate representation on a plane surface in the form of a diagram drawn to scale with suitable colour schemes.

Map is one of the most valuable documents for the students of history

It is the universally accepted symbol for the presentation of space concept.

Deals with the two most important concepts in history definite place and at a fixed time

Models:

Models are three dimensional concrete replicas or recognizable imitation of real things

Provides excellent basis for understanding the operations

It builds a conceptual framework.

Timeline:

A timeline is a way of displaying a list of events in chronological order, sometimes described as a project artifact. It is typically a graphic design showing a long bar labelled with dates alongside itself and usually events labelled on points where they would have happened.

The time of occurrence is very significant to historical happenings. The essence of the concept of time in history is the sense of sequence and distance before or after. One of the most difficult problem in teaching of history is to develop in the pupils the concept of time. Time can be represented by a horizontal or vertical line and the happenings are fixed on it according to their dates of occurrence.

Artifacts:

They are here to tell us about our past, and there is no better way to do this than by studying them

An object produced or shaped by human craft, especially a tool, weapon, or orna ment of archaeological or historical interest

It helps in exploration, creativity and develop historical questions, identify evidence, points of view, and bias; and construct narratives.

The opportunity to handle and use physical artifacts stimulates curiosity about "things that work," and engages children's natural inclinations to be active and involved in their learning.

Collaborative effort is productive in building understanding. Students learn that by observing carefully and putting their observations together they know quite a lot.

<u>Print Media: Magazine, news papers, archives</u>

MAGAZINE

Magazines are actually a valuable teaching tool and can be used multiple times for different activities.

They are the 'real world's textbooks'.

They allow students to educate themselves on current issues and allow the teacher to draw clear and concise lines between the past, present, and future.

The media today has the capability to inform students how history affects them and why it is so crucial.

Comprehension and appreciation of the articles will be a direct result of seeing and experiencing the links between history and current issues and thus gaining a new perspective on how history directly affects them

NEWS PAPERS

“Social studies programs should reflect the changing nature of knowledge, fostering entirely new and highly integrated approaches to resolving issues of significance to humanity” Sumrall &Schillinger

Using news paper in the classroom is fulfilling that request and appealing students at the same time.

It may also help the history teacher in reducing the boredom and disinterest in history

It allows students to form a link between historical concepts and modern issues, and also helps them to become more informed citizens and active and avid readers.

ARCHIVES

A collection of historical documents or records providing information about a place, institution, or group of people.

Documents--diaries, letters, drawings, and memoirs--created by those who participated in or witnessed the events of the past tell us something that even the best-written article or book cannot convey.

It exposes students to important historical concepts where they learn to evaluate evidence, acquire insight into the basis on which historical arguments are developed.

Students become aware that all written history reflects an author's interpretation of past events.

Students read a historical account, they can recognize its subjective nature and they develop important analytical skills.

https://pcer.ac.in/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/Pedagogy-of-Teaching-History.pdf

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Pedagogy of Teaching History: Comparing the Chronologic and Thematic Approaches

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Pedagogy of Teaching History:

Comparing the Chronologic and Thematic Approaches

By
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Introduction

In *Ferris Bueller's Day Off*, a monotone history teacher lectures in a room full of adolescents who show no interest at all in the topic. Unfortunately this is not an isolated instance of teaching history. History teachers are plagued with the stereotype of being dry and boring. While other contents adjust to accommodate students, the majority history tends to be taught in the typical fashion (Laufenberg, 2011, p. 1). A teacher lectures and students absorb information by taking notes. If students are really "lucky" there will be a break from lectures and instead will be able to enjoy a lengthy historical documentary. What can be done to change the ways that history can be taught? Perhaps the approach the teacher takes to teaching can impact the way students respond to the content. Classes typically taught with this lecture style tend to teach history as a timeline (Olson-Raymer, 2011). Teachers start with one event or date and move forward throughout history. An alternative approach further examined in this paper is a thematic approach where a teacher instead selects meaningful themes for students to explore in great detail. While other methods exist outside of these two approaches, the traditional chronological approach is contrasted to the thematic approach to determine if there are ways to alleviate the disinterest students have in history. Advantages, disadvantages and sample lesson plans are

used to dissect these approaches to determine their effectiveness for use in the history classroom.

Personal interest in the topic

Since I was a young child I have always wanted to teach. I loved school and found it a very welcoming and great place. When I tell people that I want to teach social studies the first thing many say is "history is so boring." I am curious to see if one reason history is so boring to people is because it is difficult to find different ways to teach the subject. The majority, if not all, of my history classes have been taught in a format where a timeline was presented at the beginning of the class of what would be covered. The class would then start at the first date and move forward highlighting many historical dates, places and people. I imagine others share this experience. I hope by learning the different approaches to teaching history including the thematic approach, the previously described chronological approach and other methods I may discover in my research process that I can spark an interest in my students that may not exist in the typical format.

This project will also help me determine what approaches I like and dislike when teaching history. I will aim to implement my preferred method when I eventually become a teacher. Another thing I find interesting about this topic and will take into consideration during my research is the phenomenon known as the

apprenticeship of observation. This phenomenon states that students in the field of education tend to hold onto preconceived notions of how to teach based on what they observed as students. I hope that by researching different approaches of teaching history, I can determine for myself what I believe will work best and then implement in my (eventual) classroom to enhance learning and motivation of my students.

Literature Review

Nearly twenty-five years ago, in *The History and Social Science Teacher*, a concern was voiced about the way that history was taught and tested in schools in an article, *The Current State of History Teaching*. "History teachers have for too long been supplying the bricks of history, the 'facts,' to their students, but have failed in most cases to have them build any sort of structure with them" (Duthie, 1989, p. 137). This is not just a critique of the methods of teaching history but specifically the chronological approach. History at the high school level is often thought of as boring subject where information is regurgitated during exams (p. 138). The concern Duthie brought up has paved the way for a debate in teaching history determining the merits of using the old method focusing on chronology and the newer method of thematic teaching. Duthie stresses the need for reform of any kind. The teaching of history is difficult to justify. History teachers must now develop a strong reasoning for what is taught in order to prove to the public that it is a subject worthy of being taught. While Duthie backs arguments for

change up with facts, he over emphasizes the role of computers. A computer database of raw historical data, with good cross-referencing, would be of enormous value, giving students rapid access to data on the topics under study This computer database is an example of how technology could be used to enrich a history course. Despite the stress on technology, many other scholars have expanded Duthie's argument for change.

Another critique of the chronological approach is that it is inadequate in going into depth and instead broadly covers more time periods but only by skimming over vocabulary and events. Robert L. Hampel (1985) spent a year observing history classrooms and noticed this inadequacy in different classrooms.

> A significant topic, the Depression received superficial treatment because the teacher settled for magic phrases as complete explanations of a complicated set of issues. The repetition of the talismanic words promoted copying rather than reasoning skills as everyone dutifully filled notebooks (p. 364).

In another classroom, Hampel (1985) observed a teacher who too spent little time going in-depth into events. While observing one teacher for an hour, he watched as the teacher abruptly transitioned between topics quickly. These many transitions did not allow for depth of contents. By rushing through a time period or event, multiple opinions and accounts of an event are not acknowledged or covered. This caused generalizations that stopped rather than encouraged a higher level of learning in the classroom (p. 364). A comparison is

made between teaching history and finding oil in order to show the significance of diving deeper into an event or idea. “Instead of scurrying across a field scooping up handfuls of soil here and there, the successful prospector picks particular spots for deep drillings. Significant events and ideas of the past deserve similarly close inspection” (p. 364). The in-depth component Hampel mentions is often the backbone to supporters of the thematic method of teaching history.

While Hampel is quick to bring to light flaws with the way teachers go about teaching history, his solution focuses more on collaboration amongst teachers of all disciplines and not on the actual methods of teaching history.

Rodney M. White (1995) in his article, “How thematic teaching can transform history instruction,” both discredits those who believe in the “good ol’ days” of the history subject and makes his case for the alternative thematic approach.

> History teaching is too often textbook centered, with the teacher's only clear learning aim being to cover a certain amount of content. In fact, covering-the-content is equated with learning. Teachers present material in an encyclopedic fashion, and the student becomes a passive receiver of more information than one could ever hope to receive, analyze, commit to memory, or understand. (p. 1)

White does not leave this issue unresolved and instead provides an alternative to this approach. His technique is to eliminate the chronological approach to history curriculums. Thematic instruction allows for understanding by going more in-

depth. Teachers and students are forced to identify the fundamental ideas of a subject. In order to accomplish this the teacher must carefully select important ideas while simultaneously abandoning less important content (p. 1). White then goes on to give tangible examples of a curriculum centered on thematic elements including religion, national identity and diversity. One of the sources White cites in his article is Daniel Roselle.

Specifically in the context of world history, Daniel Roselle examines ways that thematic elements can be applied. Roselle (1992) is highly critical of the way world history is taught.

> The course on the history of the world is formed out of an endless flow of time that historians have cut up and labeled dynasties, periods, and ages in an effort to regulate a past that will not be regulated (p. 248).

Roselle also addresses a concern many have with the subject of history, deciphering what is important to cover and what is not. "How can historians, teachers, and students handle the tremendous mass of historical events-lifeless until re-created by selection and organization-that swirl about our heads like leaves in a windstorm? How can we bring order out of chaos?" (p. 249). A solution of this issue focuses on themes that arise throughout history. However, his concept of a world history course might be considered too romanticized in the eyes of administrators. Roselle proposes that the subject of world history focus

on things that mankind for years has shared. This includes art, religion, and the struggle for freedom among other concepts.

In comparison with White's concept of a thematic curriculum, Roselle paints an idealist presentation of world history in the school setting. Roselle does however have a clear justification for moving away from the chronological approach of teaching history. If history is left in an unorganized or disorganized, facts will have less meaning. While the facts exist, out of context they will not be meaningful. While his solution may not be as applicable in a classroom setting, Roselle does an excellent job of defining the reasons for a change in the way history is taught. Others have gone more in-depth off of Roselle's thematic approach and have found ways to make it more applicable in the classroom setting.

It is one thing to say that change is needed in the subject of teaching history and another to do something about that change. That's what teacher Diana Laufenberg (2011) did with her class on American History. Instead of examining the vast history of America chronologically, Laufenberg chose a thematic approach to her classroom. "America has never excelled at knowing its own past. As I watched the school days pass, I observed that students participated and engaged, but still did not meaningfully retain the information. Something had to give. I ditched chronological teaching" (p. 1). Part of her

thematic curriculum is students working collaboratively to define definitions of concepts like war. Students begin my defining the word on their own, then pair up with a partner, the partners then become a group and the finally groups work together to find a class definition. Laufenberg is very pleased with the results seen by this change. The final product was not just a definition but students were given a sense of concept. Students created the definition in the process of simultaneously learning. While the success Laufenberg has had may seem like it would translate to all classes an important thing to note is that Laufenberg currently is teaching at the Science Leadership Academy in Philadelphia, PA where modern learning techniques are encouraged. Also her reasons for switching from the chronological technique are not clearly defined thus it is hard to say what issues she faced.

Those who are in support of the thematic approach can often make the debate less about chronological and thematic approaches and more about rote and meaningful learning.

> Chronology is the single most important unifying factor of history. As used in this context, the term is intended to mean not lists of meaningless names, dates or events to be memorized, but the study of a framework for the period or subject under consideration in the classroom. (Baker, 1995, p. 26)

Another concern with the chronological approach that those advocating for thematic approaches have is that the chronological approach does not include

critical thinking. Baker (1995), instead argues the opposite of this is true. Studying events or people in isolation does not promote higher level thinking skills. History is more than just random facts and figure but instead is a series of events full of developed characters and transitions. Baker also argues that the chronological approach does indeed have clear learning objectives.

> In examining the past and present, students should recognize that events and changes occur in a specific time and place; that historical change has both causes and effects; and that life is bounded by the constraints of place. Throughout this curriculum, the importance of the variables of time and place, when and where, history and geography, is stressed repeatedly (Baker, 1995, p. 25).

Others back up the issues that Baker brings up specifically in Great Britain where many have called a current switch to a thematic method of teaching history into question.

Not everyone is convinced that thematic teaching should replace the chronological model. In Great Britain for example reform has been made to change the way history is taught. Author Brian Viner (2012) wrote an opinion piece for The Guardian making his case for the chronological teaching of history. Viner is the father of two and has recently been concerned with the way that history is taught in the schools. His concerns caused him to phone his son's teacher in order to learn if dates were a focal point of the class.

> My son's teacher confirmed that this is broadly true. The teaching of history in British schools is increasingly influenced by US methods of presenting the past thematically rather than chronologically.

> Thus pupils might study crime and punishment, or kingship, and dip in and out of different centuries. Consequently, dates lose their value. So 1605, which for me means the Gunpowder Plot, for my son simply means that he is five minutes late for games. (p. 23)

In Viner's opinion, schools in Great Britain are doing a discredit to the students by teaching history by jumping around and only focusing on certain trends and themes. While Viner's article is merely opinion he does provide an interesting thought for those who back the thematic approach as the wave of the future. "But even if we leave out dates, aren't *facts* what history is all about? The rest, as they say, is sociology" (p. 23). Viner is not the only one in Great Britain who believes that history class reforms are depriving students of a history education and replacing it with sociology classes.

Although Brian Viner is quick to point out the issues with the thematic approach of history in English schools, he does not go as far as to suggest a solution. That's where Niall Ferguson, a Harvard professor, intervenes with the hope that schools in England will revert back to a curriculum that emphasizes the chronology.

> He argues that there is far too much emphasis on teaching pupils about Nazi Germany and complains that pupils are asked to choose "a smorgasbord of unrelated topics". The form of selection, he adds, 'explains why, when I asked them recently, all three of my children had heard of the Reverend Martin Luther King, but none could tell me anything about Martin Luther.' (Asthana, 2010, p. 1)

While Ferguson certainly has the credentials to argue for a reform of the new thematic approach to history, he has been accused of being too conservative. Professor Colin Jones, president of the Royal Historical Society, approved of Ferguson's ideas including teaching history in lengthy, chronological sections. However, Jones believed that Ferguson's language was condescending and the argument ideological (Asthana, 2010). Ferguson has not been one to shy away from arguing and continues to argue that the history being taught in schools is nothing more than "junk history." Jones also believes that Ferguson's argument is not as fundamentally sound as he believes it is. "It is more ideological than he claims and the danger is it will be taught in a way in which the answer is known in advance and it is 'west is best'" (p. 1). Despite this, Feguson's beliefs show that the chronologic approach to teaching history won't be replaced by the thematic approach without a fight.

A misconception may arise that the thematic approach represents innovation while the chronological approach represents stagnation. This is not true and those who support the chronological method also recognize the need for reform in the subject. One way that this is accomplished is a technique known as reverse chronology. The reverse chronology approach often includes connecting the past, present and future in unimaginable ways (Misco & Patterson, 2009). The reverse chronological approach involves starting from with

the present and working backwards. Teachers are able to use present life interests, experiences, and imaginations of the students and can use active inquiry strategies to engage students in the reverse chronological approach (Patterson, 2009). The justification for starting with the present and working backwards is to help students make connections to what they are learning. In order for something to have meaning, it must have a relationship to other things. Educator John Dewey (1916) argued that ideas and topics isolated from experience do not lead to real thinking. Reverse chronology has an advantage over the traditional chronological approach because by working backwards the applicableness to students is more readily visible then working from a distant date.

Despite the innovation of reverse chronology, it has not had the warmest reception in the classroom by administrators. A Lincoln, Nebraska teacher, Michael Baker was fired from his job as a high school teacher for showing a controversial film, Baghdad E.R. In an article explaining his termination, another event was uncovered. "Baker has clashed with administrators before. In 2005, they objected to his innovative approach to teaching history, which was to start at the present and work backwards, an approach he'd been using for four years" (Drum, 2007, pg, 1). While the details of Baker's content and lesson plans are not

available this lesson shows an unfortunate aspect of thinking creatively in the classroom.

> The school's consultant said it was 'not logical, does not contribute to effective teaching or monitoring of progress, and puts students at a disadvantage' with newly instituted statewide tests, according to a paper on the subject by Professor Nancy Patterson of Bowling Green. Baker appealed but lost, and was eventually 'prohibited from teaching U.S. history,' Patterson writes. (Drum, 2007, pg. 1)

The paper Baker used in his appeal is the very paper that was examined in the prior paragraph. While innovation and new approaches should be examined, the story of Baker serves as an example. Even sound research has limitations in the public school setting. Baker was limited in his scope of how he could present history. In contrast, some teachers enjoy more freedom in developing curriculum.

Christopher S. Wilson is a professor at Izmir University of Economics in Turkey. At a guest lecture in the Universidad Francisco Marroquín a college in Guatemala City, Guatemala. The title of Wilson's lecture was *Chronological vs. Thematic Methods of Teaching History and Theory*. Wilson teaches a class on the introduction of art and design. Traditionally architecture history, design history and art history seem to start at some origin of prehistoric time (Wilson, 2008). Wilson believed that when he taught chronologically, he was merely skimming the surface and not adding much depth for his students. Wilson combated this dilemma by switching his method to a thematic method. His first lesson focused

on composition, which included symmetry, balance, harmony and horizontal and vertical lines. The majority of Wilson's outline focused on outlining lesson for lesson his art history class but he did mention a different technique for evaluating students. Wilson included four components for his tests including reading, compare and contrast, terminology and drawing. This allowed students to find a have multiple styles testing their knowledge. While this is a nice sentiment, this section of the video was labeled under aspects of student evaluation. The hope

was that this would be students' feedback of the thematic approach. Unfortunately, throughout the lecture Wilson spent very little time outside of his introductory justification for the switch to thematic teaching. Wilson's switch shows that this issue can be seen in nonconventional history classes including art history.

Advantages of chronological approaches

The chronological approach includes several advantages. One of these advantages is the fact that the framework of a unit or term is already in place. Oregon Social Sciences Academic Content Standards state that 8th grade covers

U.S History from 1765 to Reconstruction (*Oregon Department of Education*, 2011). For an 8th grade teacher it would make sense to begin the class by starting with events in 1765. Ideally the teacher would cover topics of significance all the way up to Reconstruction. When the chronologic approach is applied the class

becomes very linear. Another advantage of the chronological approach is that transitions are smooth from unit to unit.

An 8th grade teacher could divide the class into the following units:

Unit 1: The Native Americans

8.24. Compare fictional portrayals of a time, place, or character to historical or other non-fictional sources relating to the same period.

Unit 2: European Exploration and Settlement

8.8. Evaluate information from a variety of sources and perspectives. **Unit 3:** The English Colonies in America

8.16. Compare and contrast how European governments and the United States government interacted with Native American peoples.

Unit 4: Life in the Colonies

8.11. Identify and describe patterns and networks of economic interdependence, migration, and settlement.

Unit 5: Tensions in the Colonies

8.22. Distinguish among tariffs, quotas, and government policies as means to regulate trade.

Unit 6: The Declaration of Independence

8.21. Analyze important political and ethical values such as freedom, democracy, equality, and justice embodied in documents such as the Declaration of Independence, the United States Constitution, and the Bill of Rights.

Unit 7: The American Revolution

8.5. Analyze the causes as outlined in the Declaration of Independence, and examine the major American and British leaders, key events, international support, and consequences of (e.g., Articles of Confederation, changes in trade relationships, achievement of independence by the United States) the American Revolution.

Unit 8: Creating the Constitution

8.15. Contrast the impact of the Articles of Confederation as a form of government to the U.S. Constitution.

Unit 9: The Bill of Rights

8.18. Examine and analyze important United States documents, including (but not limited to) the Constitution, Bill of Rights, 13th-15th Amendments.

8.20. Analyze the changing definition of citizenship and the expansion of rights.

Unit 10: Political Developments in the Early Republic8.17. Examine the development activities of political parties and interest groups and their affect on events, issues, and ideas.

Unit 11: Foreign Affairs in the Young Nation

8.28. Investigate a response or solution to an issue or problem and support or oppose, using research.

Unit 12: Andrew Jackson

8.1. Evaluate continuity and change over the course of United States history by analyzing examples of conflict, cooperation, and interdependence among groups, societies, or nations.

Unit 13: Manifest Destiny and the Growing Nation

8.2. Evaluate continuity and change over the course of Unites States history, by analyzing key people and constitutional convention, age of Jefferson, industrial revolution, westward expansion, Civil War.

8.3. Examine social, political and economic factors that caused westward expansion from American Revolution through reconstruction.

Unit 14: Life in the West

8.27. Examine the various characteristics, causes, and effects of an event, issue, or problem.

Unit 15: The Worlds of North and South

8.12. Investigate how differing geographic perspectives apply to issues in U.S. History.

Unit 16: African Americans at Mid-Century

8.4. Evaluate the impact of different factors, including gender, age, ethnicity and class on groups and individuals during this time period and the impact these groups and individuals have on events of the time.

Unit 17: A Dividing Nation

8.7. Analyze evidence from multiple sources including those with conflicting accounts about specific events in U.S. History.

Unit 18: Civil War

8.2. Evaluate continuity and change over the course of Unites States history, by analyzing key people and constitutional convention, age of Jefferson, industrial revolution, westward expansion, Civil War.

Unit 19: The Reconstruction Era

8.3. Examine social, political and economic factors that caused westward expansion from American Revolution through reconstruction.

Each of these units could be taught roughly in a week of teaching. Coincidentally these units are also the chapters of *History Alive! The United States Through Industrialism*. Not only do textbooks align congruently with these units but also so do the Oregon Social Sciences Academic Content Standards. In comparison to thematic approaches of teaching history the chronological approach offers more structure with clearer starting and ending points. Despite the many advantages the chronological approach offers there are still many disadvantages.

Disadvantages of chronological approaches

The chronological approach can be found in the majority of history classrooms. Logically it makes sense to teach history with a clear starting and ending point. However, in an attempt to make sure that the end point is met teachers may rush through certain units in order to make it to the end. In a recent presentation to the Social Studies Pedagogy class Andrea Morgan, an overseer of Social Sciences Curriculum, remarked that teachers must avoid "the chronological death march from Pre-Columbus to the present" (Morgan, 2013). While teachers have the best of intentions to cover all material, the present and most recent events inevitably are the events not covered in detail if at all. While it can be seen as an advantage that textbooks often align with the chronological approach this can also be detrimental to the class. With the availability of

textbooks the temptation exists for teachers to just "teach to the textbook."

Instead of preparing elaborate assignments and projects it becomes much easier for teachers to simply assign a section of the textbook to be read by students. These textbooks can also be hurtful when only the typical rote-learning premade tests are used to assess students.

The chronological approach is not exclusively but can be seen as very teacher-focused. There is less work for students to complete when the class is already structured. While students can give opinions and research various events, the fact of the matter is that the class will generally stay on course and not diverge to focus on matters that interest students. The chronological approach can also be limiting when it comes to assignments given. For example, there are only so many topics that students can write papers on focusing on the differences between the North and the South.

Advantages of thematic approaches

One advantage of thematic approaches is the amount of ways that history can be viewed. While the chronological approach can include multiple perspectives, this can limit how far in time a class is able to cover. Themes are broad enough that content could be presented but through non-traditional perspectives. In "Redrawing the Boundaries: A Constructivist Approach to Combating Student Apathy in the Secondary History Classroom," author Christopher Kaiser argues the need for alternative perspectives to be taken.

> In attempting to engage their students, history educators are faced with the unenviable task of making topics such as economic systems, presidential policy, and U.S. foreign relations not only interesting, but relevant to teenagers who often find these topics dry and disconnected from the reality in which they exist.
> Therefore, the use of student driven, non-traditional historical perspectives is warranted to "hook" apathetic students. (Kaiser, 2010, p. 228)

Kaiser later details an assignment that engages students in both history and subject matters that interested them. This assignment revolves around students choosing a subject of interest to them and examining history through the perspective of their topic of interest. The criteria for this assignment included writing a paper involving major events for their topic, the connection these events share to traditional history and a presentation to the class. When techniques like these are used, history can become less of a dry subject matter and one that is inviting of students many interests. The same time frame was covered using Kaiser's approach but was catered specifically to students' interests.

Another advantage of the thematic approach is that history can become more relevant and accessible to all students. Often students complain about history because they fail to see the relevance to their lives. When teaching thematically, a teacher can cater units of studies to students' particular interests. If students are interested in music, a unit on the changes of music would be

fitting and appropriate for any area of history. -Thematic approach can be student led because student's interests can be used in developing lessons

A final advantage is that the thematic approach is more open-ended. A teacher is not as limited to a certain time period in history. Instead, the teacher has the ability to move around from theme to theme. Theoretically, a teacher could move from one region of the world to another with ease within the same unit or lesson. This would allow students to be exposed to a diverse array of views that could strengthen both their appreciation for history and diversity.

Disadvantages of thematic approach

One of the most challenging aspects of teaching thematically is incorporating the skill of cause and effect. Cause and effect relationships are embedded into a chronologically based class. For example, students studying the American Revolution would learn that a cause of the revolution was the Intolerable Acts and an effect was the creation of the new nation. Cause and effect is an essential topic for students to learn and in a classroom where various themes are covered cause and effect is not as prevalent. While it would still be possible, a teacher would spend a greater deal of time finding ways to include cause and effect in meaningful ways.

The flow from unit to unit can become more difficult when planning a class around themes. Transitions may make less sense then in a typical chronological class where they are outlined by a timeline. More care and consideration are

needed when determining the order of units surround various themes. A teacher considering teaching a thematic based classroom would first have to contemplate what themes are being taught and what order will these themes appear in.

Another consideration for a teacher thinking of implementing a thematic based course would be the amount of research that is necessary for each unit. While a textbook may have some information on themes of music, sports, technology or media in most cases this would not be in-depth enough to teach students. A teacher wanting to teach thematically would need to be aware of the extra time needed to research and create materials for each lesson.

Examples of Lesson Plans

The below lesson plans demonstrate how both a chronological and thematic approach could be used to teach to the same Oregon Social Studies Standard. The standard used for these examples is for 8th graders. The goal of the standard is that students can evaluate the impact of different factors, including gender, age, ethnicity and class on groups and individuals during this time period and the impact these groups and individuals have on events of the time. The same textbook, *History Alive*, is used for both lessons.

Chronological Approach

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Lesson Title/Description: Reformation during the 1850’s</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Lesson # 1 of 1</td><td>Time Allotted for this Lesson: 1 day</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Goal
8.4. Evaluate the impact of different factors, including gender, age, ethnicity and class on groups and individuals during this time period and the impact these groups and individuals have on events of the time.</td><td>Objectives:
Students can correctly summarize the issues and outcomes various reformers had in the United States during the 1850’s by writing a paragraph with at least 4 correct pieces of information.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-Requisite Knowledge and/or Skills:
Students should be aware of events that led up to the 1850’s involving education, slavery, women’s rights and jailhouses in the United States.

How I know the students have this:
Prior assessments will determine if students have a grasp of this information. Questions will also be given during the warm-ups to assess how much students are aware of what these four aspects were like in the United States leading up to the 1850’s.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Materials/Equipment/Supplies/Technology/Preparation: (Describe how you will distribute and collect them)
-History Alive!
-Graphic Organizers</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Procedure: Teacher Does…….</td><td>Procedure: Students Do……..</td></tr>
<tr><td>Time
10 Minutes</td><td>Motivation/Hook:
The teacher will monitor the progress of students answering the prompt. After students have been given enough time to answer the question, the teacher will instruct them to find someone in the class who wrote on something else. Students will teach each other what they knew about</td><td>Motivation/Hook:
Students will respond to the following prompt on the screen:

Choose one of the four topics listed below. Write a few sentences showing what you know about the topic from what has been covered in class. You may use a textbook but do may only use Chapters 1-17.
•Jailhouses
•Education</td></tr>
</table>

	their chosen topic. This will be repeated until every student has been exposed to all four topics.	•Slavery •Women's Rights Students will then follow the teachers' instructions and share with a partner. This will be repeated until every student has been exposed to all four topics.
5 minutes	**Teaching (Modeling):** The teacher will then guide the students in taking notes on Reformation movements. The teacher will have students fill out a graphic organizer. The graphic organizer will consist of a flow chart. Students will choose one of the four topics. At the top of their chart they will list any prior information they know about the topic. They will then leave the other boxes blank. The teacher will then have students gather with students who chose the same topic. Once in groups students will be instructed to research the topic they chose using the textbook *History Alive!*.	**Teaching:** Students will fill out a graphic organizer. The graphic organizer will consist of a flow chart. Students will choose one of the four topics. At the top of their chart they will list any prior information they know about the topic. They will then leave the other boxes blank. Students will then gather with students who chose the same topic. Once in groups students will be instructed to research the topic they chose using the textbook *History Alive!*.
15 minutes	**Group Application:** The teacher will monitor group progress on reading and writing notes on their flow charts.	**Group Application:** Taking turns reading aloud in their groups students will read the corresponding passage on their topic: •Jailhouses (p. 244) •Education (p. 245) •Slavery (p. 246)

		•Women's Rights (p. 248) Students will take notes on their flow charts listing key people and changes to their topic during the 1850's.
15 minutes	**Independent Application:** The teacher will then form new groups. Each group will consist of one member from the previous group. That student will then be responsible for explaining to their group the most important aspects of their topic. Other group members will be responsible for taking notes.	**Independent Application:** Students will be assigned to new groups Each group will consist of one member from the previous group. That student will then be responsible for explaining to their group the most important aspects of their topic. Other group members will be responsible for taking notes.
10 minutes	**Closure:** With the remaining time, the teacher will instruct students to write a new paragraph. This paragraph will be similar to the prompt they answered at the beginning of the class but will instead focus on the topic of reform they just learned about.	**Closure:** Students will answer the following question in paragraph form: How did Jailhouses, Education, Slavery or Women's Rights change during the 1850's? Be sure to include anything you learned about these changes.

Meeting Varying Needs of Students:

Scaffolding for students without pre-requisite knowledge:

The beginning assignment will provide students with a framework of what the lesson will cover. That way if they were absent or new they would be able to understand the prior information on the topics covered.

Extension task (include how this will support students):

For students capable and interested an extension assignment would be provided. The students would be asked to determine how these topics have

changed between the 1850's and now. Students will be given time at the beginning of the next class period to share their findings with the class.

Assessment

1. **<u>Evidence</u> collected during/as a result of this lesson:**
   Formative assessment will include students' answers to the first prompt and work during group time.

2. **How are you determining proficiency?**
   Proficiency will be determined using a rubric to grade students paragraph responses from the end of the class.

Thematic Approach

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Lesson Title/Description: Women in Early America</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Lesson # 1 of 1</td><td>Time Allotted for this Lesson: 1 day</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Goals (i.e. Oregon social studies standards, NCSS strands)
8.4. Evaluate the impact of different factors, including gender, age, ethnicity and class on groups and individuals during this time period and the impact these groups and individuals have on events of the time.</td><td>Objectives:
Students can correctly summarize the conditions and lives of women in early America by writing a paragraph with at least 4 correct pieces of information.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-Requisite Knowledge and/or Skills:
Students should have a basic understanding of the various time periods that will be covered during including colonial times, life in the west and Reformation.

How I know the students have this:
Students will demonstrate this pre-requisite knowledge by their prior assessments.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Materials/Equipment/Supplies/Technology/Preparation: (Describe how you will distribute and collect them)
-History Alive!
-Graphic Organizers</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Procedure: Teacher Does…….</td><td>Procedure: Students Do……..</td></tr>
<tr><td>Time
10 minutes</td><td>Motivation/Hook:
The teacher will monitor the progress of students answering the prompt. After students have been given enough time to answer the question, the teacher will instruct them to find someone in the class who wrote on something else. Students will teach each other what they knew about their chosen time period.</td><td>Motivation/Hook:
Students will respond to the following prompt on the screen:

Choose one of the three time periods listed below. Write a few sentences showing what you know about the time period from what has been covered in class. You may use a textbook.
•Colonial times
•Life in the west
•Reformation</td></tr>
</table>

	This will be repeated until every student has been refreshed on all three time periods.	Students will then follow the teachers' instructions and share with a partner. This will be repeated until every student has been refreshed on all three time periods.
10 minutes	**Teaching (Modeling):** The teacher will show various medias highlighting both the inequality between men and women and strides that have been made towards equality. This will act as a framework for the rest of the lesson. The teacher will have students write a reaction to each media shown. Students will then be granted an opportunity to share their reactions with the class. The teacher will segue this to learn about how women have been treated in the past.	**Teaching:** While the teacher shows various medias highlighting both the inequality between men and women and strides that have been made towards equality students will write a reaction to each media shown. Students will then be granted an opportunity to share their reactions with the class. The teacher will segue this to learn about how women have been treated in the past.
15 minutes	**Group Application:** The teacher will place students into three groups. Each group will be responsible for learning about women in their respected period.	**Group Application:** The teacher will place students into three groups. Each group will be responsible for learning about women in their respected period. This information can be found in *History Alive!* on the following pages: •Colonial (p. 58) •Life in the west (p. 220) •Reformation (p. 248) Students will take notes listing key information about women during these time periods.

10 minutes	**Independent Application:** The teacher will then form new groups. Each group will consist of one member from the previous group. That student will then be responsible for explaining to their group the most important aspects of their topic. Other group members will be responsible for taking notes.	**Independent Application:** Students will be assigned to new groups Each group will consist of one member from the previous group. That student will then be responsible for explaining to their group the most important aspects of their topic. Other group members will be responsible for taking notes.
10 minutes	**Closure:** With the remaining time, the teacher will instruct students to write a new paragraph. This paragraph will be comparing and contrasting women today with women in either colonial times, life in the west or the period of reformation.	**Closure:** Students will write a paragraph on the following prompt. Compare and contrast the ways that women live today with either colonial times, life in the west or the period of reformation.

Meeting Varying Needs of Students:

Scaffolding for students without pre-requisite knowledge:

The beginning assignment will provide students with a framework of what the lesson will cover. That way if they were absent or new they would be able to understand the prior information on the time periods covered.

Extension task (include how this will support students):

Students who want an extension will have the option of researching a woman in recent times that is considered a role model to young women. The student will then compile a report on why they believe this person is a good role model to young women. The teacher will provide examples as needed.

Assessment

1. **<u>Evidence</u> collected during/as a result of this lesson:**
   Formative assessment will include students' answers to the first prompt and work during group time.

2. **How are you determining proficiency?**

Proficiency will be determined using a rubric to grade students paragraph responses from the end of the class.

In both lessons, the same goal was used but the approach changed. The chronologic approach focused on the various groups during a specific period in time. The thematic approach instead focused on women throughout history by having students examine different periods of American women. The comparison of the two shows that there is no one right way to teach history but instead that a teacher can apply either approach to their class and successfully engage students in history.

Observations from Student Teaching

When student teaching I was hopeful I would break the mold and stray away from the typical chronological approach. However, this was impossible to do with my first term. Since I was only responsible for one week of instruction my teacher provided me with the topic she wished to be covered, groups that moved west. I was able to avoid relying solely on lectures (often a disadvantage of the chronological approach) and instead provide multiple ways for the focus to be on the students. While I do not believe that one approach is superior to the other I was dissatisfied that I was unable to experiment with a thematic based approach. I can see the difficulty teachers may have in implementing a thematic based class. For a thematic approach to be most efficient it would need to be implemented

from the beginning of the school year. Not only would the teacher teaching need to be okay with this approach but it would be almost essential for others within the department to be on board with it as well. This is because that collaboration would be greatly hindered if one teacher chose to structure their class thematically and the other chronologically. When I have a classroom of my own I will be left with the choice to break the mold and teach thematically or teach the traditionally taught chronological approach.

Conclusion

Both the thematic approach and chronological approaches have clear advantages and disadvantages. Students would be able to make meaning out of either one of these approaches given a teacher dedicated to making lessons and the content engaging. In most schools and districts a chronological approach will be favored over other methods. While this makes it more challenging to teach a history class through themes I believe it is still possible. Regardless of the approach a teacher takes the most important component of teaching in general is to ensure that it is engaging for students. As a future educator, I am eager to attempt to create if not a curriculum at least a few units of study based off the thematic approach. I hope that by doing this I can engage all students especially those not typically interested in history.

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TAMIL NADU TEACHERS EDUCATION UNIVERSITY

Chennai-600 097

Course 7(a): Pedagogy of History

(Part –I Methodology)

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Unit I AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING HISTORY

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Unit II PLANNING FOR INSTRUCTION

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Unit III PRACTISING THE TEACHING SKILLS IN HISTORY

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Unit IV METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY

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UNIT – I: AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF HISTORY

At the end of the course, the student teachers will be able to:

- Know the nature and scope of history
- Understand aims of teaching history
- Interest to learn objectives of history
- Analyze need and importance of teaching history
- Acquire knowledge of values of history

MEANING

History is often said to be the "queen" or "mother" of the social sciences. It outdates the other social sciences, having appeared in schools long before the others with the possible exception of geography. It is the basis of all subjects of study which fall under the category of Humanities and Social sciences. It is also the basis of the study of philosophy, politics, economics and even art and religion. No wonder, it is considered an indispensable subject in the complete education of man.

The term history is derived from the Greek word 'Historia' meaning 'information' or 'an enquiry conducted to find truth'. The other meaning is 'what has actually passed or happened'. It has been variously put though one and the same in essence.

"History is the present thought about the past, history is thought and nothing else" said by **Croce**.

NATURE OF HISTORY

I. History is the study of man.
II. It is concerned with man in time.
III. It is concerned with man in space also.
IV. It explains the present.
V. It is a dialogue between the events of the past and progressively emerging future ends.
VI. It is the story of the growth of human consciousness, both in its individual and collective aspects.

VII. Continuity and coherence are the necessary requisites of history.

SCOPE OF HISTORY

The scope of history is from local history to national and from national to international. The knowledge of the child should not be limited to the events of his own country. It should be extended to the study of history of other countries because the events and the problem of a particular country are sure to affect the whole world. The scope of history is, thus, as vast and wide as humanity itself.

"History is a veritable mine of life experience and the youth of today studies history that may be profit by the experiences of the race" **Jones.**

AIMS OF TEACHING HISTORY

"History is not simply information regarding the affairs of the kings who have passed away but a science which explains the intellect and furnishes the wise with examples." **Tarikh-i-**Daudi

"The aim of history is not to please nor to give practical maxims of conduct, nor to fire one with patriotic fervor, nor to afford mental training nor to arouse the emotions but to equip the readers with knowledge, pure, simple and truthful."

- ✓ To promote self-understanding:
- ✓ To give proper conception of time, space and society:
- ✓ To enable the pupils to assess the values and achievement of their own age:
- ✓ To teach tolerance:
- ✓ Feed the education of intellect and leave the reset to history:
- ✓ To awaken interest in the subject and to keep it.
- ✓ Modern youth is to be equipped intellectually to the fullest:
- ✓ It is a storehouse of wisdom
- ✓ It inculcates intellectual discipline
- ✓ Development of memory, imagination and reasoning power

OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING HISTORY

- **Knowledge**: The pupil should acquire knowledge of terms, concepts, facts, events, symbols, ideas, conventions, problems, trends, personalities, chronology and

generalisations, etc., related to the study of history. The pupil should able to: recall, recognize, show and read.

Understanding: The pupil should develop understanding of terms, facts, principal events, trends, etc., related to the study of history. The pupil should be able to: classify facts, illustrate events, compare and contrast events, explain events, discriminate, identify, arrange facts, detect errors, interpret and extract.

- **Critical Thinking**: The subject should enable the pupils to develop critical thinking. The pupil should be able to: identify, analyse, collect, select, draw and verify.
- **Practical Skills**: The subject enables the pupils to develop practical skills helpful in the study and understanding of historical facts. The pupil should be able to: draw maps, charts, diagrams and prepare models, etc.,
- **Interests**: The subject should enable the pupils to develop interest in the study of history. The pupil, on his own, should be able to: collect coins and other historical materials, participate in historical dramas and mock sessions of historical events, visits places of historical interest, archaeological sites, museums and archives, read historical documents, maps and charts, write articles on historical and other related topics.

NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING HISTORY

People live in the present. They plan for and worry about the future. History, however, is the study of the past. Given all the demands that press in from living in the present and anticipating what is yet to come, why bother with what has been? Given all the desirable and available branches of knowledge, why insist—as most American educational programs do—on a good bit of history? And why urge many students to study even more history than they are required to?

Any subject of study needs justification: its advocates must explain why it is worth attention. Most widely accepted subjects—and history is certainly one of them—attract some people who simply like the information and modes of thought involved. But audiences less spontaneously drawn to the subject and more doubtful about why to bother need to know what the purpose is.

Historians do not perform heart transplants, improve highway design, or arrest criminals. In a

society that quite correctly expects education to serve useful purposes, the **functions of history can seem more difficult to define than** those of engineering or medicine very useful, actually indispensable, but the products of historical study are less tangible, sometimes less immediate, than those that stem from some other disciplines.

In the past history has been justified for reasons we would no longer accept. For instance, one of the reasons history holds its place in current education is because earlier leaders believed that a knowledge of certain historical facts helped distinguish the educated from the uneducated; the person who could reel off the date of the Norman conquest of England (1066) or the name of the person who came up with the theory of evolution at about the same time that Darwin did (Wallace) was deemed superior—a better candidate for law school or even a business promotion. Knowledge of historical facts has been used as a screening device in many societies, from China to the United States, and the habit is still with us to some extent. Unfortunately, this use can encourage mindless memorization—a real but not very appealing aspect of the discipline. History should be studied because it is essential to individuals and to society, and because it harbors beauty. There are many ways to discuss the real functions of the subject—as there are many different historical talents and many different paths to historical meaning. All definitions of history's utility, however, rely on two fundamental facts.

History Helps Us Understand People and Societies

In the first place, history offers a storehouse of information about how people and societies behave. Understanding the operations of people and societies is difficult, though a number of disciplines make the attempt. An exclusive reliance on current data would needlessly handicap our efforts. How can we evaluate war if the nation is at peace—unless we use historical materials? How can we understand genius, the influence of technological innovation, or the role that beliefs play in shaping family life, if we don't use what we know about experiences in the past? Some social scientists attempt to formulate laws or theories about human behavior. But even these recourses depend on historical information, except for in limited, often artificial cases in which experiments can be devised to determine how people act. Major aspects of a society's operation, like mass elections, missionary activities, or military alliances, cannot be set up as precise experiments. Consequently, history must serve, however imperfectly, as our laboratory, and data from the past must serve as our most vital evidence in the unavoidable quest to figure out why our complex species behaves as it does in societal settings. This, fundamentally, is why we cannot stay away from history: it offers the only extensive evidential base for the contemplation and analysis of how societies function, and people need to have some sense of how societies function simply to run their own lives. History Helps Us Understand Change and

How the Society We Live in Came to Be The second reason history is inescapable as a subject of serious study follows closely on the first. The past causes the present, and so the future. Any time we try to know why something happened—whether a shift in political party dominance in the American Congress, a major change in the teenage suicide rate, or a war in the Balkans or the Middle East—we have to look for factors that took shape earlier. Sometimes fairly recent history will suffice to explain a major development, but often we need to look further back to identify the causes of change. Only through studying history can we grasp how things change; only through history can we begin to comprehend the factors that cause change; and only through history can we understand what elements of an institution or a society persist despite change.

The Importance of History in Our Own Lives

These two fundamental reasons for studying history underlie more specific and quite diverse uses of history in our own lives. History well told is beautiful. Many of the historians who most appeal to the general reading public know the importance of dramatic and skillful writing—as well as of accuracy. Biography and military history appeal in part because of the tales they contain. History as art and entertainment serves a real purpose, on aesthetic grounds but also on the level of human understanding. Stories well done are stories that reveal how people and societies have actually functioned, and they prompt thoughts about the human experience in other times and places. The same aesthetic and humanistic goals inspire people to immerse themselves in efforts to reconstruct quite remote pasts, far removed from immediate, present-day utility. Exploring what historians sometimes call the "pastness of the past"—the ways people in distant ages constructed their lives—involves a sense of beauty and excitement, and ultimately another perspective on human life and society.

History Contributes to Moral Understanding

History also provides a terrain for moral contemplation. Studying the stories of individuals and situations in the past allows a student of history to test his or her own moral sense, to hone it against some of the real complexities individuals have faced in difficult settings. People who have weathered adversity not just in some work of fiction, but in real, historical circumstances can provide inspiration. "History teaching by example" is one phrase that describes this use of a study of the past—a study not only of certifiable heroes, the great men and women of history who successfully worked through moral dilemmas, but also of more ordinary people who provide lessons in courage, diligence, or constructive protest.

History Provides Identity

History also helps provide identity, and this is unquestionably one of the reasons all modern nations encourage its teaching in some form. Historical data include evidence about how families, groups, institutions and whole countries were formed and about how they have evolved while retaining cohesion. For many Americans, studying the history of one's own family is the most obvious use of history, for it provides facts about genealogy and (at a slightly more complex level) a basis for understanding how the family has interacted with larger historical change. Family identity is established and confirmed. Many institutions, businesses, communities, and social units, such as ethnic groups in the United States, use history for similar identity purposes. Merely defining the group in the present pales against the possibility of forming an identity based on a rich past. And of course nations use identity history as well—and sometimes abuse it. Histories that tell the national story, emphasizing distinctive features of the national experience, are meant to drive home an understanding of national values and a commitment to national loyalty.

Studying History Is Essential for Good Citizenship

A study of history is essential for good citizenship. This is the most common justification for the place of history in school curricula. Sometimes advocates of citizenship history hope merely to promote national identity and loyalty through a history spiced by vivid stories and lessons in individual success and morality. But the importance of history for citizenship goes beyond this narrow goal and can even challenge it at some points.

History that lays the foundation for genuine citizenship returns, in one sense, to the essential uses of the study of the past. History provides data about the emergence of national institutions, problems, and values—it's the only significant storehouse of such data available. It offers evidence also about how nations have interacted with other societies, providing international and comparative perspectives essential for responsible citizenship. Further, studying history helps us understand how recent, current, and prospective changes that affect the lives of citizens are emerging or may emerge and what causes are involved. More important, studying history encourages habits of mind that are vital for responsible public behavior, whether as a national or community leader, an informed voter, a petitioner, or a simple observer.

What Skills Does a Student of History Develop?

What does a well-trained student of history, schooled to work on past materials and on case studies in social change, learn how to do? The list is manageable, but it contains several overlapping categories.

The Ability to Assess Evidence: The study of history builds experience in dealing with and assessing various kinds of evidence—the sorts of evidence historians use in shaping the most accurate pictures of the past that they can. Learning how to interpret the statements of past political leaders—one kind of evidence—helps form the capacity to distinguish between the objective and the self-serving among statements made by present-day political leaders. Learning how to combine different kinds of evidence—public statements, private records, numerical data, visual materials—develops the ability to make coherent arguments based on a variety of data. This skill can also be applied to information encountered in everyday life.

The Ability to Assess Conflicting Interpretations: Learning history means gaining some skill in sorting through diverse, often conflicting interpretations. Understanding how societies work—the central goal of historical study—is inherently imprecise, and the same certainly holds true for understanding what is going on in the present day. Learning how to identify and evaluate conflicting interpretations is an essential citizenship skill for which history, as an often-contested laboratory of human experience, provides training. This is one area in which the full benefits of historical study sometimes clash with the narrower uses of the past to construct identity. Experience in examining past situations provides a constructively critical sense that can be applied to partisan claims about the glories of national or group identity. The study of history in no sense undermines loyalty or commitment, but it does teach the need for assessing arguments, and it provides opportunities to engage in debate and achieve perspective.

Experience in Assessing Past Examples of Change: Experience in assessing past examples of change is vital to understanding change in society today—it's an essential skill in what we are regularly told is our "ever-changing world." Analysis of change means developing some capacity for determining the magnitude and significance of change, for some changes are more fundamental than others. Comparing particular changes to relevant examples from the past helps students of history develop this capacity. The ability to identify the continuities that always accompany even the most dramatic changes also comes from studying history, as does the skill to determine probable causes of change. Learning history helps one figure out, for example, if

one main factor—such as a technological innovation or some deliberate new policy—accounts for a change or whether, as is more commonly the case, a number of factors combine to generate the actual change that occurs.

Historical study, in sum, is crucial to the promotion of that elusive creature, the well-informed citizen. It provides basic factual information about the background of our political institutions and about the values and problems that affect our social well-being. It also contributes to our capacity to use evidence, assess interpretations, and analyze change and continuities. No one can ever quite deal with the present as the historian deals with the past—we lack the perspective for this feat; but we can move in this direction by applying historical habits of mind, and we will function as better citizens in the process.

History Is Useful in the World of Work

History is useful for work. Its study helps create good businesspeople, professionals, and political leaders. The number of explicit professional jobs for historians is considerable, but most people who study history do not become professional historians. Professional historians teach at various levels, work in museums and media centers, do historical research for businesses or public agencies, or participate in the growing number of historical consultancies. These categories are important—indeed vital—to keep the basic enterprise of history going, but most people who study history use their training for broader professional purposes. Students of history find their experience directly relevant to jobs in a variety of careers as well as to further study in fields like law and public administration. Employers often deliberately seek students with the kinds of capacities historical study promotes. The reasons are not hard to identify: students of history acquire, by studying different phases of the past and different societies in the past, a broad perspective that gives them the range and flexibility required in many work situations. They develop research skills, the ability to find and evaluate sources of information, and the means to identify and evaluate diverse interpretations. Work in history also improves basic writing and speaking skills and is directly relevant to many of the analytical requirements in the public and private sectors, where the capacity to identify, assess, and explain trends is essential. Historical study is unquestionably an asset for a variety of work and professional situations, even though it does not, for most students, lead as directly to a particular job slot, as do some technical fields. But history particularly prepares students for the long haul in their careers, its qualities helping adaptation and advancement beyond entry-level employment. There is no denying that in our society many people who are drawn to historical study worry about relevance. In our

changing economy, there is concern about job futures in most fields. Historical training is not, however, an indulgence; it applies directly to many careers and can clearly help us in our working lives.

Why study history? The answer is because we virtually must, to gain access to the laboratory of human experience. When we study it reasonably well, and so acquire some usable habits of mind, as well as some basic data about the forces that affect our own lives, we emerge with relevant skills and an enhanced capacity for informed citizenship, critical thinking, and simple awareness. The uses of history are varied. Studying history can help us develop some literally "salable" skills, but its study must not be pinned down to the narrowest utilitarianism. Some history—that confined to personal recollections about changes and continuities in the immediate environment—is essential to function beyond childhood. Some history depends on personal taste, where one finds beauty, the joy of discovery, or intellectual challenge. Between the inescapable minimum and the pleasure of deep commitment comes the history that, through cumulative skill in interpreting the unfolding human record, provides a real grasp of how the world works.

VALUES OF TEACHING HISTORY

Writers have been expressing diametrically opposite views regarding the value of history as a subject of study in schools. There are others, who claim that history is a school of morals. It makes people wise. It can help in the training of able statesmen and intelligent and useful citizens. It trains the mental faculties such as critical thinking, memory and imagination. It quickens and deepens understanding, gives an insight into the working of social, economic, political and technological forces.

a. Disciplinary value
b. Informative value
c. Educational value
d. Ethical value
e. Cultural value
f. Political value
g. Nationalistic value
h. Internationalistic value

i. Vocational value

Questions

1. Explain the nature and scope of history.
2. Critically analyse the need and importance of teaching history.
3. Describe the values of teaching history.
4. Give detail explanation of nature and scope of teaching history.
5. Write about an objective of teaching history.

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UNIT II PLANNING FOR INSTRUCTION

At the end of the course, the student teachers will be able to:

- Understand the steps in planning a lesson and setting lesson goals
- Draw designing a lesson plan
- Understand bloom taxonomy of educational objectives
- Know different types of test items
- Understand formative evaluation procedures

INTROUDUCTION

An organized planning always plays a substantial role in the execution of any task in our life. This is why, planning is a must for the successful execution of a task or a project. It not only caters to the proper realization of the aims or purposes of doing that task but also helps in proper utilization of the time and energy on the part of human and material resources. The same is equally true for the process of teaching-learning. The teachers who plan their work properly are quite efficient and effective in their teaching task. This is why; a history teacher should concentrate on a wise planning of his teaching and instructional work carried along with his students during the whole session.

MEANING OF INSTRUCTION

At the time of imparting instruction, i.e., teaching-learning of a particular lesson, unit or sub-unit of history, a teacher has to place before him some definite and very specific objectives which would be attained within a specified classroom period and resources in hand. Through these specific classroom teaching-learning objectives, known as instructional objectives, a teacher tires to bring desired changes in the behavior of his pupils. In this way, the term instructional objectives in relation to the teaching of history may be defined as a group of statements formulated by a teacher for describing what the pupils are expected to do or will be able to do once the process of classroom instruction is over.

In fact, what a teacher obtains as instructional output in the teaching-learning process are nothing but some type of behavioural change in the pupils that may be expected as a result of the instruction related to a particular lesson, unit or sub-unit of the subject. Instructional objectives are thus nothing but description of the pupil's terminal behavior expected out of the ongoing classroom instruction.

DESIGNING A UNIT PLAN

Unit planning stand for the planning of the instructional work of the session by dividing the prescribed syllabus into some well-defined and meaningful units.

Thus, by the term unit we may understand one of the most complete and meaningful sub-divisions of prescribed course of a subject, centred around a single principle, process, problem or purpose that is capable of helping in the realization of the desired teaching-learning of the subject.

Carter V. Good: "Unit may be described as an organization of various activities, experiences and types of learning around a central problem or purpose developed comparatively by a group of pupils under teacher-leadership."

IMPORTANCE AND ADVANTAGES OF UNIT PLANNING

- The syllabus in terms of contents and learning experiences to be covered in the whole session is suitably divided into units in view of the time available for the teaching of history. It helps in the proper coverage of the syllabus within the available time and duration of the session.
- Unit planning has a proper provision for the diagnosis of the learning difficulties of the students and subsequent remedial instruction.
- Units represent the unified and integrated wholes of the meaningful and purposeful content material and learning experiences. The organization of the subject matter and learning experiences into such meaningful wholes is quite advantages both from the educational as well as psychological angles to the students.

DESIGNING LESSON PLAN

In simple words lesson planning in history means the planning of a daily lesson related to a particular unit of the subject history to be covered by the history teacher in a specific school period for the realization of some stipulated instructional objectives. It is a sort of theoretical chalking out of the details of the journey that a history teacher is going to perform practically in the classroom along with his students.

Now the work of chalking out the details of such journey or preparation on the part of a teacher for executing the task of actual classroom teaching may be done either at the cognitive level or prefer in the written form by writing a lesson plan.

In this planning, a teacher of history may have to pay considerations to the following essential aspects:

- Broader goals of objectives of the subject history
- Setting and defining of the classroom objectives related to the present unit of history.
- Organization of the relevant subject matter to be covered in the given lesson for the realization of the set objectives.
- The decision about the method of presentation of the subject matter, teaching strategies, classroom interaction and management.
- Appropriate provision for evaluation and feedback.

HOW TO PLAN LESSON FOR TEACHING HISTORY

The educationists and researchers in the field of pedagogy have suggested, from time to time, some appropriate guidelines for the planning of these daily lessons. However, the schedule suggested by the renowned educationist Herbart in the shape of his famous five steps has remained quite popular for the planning in almost all the subjects of school curriculum. The five steps suggested by him for the lesson planning are as below: Preparation, Presentation, Comparison and association, Generalization and application.

MODEL LESSON PLAN

Name of the Student teacher: XXXXXXXX

Name of the School: XXXXXXXX **Class Section/Session: XXXXX**

Subject: Teaching of History **Unit: VI**

Topic : India's First War of Independece-1857 **Date: XXXX**

Objectives	The student teacher will be able to : i) Know the names of the main heroes of the first war of independence. ii) Understand India's first war of independence was fought. iii) Describe the causes of the first war of independence. iv) Analyze the factors or causes leading to the failure of the war. v) Recall about the main events of the first war of independence in detail.
Instructional Materials	i) Pictures/charts of the main heroes of the first war of independence ii) Model of army weapons iii) Indian outline map iv) Power point presentation
Previous knowledge of the students	1. When did India get freedom? 2. Who was ruling India before its independence in 1947? 3. What did Indians do for getting them freed from the British subjugation?
	The teacher raises the following questions to motivate the students to study the lesson**.** 1. Are you know Independence war? 2. Could say any independence country name in the world? 3. Who was ruled before independence of India? After this process the teacher writes the lesson title **"India First war of Independence-1857"** on the black board.

Content/Concept	Specification of Behavioural changes	Learning Experiences (Teacher/Learner Activities)	Evaluation
The main causes of the war: **Political cause:** Lord Dalhousie new rules and regulations against for Indian rulers. **Military Causes**: Being paid less salary to Indian soldiers – Indian soldiers could be sent overseas for fighting. **Religious and Social Causes:** Widow marriage – Ban on sati Partha. **Causes of failure of the war**: Its immature initiation earlier than the scheduled date of 31st May, 1857.	Listen, Observes Understands, Clarifies Describes Analyzes	All these factors and causes presents before the students through a chart or transparency. This also explains, discusses and shows in the map to the students for their clear grasping. Students listen to the teacher and carefully observe the graphic aids for acquaints with the political causes of the expansions of the war. After power point presentation, this fully explains and discusses with the students for proper clarification and reflective thinking by the students. The students cooperate with the teacher in responding to the question asked by the teacher during and after the presentation of the social and religious causes.	Which state was ruled by Rani Lakshmi bai in the first war of Indian independence? Who was the governor general of during first war of Indian Independence? What are religious and social causes for begun first war of Indian Independence?

Its limitation to northern India only.		The teacher and students analyzes the following points: lack of single purpose or goal; lack of resources; lack of proper organization and leardership.	
Discussion Method	Clarifies	The teacher is giving a topic to the students for discussion. **"Economic Causes of the first war of Indian Independence"** Students take active part in knowing about the economic causes for the resentment growing among the Indian masses against the British rulers by actively responding to the questions put to them by the teacher.	Which foreign traders occupied Indian business? Who was destroyed Indian economy in 1857?
Summary	Recalls	The teacher utilizes power point presentation for summary of the lesson.	

Follow up activities:

1. **Draw a time line chart and mention important events from 1850 to 1900.**

Signature of the Guide **Signature of the Student-teacher**

TAXONOMY OF OBJECTIVES IN THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN

Knowledge : it represents the lowest level of the objective belonging to the cognitive domain and primarily aims for the acquisition of the knowledge concerning:

a) Specific facts, terminology, methods and process and

b) Generalized principles, theories and structures.

The knowledge objectives mainly call for the recall and recognition level of one's memory and therefore, their evaluation is primarily made through a simple recall or multiple choice type questions.

Comprehensions: it is based on knowledge. If there is no knowledge, there will be no comprehension. On the ladder of the acquisition of cognitive abilities, its level is little higher than the knowledge. Specifically, it means the basic understanding of the facts, ideas, methods, processes, principles or theories, etc.,

Application: the knowledge is useful only when it is possible to employ it. The application of an idea, principle or theory may be made possible only when it is grasped and understood properly. Therefore, the category of application automatically involves both the earlier categories, ie., knowledge and comprehension. Under this objective the learner is required to acquire the ability to make use of the abstract or generalized ideas, principles in the particular and concrete situations.

Analysis: analysis refers to an understanding at a higher level. It is a complex cognitive process that involves knowledge, comprehension as well as application of an idea, fact, principle, or theory. Through the realization of these objectives the learner is expected to acquire the necessary skill in drawing inferences, discriminating, making choices and selection, and separating apart the different components or elements of a concept, object or principle.

Synthesis: the objectives belonging to this category aim to help the learner to acquire necessary ability to combine the different elements or components of an idea, object, concept, or principle to produce an integrated picture, i.e a figure of wholeness. As a result he may be expected to propagate or present a theory or principle by combining different approaches, ideas, view-points. He may arrive at something new or originate some novel things or ideas after synthesizing all what is known to him earlier. In this way, it calls for creativity aspect of the cognitive abilities

and therefore may be considered definitely a higher level of learning involving knowledge, comprehension, application as well as analysis.

Evaluation: this category of objectives aims to develop in the learner the ability to make proper value judgment about what has been acquired by him in the form of knowledge, understanding, application, analysis and synthesis. It represents definitely the highest level of the objectives belonging to the cognitive domain and involves all the five categories described earlier. As a result, the learner is expected to take proper decision about the quantitative and qualitative value of a particular idea, object, principle or theory. He may arrive at an appropriate decision about the matter and methods by making use of all the cognitive abilities acquired through the earlier categories of cognitive objectives.

TAXONOMY OF OBJECTIVES IN THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

The affective domain describes learning objectives that emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simple attention to selected phenomena to complex but internally consistent qualities of character and conscience. We found a large number of such objectives in the literature expressed as interests, attitudes, appreciations, values, and emotional sets or biases.

Here are descriptions of each step in the taxonomy, starting at the most basic level.

Receiving is being aware of or sensitive to the existence of certain ideas, material, or phenomena and being willing to tolerate them. Examples include: to differentiate, to accept, to listen (for), to respond to.

Responding is committed in some small measure to the ideas, materials, or phenomena involved by actively responding to them. Examples are: to comply with, to follow, to commend, to volunteer, to spend leisure time in, to acclaim.

Valuing is willing to be perceived by others as valuing certain ideas, materials, or phenomena. Examples include: to increase measured proficiency in, to relinquish, to subsidize, to support, to debate.

Organization is to relate the value to those already held and bring it into a harmonious and internally consistent philosophy. Examples are: to discuss, to theorize, to formulate, to balance, to examine.

Characterization by value or value set is to act consistently in accordance with the values he or she has internalized. Examples include: to revise, to require, being rated high in the value, to avoid, to resist, to manage, to resolve.

TAXONOMY OF OBJECTIVES IN THE PSYCHOMOTOR DOMAIN

The classification, of psychomotor objectives, was first Simpson(1966) and was later modified by Harrow(1972). Those given by Harrow are being described in the following under six different categories arranged from the lowest to the highest levels of functioning.

An alternative taxonomy in the psychomotor domain has been proposed by Dr. R.H. Dave(1969).

Imitation: The learner observes and then imitates an action. These behaviors may be crude and imperfect. The expectation that the individual is able to watch and then repeat an action.

Manipulation: Performance of an action with written or verbal directions but without a visual model or direct observation. The action may be performed crudely or without neuromuscular coordination at this stage. Notice that the action verbs are the same as those for the imitation stage. The difference is that these actions are performed with the aid of written and verbal instruction, not visual demonstration.

Precision: Requires performance of some action independent of either written instructions or a visual model. One is expected to reproduce an action with control and to reduce errors to a minimum.

Articulation: Requires the display of coordination of a series of related acts by establishing the appropriate sequence and performing the acts accurately, with control as well as with speed and timing.

Naturalization: High level of proficiency is necessary. The behavior is performed with the least expenditure of energy, becomes routine, automatic, and spontaneous.

TYPES OF TEST ITEMS

Here mentioned such types of test items.

1. Standardized tests(usually written test with objective type of questions)

2. Teacher made informal test

    I. Written paper and pencil tests

        a. Essay type tests

        b. Short answers type tests

        c. Objective type tests

    II. Oral test

    III. Practical test.

CONSTRUCTION OF TEST-ITEMS FOR FORMATIVE EVALUATION IN CLASS

The formative evaluation may be carried out both in formal (e.g., checklists, quizzes, question-answers, assignments and tests) as well as informal (e.g., observations, listening to students comments and conversations) way. Construction of test items is a serious job for a teacher, it requires adequate planning beforehand. Usually this work can be properly accomplished through the following steps:

1. **Setting objectives**: the first and the most important step is to make oneself clear about the objectives for which one is going to frame the test. In all situations the objectives of the test should be properly decided and defined in terms of specific behavior changes expected from the pupils as a result of studying a particular unit or course of study.

2. **Coverage of the syllabus or contents:** the contents to be covered in the test are directly dependent upon what has been taught by the teacher. The teacher should keep an outline of the learning experience given by him. Although no major unit or subtopic of what has been taught should be left, yet it is not essential at all to ask for each and every thing discussed by the teacher in the class. In other words, a reasonable coverage or various aspects of the learning experiences given to the students should be the goal.

3. **Decision about the types of items or questions:** decision about the types of questions to be set in the test paper is also an essential aspect of its construction.

As pointed out earlier, all the three forms-essay type, short answer type and objective type-should find place in a good test.

4. **Decision about the time:** The total time given to the students for giving responses to the items of test should also be decided.

5. **Preparation of the blueprint:** this is the most crucial step in the planning of the test. Blue print is a sort of the decision for the test paepr in which we present detailed question wise distribution of marks over specific objectives, topics and forms of questions. Therefore, all the factors mentioned in the above four steps, i.e. objectives to be tested, contents to be covered, types of questions to be asked, and total time to be given, should be kept in mind while preparing the blueprint or design of the test.

6. **Item formats:** item or questions to be included in the test require proper organization and arrangement.

7. **Try-out and item analysis:** After planning, as suggested here, the test so prepared must be administered in an appropriate sample of students for its try out and suggested task of item analysis.

8. **Designing or preparing the final form of the test:** As a result of try out and item analysis of the test, the improper items can be declared form the test more function able. This final form should then be printed as the situation demands, for the needed evaluation of the students test.

9. **Preparation of scoring key:** to ensure objectivity in scoring, it is advisable to have a pre-determind way of scoring. It is not only the objective type items that require an advance preparation of a scoring key, but also in case of easy and short answer type questions the answer and procedure for scoring should be predetermined.

Questions

1. Write lesson plan steps and draw a lesson plan for any one lesson in history from IX standard.

2. Critically analyse bloom taxonomy of educational objectives.

3. Describe psychomotor domain and its different categories.

4. Explain different types of achievement test.
5. Illustrate on formative evaluation procedures.

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1. Arora.K.L. (2005). Teaching of History, Ludhiana: Tandon Publications.
2. Kochhar.S.K. (2006). Teaching of History, New Delhi: Sterling Publishers.
3. Mangal.S.K. and Uma Mangal. (2008). Teaching of social studies, New Delhi: PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd.

https://www.historians.org/

UNIT –III PRACTICING THE TEACHING SKILLS IN HISTORY

At the end of the course, the student teachers will be able to:

- understand major teaching skills
- practice and learn mini-lesson with multiple teaching skills
- understand major steps in teaching in mini-lesson
- develop integration of teaching skills
- know importance of observation and feedback

Meaning of Teaching

The analytical concept of teaching considers teaching as a complex skill comprising of various specific teaching skills. Those teaching skills can be defined as a set of interrelated component teaching behaviours for the realization of specific instructional objectives. These component teaching behaviours may be modified through the exercise done in practicing the teaching skills, and thus a student teacher may be able to acquire necessary teaching skills for becoming an effective teacher.

Understanding major teaching skills:

I. Introducing

II. Explaining

III. Questioning

IV. Varying the Stimulus

V. Non-verbal cues

VI. Reinforcement

VII. Closure and fluency in communication

I. Skill of Introducing the Lesson

The skill of introducing the lesson may be defined as proficiency in the use of verbal and non-verbal behavior, teaching aids and appropriate devices for making the pupils realize the need of studying the lesson by establishing positive and affective rapport with them. This skill involves the following component behaviours:

- Student teacher is able to utilize previous knowledge and experiences of his pupils.
- He is able to maintain continuity of the ideas and information in the introduction of lesson.

Thus, utilization of previous experiences, use of appropriate devices, maintenance of continuity in the main parts of the introduction, and relevancy of the verbal and non-verbal behavior are the major component behaviours or constituents of the skill of introducing lesson.

II. Skill of Explaining

A teacher has to learn the skill of explaining in order to make the pupils understand many Ideas, concepts or principles that need explanation. Explanation is nothing but a few interrelated appropriate statements. Thus the skill of explaining may be defined as the art of learning the use of interrelated appropriate statements by the teacher for making the pupils understand the desired concept, phenomenon or principle.

It is by all means a verbal skill and has two main aspects as follows:

- The selection of appropriate statements relevant to the age, maturity, previous knowledge, and concept of the concept or phenomenon.
- The skill of interrelating and using the selected statements for the proper understanding of the concept or phenonmenon.

Components of the skill: the skill of explaining a concept or phenomenon consists of two types of behavior – desirable and undesirable. In the practice of the skill, the occurrence of the desirable behavior is to be increased whereas the undesirable behaviours are to be decreased and extinguished.

I. Desirable behaviours: using appropriate beginning and concluding statements, using explaining links, covering essential points, testing pupils understanding.

II. Undersirable behaviours: using irrelevant statements, lacking continuity in statements, lacking fluency and using inappropriate vocabulary, vague words and phrases.

III. Skill of Questioning

Questioning skill may be defined as a teaching skill helpful in putting the desired meaningful, clear and concise, grammatically correct, simple and quite straight-forward questions to the students in a classroom teaching-learning situation for the purpose of drawing their attention on one or the other teaching points, making them active and alert to the ongoing teaching-learning process, testing their understanding and comprehension at various stages of the lesson, and motivating as well as providing them opportunity for the proper expression of their thoughts, imagination, recall and recognition and creative and constructive faculties.

Elements of questioning skill: the elements related to the questioning skill may be properly discussed in the following manner by placing them into their two fold division namely the framing of questions and the presentation of these questions to the students.

Questions can serve their purposes well when these are framed with necessary care and preparation on the part of a teacher by taking cognizance of the following things:

I. Relevance

II. Clarity

III. Precision or conciseness

IV. Specification

V. Grammatically correct

Presentation of questions in the class: questioning skill asks for the proper presentation of the questions in the history class by a history teacher. It calls ususally for paying attention over the components as follows:

I. Voice of the teacher

II. Speed and pause

III. Distribution of questions

IV. Teacher behavior

IV. Skill of Stimulus Variation

Generally a teacher makes use of an appropriate stimulus for evoking the desired response/responses. However, a continued use of such stimulus may induce disinterest and disattention on account of many physiological and psychological factors. The stimulus variation, i.e., variation or change in the stimuli available in learner's environment, provides an answer. Thus skill of stimulus variation may be defined as a set of behaviours for brining desirable change of variation in the stimuli used to secure and sustain pupils attention towards classroom activities.

Components of the skill: the skill of introducing change or variation in the attention capturing stimuli in a classroom comprises of the following component behaviours:

I) movements,

II) gestures,

III) changes in voice,

IV) focusing,

V) change in the interaction styles,

VI) pausing,

VII) aural-visual switching and

VIII) physical involvement of the students.

V. Skill of Reinforcement

Reinforcement as a technique belongs to the area of psychology of learning and helps in influencing the response or behaviours of the learners. There are two types of reinforcement, viz. positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement. While the use of the former contributes towards strengthening the desirable responses or behaviours,the latter are used for weakening or eliminating the undesirable responses or behaviours. For the better results, the use of the positive reinforcement is to be increased while that of negative reinforcement is to be decreased or eliminated.

In view of the above discussion, the skill of reinforcement may be defined as the are of learning the judicious and effective use of reinforcement by a teacher for influencing the pupil's behavior in the desired direction directed towards maximum pupils participation for realizing the better results in the teaching-learning process.

Components of the Skill: the components of the skill of reinforcement may be listed as follows:

Desirable behaviours:

I. use of positive verbal reinforcers

II. use of positive non-verbal reinforcers

III. use of extra verbal reinforcers

Undesirable behaviours:

I. use of negative verbal reinforcers

II. use of negative non-verbal reinforcers

III. inappropriate or wrong use of reinforcement

Gestures are **non-verbal cues** provided in the oral message given by the teacher for enhancing the value of the message. They are usually made with the help of the movements of eye, hand, head, body and facial expression like extending the hands in a typical shape to indicate how big or small an object is.

MODEL MINI-LESSON PLAN

Name of the student teacher: XXXXXX Name of the School: XXXXX

Class/Section and Session: XXXXXXX Subject: History

Unit : II Topic: Cultural Heritage of Tamil Nadu

Motivation	The teacher has been motivating the students to study a new lesson, and asking few questions related to new lesson: 1) What are the religion names you know? Hindu, Christian, Islam. Etc., 2) What are the festivals celebrated by Hindu religions people? Diwali, Pongal, Vinayagar Chadurthi,

	etc., 3) What are the festivals celebrated by Christian religions people? Christmas, Good Friday, All souls day, etc., 4) On the festival occasions are we sharing foods, sweets with neighbors home? Yes 5) Could you say any famous art and architecture place in Tamil Nadu? Mahapalipuram, good if any? Today, let us see the lesson "Cultural Heritage of Tamil Nadu"
Presentation	The teacher has been presenting the lesson to the students. He/She is being written the lesson title on the Black Board and students coarsely read the lesson title. Flash cards are being used to display on important Key terms on the lesson. - Administrative System - Society - Sangam Literature - Religion - Art and Architecture The teacher has been displaying religious festival pictures to the students. - Diwali - Christmas - Ramzan
Interaction	The teacher is being clarified students doubts with help of power point and following questions are being raised by the students. 1) How many major epics are there in sangam literature? Five major epics ie., Silapadhikaram, Manimekalai, Kundalakesi, Valayapathi and Sivagasinthamani. 2) What were the revenues of the kingdom? War excise, tolls, duties on salt, periodical gifts and tributes. The teacher is being given small title to the students for peer group discussion under his monitoring. "Siddha system of medicine" "Sangam music"

Reflection	The teacher should encourage the students to think and rethink about the lesson, as well as he/she can raise such questions. 1) Name the important temples constructed during Chola period? Tanjore, Gangai Konda chola puram etc., The small title is being given to the students for group discussion under the monitoring by the teacher. "Five Thinais"
Summing up	The teacher is being used power point presentation for synthesis of the whole lesson.

Student Teacher

Signature of the Observer

TAMILNADU TEACHERS EDUCATION UNIVERSITY

MINI-TEACHING PRACTICE: INTEGRATION OF TEACHING SKILLS

ASSESSMENT BY PEERS / TEACHER EDUCATOR

Note: Put a tick mark ( ) against the appropriate mastery level of the skill

Score Value: Average = 1, Good =2, Very Good=3

Name of the Student-teacher: xxxxx Duration: 20 Minutes

Teaching Skill	Average	Good	Very Good	Total
Introducing				
Explaining				
Questioning				
Varying the Stimulus				
Non-verbal cues				
Reinforcement				
Closure				
Fluency in communication				
Total				

Range of Score: 8 - 24

OVERALL ASSESSMENT OF MINI TEACHING

Average		Good		Very Good	

Interpretation of scores: Average : 8 Good : 9 -16 Very Good : 17 -24

Signature of the Observer

TAMILNADU TEACHERS EDUCATION UNIVERSITY

PRACTICING MINI-LESSON: INTEGRATING THE STEPS IN TEACHING

ASSESSMENT BY PEERS / TEACHER EDUCATOR

Note: Put a tick mark ( ) against the appropriate mastery level of the steps Score

Value: Average = 1, Good = 2, Very Good= 3

Name of the Student-teacher: xxxxx Duration: 20 Minutes

Teaching Skill	Average	Good	Very Good	Total
Motivation				
Presentation				
Interaction				
Reflection				
Summing up				
Total				

Range of Score: 5 - 15

OVERALL ASSESSMENT OF MINI TEACHING

Average		Good		Very Good	

Interpretation of scores: Average : 5 Good : 6-10 Very Good : 11-15

Signature of the Observer

Questions

1. Discuss the importance of major teaching skills in teaching.
2. Define the skill reinforcement. Describe its essential components and present a suitable mini-lesson plan for practicing this skill.
3. What you understand by the skill of stimulus variation? Illustrate the process through a mini-lesson.
4. What is mini-teaching ? Discuss its merits and limitations for teachers training programme.
5. Describing the skill of questioning along with its different components. How can this skill be practiced through mini-teaching?

References:

Arora.K.L. (2005). Teaching of History, Ludhiana: Tandon Publications.

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UNIT - IV METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY

Objectives:

At the end of the course, the student teachers will be able to:

1. explain the various methods of teaching history.
2. identify the different teacher centered methods of teaching.
3. analyse the recent trends in teaching and learning history.
4. adopt the small group interactive learning methods.
5. discuss the various learner centered methods .

Introduction

Different methods of teaching mathematics have been proposed by different educators. Knowledge of these methods may help in working out a teaching-learning strategy. It is not an educational sound for a teacher to commit himself to any particular method. A teacher should adopt an approach considering the nature of the children, their interests and maturity and the resources available. The merits and demerits of various method listed.

A teacher has to make uses of various kind of methods, devices and techniques in teaching. It is not appropriate for a teacher to commit to one particular method. A teacher should adopt a teaching approach after considering the nature of the children, their interests and maturity and the resources available. Every method has certain merits and few demerits and it's the work of a teacher to decide which method is best for the students.

Teacher – centered Methods:

1. Lecture Method
2. Demonstration Method
3. Team Teaching

(1) Lecture method

The lecture method is the most widely used form of presentation. Every teacher has to know how to develop and present a lecture. They also must understand the scopes and limitations of this method.Lectures are used to introduce new topics, summarizing ideas, showing relationships between theory and practice, reemphasizing main points, etc. This method is adaptable to many different settings (small or large groups).

• It may be used to introduce a unit or a complete course.

• Finally, lectures can be effectively combined with other teaching methods to add meaning and direction.

The lecture teaching is favorable for most teachers because it allows some active participation by the students. The success of the teaching lecture depends upon the teacher's ability to communicate effectively with the class. However in this method the feedback is not very obvious and thus the teacher must develop a keen perception for subtle responses from the class-facial expressions, manner of taking notes and apparent interest or disinterest in the lesson. The successful teacher will be able to interpret the meaning of these reactions and adjust the lesson accordingly.

Preparing the Teaching Lecture :

1. Planning
2. Rehearsing
3. Delivering a lecture
4. Use of notes

Planning: The following four steps are followed in the planning phase of preparation:

• Establishing the objective and desired outcomes;

• Researching the subject;

• Organizing the material; and

• Planning productive classroom activities.

Rehearsing**:** After completing the preliminary planning and writing of the lesson plan, the teacher should rehearse the lecture to build self-confidence. It helps to smooth out to use notes, visual aids, and other instructional devices.

Delivering a lecture

In the teaching lecture, simple rather than complex words should be used whenever possible. The teacher should not use substandard English. If the subject matter includes technical terms, the teacher should clearly define each one so that no student is in doubt about its meaning. Whenever possible, the teacher should use specific words rather than general words.

Another way the teacher can add life to the lecture is to vary his or her tone of voice and pace of speaking. In addition, using sentences of different length also helps. To ensure clarity and variety, the teacher should normally use sentences of short and medium length.

For a teacher notes are must because they help to keep the lecture on track. The teacher should use them modestly and should make no effort to hide them from the

students. Notes may be written legibly or typed, and they should be placed where they can be consulted easily.

Advantages of the Lecture method

1. Gives chance for the teacher to expose students through all kinds of material.
2. Allows the teacher to precisely determine the aims, content, organization, pace and direction of a presentation.
3. Can be used to arouse interest in a subject.
4. Can complement and clarify text material.
5. Complements certain individual learning preferences.
6. Facilitates large-class communication.

Disadvantages of the Lecture Method

1. Places students in a passive rather than an active role, which hinders learning.
2. Encourages one-way communication; therefore, the lecturer must make a conscious effort to become aware of student problems and

student understanding of content without verbal feedback.

3. Requires a considerable amount of time for unguided student outside of the classroom to enable understanding and long-term retention of content.
4. Requires the teacher to have effective speaking skills.

(2) Demonstration Method

Defining demonstration of learning is complicated by the fact that educators use many different terms when referring to the general concept, and the terms may or may not be used synonymously from place to place. For example, the terms capstone exhibition, culminating exhibition, learning exhibition, exhibition of learning, performance exhibition, senior exhibition, or student exhibition may be used, in addition to capstone, capstone experience, capstone project, learning demonstration, performance demonstration, and many others. Educators may also create any number of homegrown terms for demonstrations of learning—far too many to catalog here.

Teachers not only use demonstrate specific learning concepts within the classroom, they can also participate in demonstration classrooms to help improve their own teaching strategies, which may or may not be demonstrative in nature. Although the literature is limited, studies show that the effects of demonstration classroom teachers includes a change of perspective in relating to students, more reflection in the teachers' own classroom strategies, and more personal responsibility for student learning.

Advantages of demonstration method

1. It helps in involving various sense to make learning permanent .
2. Through teacher behaviour is autocratic, he invites the cooperation of pupils in teaching learning process.
3. It develops interest in the learners and motivates them for their active participation
4. Any simple or complex sill becomes easy to understand.

Disadvantages of demonstration method

1. It can be used only for skill subject.
2. Only attention of the learners is invited towards the activity demonstrated. They are free to discuss about it.
3. Due to poor economic conditions of the government schools there is scarcity of audio Visual aids and equipment and the teacher are not so creative to produce handmade modes for demonstration.
4. There is a general lack of sincerity and diligence among teachers who which to
5. Complete the syllabus or syllabi at the earliest without putting sincere efforts.

(4) Team teaching

Team teaching involves a group of instructors working purposefully, regularly, and cooperatively to help a group of students of any age learn. Teachers together set goals for a course, design a syllabus, prepare individual lesson plans, teach students, and evaluate the results. They share insights, argue with one another, and perhaps even challenge students to decide which approach is better.

Teams can be single-discipline, inter disciplinary, or school-within-a-school teams that meet with a common set of students over an extended period of time. New teachers may be paired with veteran teachers. Innovations are encouraged, and modifications in class size, location, and time are permitted. Different personalities, voices, values, and approaches spark interest, keep attention, and prevent boredom.

The team-teaching approach allows for more interaction between teachers and students. Faculty evaluate students on their achievement of the learning goals; students evaluate faculty members on their teaching proficiency. Emphasis is on student and faculty growth, balancing

initiative and shared responsibility, specialization and broadening horizons, the clear and interesting presentation of content and student development, democratic participation and common expectations, and cognitive, affective, and behavioural outcomes. This combination of analysis, synthesis, critical thinking, and practical applications can be done on all levels of education, from kindergarten through graduate school.

Working as a team, teachers model respect for differences, inter dependence, and conflict-resolution skills. Team members together set the course goals and content, select common materials such as texts and films, and develop tests and final examinations for all students. They set the sequence of topics and supplemental materials. They also give their own interpretations of the materials and use their own teaching styles. The greater the agreement on common objectives and interests, the more likely that teaching will be interdependent and coordinated.

Teaching periods can be scheduled side by side or consecutively. For example, teachers of two similar classes may team up during the same or adjacent periods so that each teacher may focus on that phase of the course that he or she can best handle. Students can sometimes meet all together, sometimes in small groups supervised by individual teachers or teaching assistants, or they can work singly or together on projects in the library, laboratory, or fieldwork. Teachers can be at different sites, linked by video-conferencing, satellites, or the Internet.

Breaking out of the taken-for-granted single-subject, single-course, single-teacher pattern encourages other innovations and experiments. For example, students can be split along or across lines of sex, age, culture, or other interests, then recombined to stimulate reflection. Remedial programs and honours sections provide other attractive opportunities to make available appropriate and effective curricula for students with special needs or interests. They can address different study skills and learning techniques. Team teaching can also offset the danger of imposing ideas, values, and mindsets on minorities or less powerful ethnic groups. Teachers of different backgrounds can culturally enrich one another and students.

Advantages of Team Teaching

All the Students do not learn at the same rate. Periods of equal length are not appropriate for all learning situations. Educators are no longer dealing primarily with top-down transmission of the tried and true by the mature and experienced teacher to the young, immature, and

inexperienced pupil in the single-subject classroom. Schools are moving toward the inclusion of another whole dimension of learning. The lateral transmission to every sentient member of society of what has just been discovered, invented, created, manufactured, or marketed. For this, team members with different areas of expertise are invaluable.

Of course, team teaching is not the only answer to all problems plaguing teachers, students, and administrators. It requires planning, skilled management, willingness to risk change and even failure, humility, open-mindedness, imagination, and creativity. But the results are worth it.

Teamwork improves the quality of teaching as various experts approach the same topic from different angles: theory and practice, past and present, different genders or ethnic backgrounds. Teacher strengths are combined and weaknesses are remedied. Poor teachers can be observed, critiqued, and improved by the other team members in a nonthreatening, supportive context. The evaluation done by a team of teachers will be more insightful and balanced than the introspection and self-evaluation of an individual teacher.

Disadvantages of Team teaching

Team teaching is not always successful. Some teachers are rigid personality types or may be wedded to a single method. Some simply dislike the other teachers on the team. Some do not want to risk humiliation and discouragement at possible failures. Some fear they will be expected to do more work for the same salary. Others are unwilling to share the spotlight or their pet ideas or to lose total control.

Team teaching makes more demands on time and energy. Members must arrange mutually agreeable times for planning and evaluation. Discussions can be draining and group decisions take longer. Rethinking the courses to accommodate the team-teaching method is often inconvenient.

Opposition may also come from students, parents, and administrators who may resist change of any sort. Some students flourish in a highly structured environment that favours repetition. Some are confused by conflicting opinions. Too much variety may hinder habit formation.

Salaries may have to reflect the additional responsibilities undertaken by team members. Team leaders may need some form of bonus. Such costs could be met by enlarging some class sizes. Non- professional staff members could take over some responsibilities.

(5) Source Method

In the 20th century, there are large numbers of text books on history and students are so much used to them that they can little realize as to when and how they can be made to realize that the writers of these text books drew on the works, monuments, autobiographies and accounts of the travellers of foreign lands who visited their country in the past. Thus, they compiled history from various sources which they alone could understand. An investigation of the original sources of history by the students is called the source method.

Classification of sources

The sources of history are in fact the traces left by human beings in the past. They are found in various forms. "In some sense every thing that man now is or has is a trace left by the past, present, personal, memories, personal mental habits, present ideals, present social customs and institutions, language, literature, material products of human industry, physical man himself and the physical remains of men." There exist a variety of sources which are classified in different ways.

I) Literary sources:

- The vedas
- Epics
- The Dharmasastras
- The puranas
- The budhist literature
- The jain literature
- The arthashastra of Kautilya
- Patanjali Mahabhashya

II The Secular Literature

The secular literature may be divided into two classes:

i) The private literature

The private literature is that which is produced by an author in a private capacity. Such type of literature includes dramas, novels, poetry and prose. They provide useful information about the social, religious, economic and cultural life of the people.

ii) The official literature

The official literature is that which is produced in an official capacity, for example, despatches, firmans, etc. they throw proper light on the social and religious as well as the economic and political conditions of the age to which they belong.

Archaeology

It has contributed a lot particularly to the history of ancient India. Under the heading of archaeology, historical information can be obtained from inscriptions, numismatics and monuments.

The Role of the Teacher of History

Last the students should develop distaste for the subject; the teacher should take some precautions while using this method:

He should encourage the students to visit libraries frequently in order to find out some original documents.

Time for a discussion of the topics about which the students have read from original sources, should be set apart. They may be asked to write their own impressions and inferences.

The main aim of the teacher of history is not to make students research scholars in history but to put them on the road to research in history.

Whenever the documents are found in the languages other than one which the students know, he should their language problem, and as far as possible, makes things intelligible to them.

Limitations of this method

No single book is available which deals with a large variety of the topics of history. Students may have to fall on may resources for a single topic of history. The historical sources, especially for the boys of the school going age have not been compiled.

Most of the original sources of Indian history are available in Persian or Urudu or Sanskirit or Pali or Arabic whereas all these languages are foreign to students.

The use of the method is not possible at the junior stage. The result of its excessive use is doubtful even at high and the higher secondary stages.

Students, if asked to read the various sources of history, may develop a hatred for the subject, if they have not been given proper training in their handling.

Learner Centered Methods

Learner-centered methods are those methods are those methods where the focus of attraction is learners than teachers. It is through the involvement of learners the method develops. The recent psychological approaches in the classrooms give more importance to learner centered methods than teach centered methods.

(i) Project Method

Project method owes its origin to the pragmatic school of philosophy. It was propounded by W H. Kilpatrick and was perfected by J. A.Stevenson. The method consists of building a comprehensive unit around an activity which may be carried out in the school or outside. The essence of this method is to carry out a useful task in a group in which all the students work co-operatively. Learning by doing and learning by living are the two basic principles involved and children learn through association, co-operation and activity.

Definition

- "A project is a unit of whole-hearted purposeful activity carried on preferably in its natural setting". Kilpatrick
- "A project is a problematic and carried to completion in its natural setting" - Stevenson.
- "A project is a bit of real life that has been imparted in to the school" - Ballard.

Principles of the Project Method

1. The principle of freedom.
2. The principle of reality.
3. The principle of activity.
4. The principle of experience.
5. The principle of utility.
6. The principle of interest.
7. The principle of sociability

Major steps of the Project Method

1. Providing a situation
2. Choosing and purposing
3. Planning
4. Carrying out the project (executing)
5. Evaluating
6. Recording

Kinds of Project

1. ***Producer type***: Here the emphasis is directed towards the actual construction of a material object or article.

2. ***Consumer type***: Here the objective is to obtain either direct or vicarious experience such as reading and learning stories or listening to music etc.

3. ***Problems Type:*** Here the purpose is to solve a problem involving the intellectual process such as determining the e/m ratio of an election.

4. ***Drill type***: Here the purpose is to attain efficiency in some activity. E.g. swimming, driving etc.

Merits of Project method

1. The method is in accordance with psychological laws of learning
    i. Law of readiness - pupil are ready to learn creating interest, purpose and life like situation.
    ii. Law of exercise - by practice we learn things, self-activity on the

part of students create experience in later life.

iii. Law of effect - child should be satisfied and feel happy in what he is learning.

2. It promotes co-operation and group interaction.
3. It gives training in a democratic way of learning and living.
4. There is no place for rote memorization.
5. Provides dignity of labor and develop respect and taste for all types of work.

Demerits of Project Method

1. Project absorbs large amount of time and can be used as a part of science work only.
2. Many aspect of curriculum will not yield to project work.
3. Larger projects in the hands of an inexperienced and unskillful teacher lead to boredom.
4. Text book written on this lines are not available.
5. The method is highly expensive as pupil has to purchase lot of item, travel and do outdoor work.

(2) Peer Tutoring

- Peer tutoring is a flexible, peer-mediated strategy that involves students serving as academic tutors and tutees. Typically, a higher performing student is paired with a lower performing student to review critical academic or behavioral concepts.
- It is a widely-researched practice across ages, grade levels, and subject areas
- The intervention allows students to receive one-to-one assistance
- Students have increased opportunities to respond in smaller groups
- It promotes academic and social development for both the tutor and tutee
- Student engagement and time on task increases
- Peer tutoring increases self-confidence and self-efficacy
- The strategy is supported by a strong research base

Types of Peer Tutoring

***Classwide Peer Tutoring (CWPT)* –**Class wide peer tutoring involves dividing the entire class into groups of two to five students with differing ability levels. Students then act as tutors, tutees, or both tutors and tutees. In CWPT, student pairings are fluid and may be based on achievement levels or student compatibility.

***Cross-age Peer Tutoring (CPT)* -** Older students are paired with younger students to teach or review a skill. The positions of tutor and tutee do not change. The older student serves as the tutor and the younger student is the tutee. The older student and younger student can have similar or differing skill levels, with the relationship being one of a cooperative or expert interaction. Tutors serve to model appropriate behavior, ask questions, and encourage better study habits. This arrangement is also beneficial for students with disabilities as they may serve as tutors for younger students.

***Peer Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS)*-** It involves a teacher pairing students who need additional instruction or help with a peer who can assist. Groups are flexible and change often across a variety of subject areas or skills. Cue cards, small pieces of cardstock upon which are printed a list of tutoring steps, may be provided to help students remember PALS steps. All students have the opportunity to function as a tutor or tutee at differing times. Students are typically paired with other students who are at the same skill level, without a large discrepancy between abilities.

***Reciprocal Peer Tutoring (RPT)*:** Two or more students alternate between acting as the tutor and tutee during each session, with equitable time in each role. Often, higher performing students are paired with lower performing students. RPT utilizes a structured format that encourages teaching material, monitoring answers, and evaluating and encouraging peers. Both group and individual rewards may be earned to motivate and maximize learning.

***Same-age Peer Tutoring*:** Peers who are within one or two years of age are paired to review key concepts. Students may have similar ability levels or a more advanced student can be paired with a less advanced student. Students who have similar abilities should have an equal understanding of the content material and concepts. When pairing students with differing levels, the roles of tutor and tutee may be alternated, allowing the lower performing student to quiz the higher performing student. Answers should be provided to the student who is lower achieving when acting as a tutor in order to assist with any deficits in content knowledge.

(3) Individual activities

The social aspect of activities is just as important as the creative, leisure and learning aspects. Mentors make great efforts to help people join small friendly groups to share experience and skills and support each other in maintaining the group in the long-term. Some participants are housebound. In these circumstances, mentors encourage activities that people can pursue individually at home. Sometimes, arrangements may be made for an external artist or 'provider' to visit the person for a while. Wherever possible, the participant is introduced to others who

might share their interests, by phone or letter or visiting. Some people prefer to pursue interests on their own.

(4) Experiential learning

The word experiential essentially means that learning and development are achieved through personally determined experience and involvement, rather than on received teaching or training, typically in group, by observation, listening, study of theory or hypothesis, or some other transfer of skills or knowledge. The expression 'hands-on' is commonly used to describe types of learning and teaching which are to a lesser or greater extent forms of experiential learning.

The expression 'chalk-and-talk' (the teacher writes on a board and speaks while learners listen and look and try to absorb facts) refers to a style of teaching or training which contains no experiential learning aspect whatsoever.

Experiential learning, especially used at the beginning of a person's new phase of learning, can help to provide a positive emotional platform which will respond positively and confidently to future learning, even for areas of learning which initially would have been considered uncomfortable or unnecessary.

Experiential learning also brings into play the concept of multiple intelligences - the fact that people should not be limited by the 'three Rs' and a method of teaching based primarily on reading and writing.

Experiential learning is a way to break out of the received conditioned training and teaching practices which so constrain people's development in schools and work.

Small group/ whole class interactive learning

Small group teaching has become more popular as a means of encouraging student learning. While beneficial the tutor needs a different set of skills for those used in lecturing, and more pertinently, small group work is an often luxury many lecturers cannot afford. A further consideration with small group teaching is the subjective perspective of what constitutes a small group. A lecturer used to taking 400 students in a lecture would define 50 students as a small group, while a lecturer used to a group of 50 students would define 5-10 students as a small group. In a discussion, where participation is assessed some students may not speak up in a group that begins to be get bigger than 10 participants and in addition tutors would find it hard to assess participation by individual students in groups with numbers greater than this.

(1) Student Seminar

A seminar is a form of academic instruction, either at an academic institution or offered by a commercial or professional organization. It has the function of bringing together small groups for recurring meetings, focusing each time on some particular subject, in which everyone resent is requested to actively participate. This is often accomplished through an ongoing Socratic dialogue with a seminar leader or instructor, or through a more formal presentation of research. It is essentially a place where assigned readings are discussed, questions can be raised and debates can be conducted. Student seminars are the open presentations done by the students before their peers and teachers. The word seminar is derived from the Latin word seminarian, meaning "seed plot".

Some Tips for Seminar Preparation

1. ***Choose a topic***: Choose a topic which will sustain your interest and will allow you to exhibit enthusiasm during your presentation

2. ***Keep your Audience in Mind***: The primary objective in giving a talk should be to communicate an interesting idea to students who attend the seminar. This means that the talk should be delivered in a way that students in attendance understand what you are saying, so be mindful of their background.

3. ***Tell a story/ anecdote***: Begin with solid motivation for your problem and plenty of illuminating examples. Only after your audience understands what your topic is and why they should care about it should you spend time working carefully through the relevant science.

4. ***Keep timing in mind:*** Choose a topic that you can motivate and explicate comfortably in this window of time.

Scoring Indicators for Evaluation of seminar

1. ***Ability to Collect Data:*** Sufficient, Relevant, Accuracy of facts.
2. ***Ability to Prepare seminar Paper***: Introduction, Content Organization, Conclusion.
3. ***Presentation:*** Communication, Competence, Fluency, Spontaneity.
4. ***Understanding the Subject:*** Involvement in the Discussion, Responding suitably.

(2) Group discussions

Active learning can be implemented by organizing the class into small groups of students who can work together, foster their own learning strategy and create an atmosphere in which information sharing can takes place. Instructional techniques involving group controlled learning experiences provide room for the learners self-development and active participation in the teaching learning process. A discussion is a teaching technique that involves exchange of ideas with active learning and participation by all concerned. Discussion is an active process of teacher-pupil involvement in the classroom environment. This allows a student present its own perspective about something freely. Four basic concepts are to be considered for initiating small group discussion

- Process - the interactions that takes place within the group
- Roles - each group member's specific responsibilities within the group
- Leadership - the capacity to guide and direct others in a group setting.
- Cohesion - group members support for one another Different Types of Small Group Discussions

(3) Mixed ability grouping

It refers to grouping together students of different abilities. Usually this kind of grouping occurs when the group consists of students with different ages with one or two years span. The term “mixed aged grouping” or “heterogeneous grouping” is used for this case but we prefer to use the more general term of “mixed ability grouping” since the basic criterion for grouping is ability and not necessarily age. In mixed ability groups there are some students that are more mature and experienced than other ones and thus they have more advanced ability to acquire knowledge. The main aim of setting up mixed ability groups is not to produce homogeneity of ability in a group as this is the case in ability grouping, but to increase interaction across students with different abilities.

In other words the purpose of mixed ability grouping is for children to benefit by their intellectual and social interaction with other students of their group that have different social behavior and ability to learn. The former reveals the main difference of mixed ability grouping with ability grouping. While grouping children with same ability the goal is to achieve homogeneity of the group and homogenize instruction for students of the group on basis different of grades or ages but based on ability.

1. Constructivist learning
2. Problem based learning
3. Brain based learning
4. Collaborative learning
5. Flipped learning
6. Blended learning
7. e-learning trends
8. Video conferencing

(1) *Constructivist learning*

Constructivism is a learning theory that has its foundation in philosophy and anthropology as well as psychology. The constructivist approach to education attempts to shift education from a teacher-dominated focus to a student-centered one. The role of the teacher focuses on assisting students in developing new insights. Students are taught to assimilate experience, knowledge and insights with what they already know and from this they need to construct new meanings. Constructivist learning is based on students' active participation in problem solving and critical thinking regarding a learning activity which they find relevant and engaging. They are "constructing" their own knowledge by testing ideas and approaches base on their prior knowledge and experience, applying these to new situations and integrating the new knowledge gained with pre-existing intellectual constructs.

In the constructivist theory the emphasis is placed on the learner or the student rather than the teacher of the instructor. It is the learner who interacts with objects and events and thereby gains an understanding of the features held by such objects or events. The learner constructs her own conceptualizations and solutions to problems. Learner autonomy and initiative is accepted and encouraged. Exploring or experiencing the physical surroundings, experiential education is a key method of constructivism. To the constructivists, the act of teaching is the process of helping learners creates knowledge. In constructivist thinking learning is also affected by the context, beliefs and attitude of the learner.

There are many different schools of thought within this theory, all of which fall within the same basic assumption about learning. The main two are: Cognitive constructivism (e.g., Theory of Piaget) and Social constructivism (e.g., Theory of L.S. Vygotsky).

Cognitive Constructivism

Cognitive constructivism is generally attributed to Jean Piaget, who articulated

mechanisms by which knowledge is internalized by learners. The process of accumulating the knowledge are through accommodation and assimilation, individuals construct new knowledge from their experiences.

It is important to note that constructivism is not a particular pedagogy. In fact, constructivism is a theory describing how learning happens, regardless of whether learners are using their experiences to understand a lecture of following the instructions for building a model airplane. In both cases, the theory of constructivism suggests that learners construct knowledge out of their experiences. However, constructivism is often associated with pedagogic approaches that promote active learning, or learning by doing. Today constructivist teaching is based on recent research about the human brain.

The major views of constructivism can be summarized as follows:

- Emphasis learning and not teaching
- Encourage and accepts learner autonomy and initiative
- Sees learners as creatures of will and purpose
- Thanks of learning as a process
- Encourages learner inquiry
- Acknowledges the critical role of experience in learning
- Nurtures learners natural curiosity
- Takes the learner's mental model into account etc..

Social Constructivism

Social constructivism maintains that human development is socially situated and knowledge is constructed through interaction with others. It is a sociological theory of knowledge that applies the general philosophical constructivism into the social assumptions of Social Constructivism. Social constructivism is based on specific assumptions about reality, knowledge, and learning. To understand and apply models of instruction that are rooted in the perspectives of social constructivists, it is important to know the premises that underlie them. The most important assumptions of the theory of social constructivism is

1. The assumption that human beings rationalize their experience by creating a model of the social world and the way that it functions
2. The belief in language as the most essential system through which humans construct reality

(2) Problem Based Learning (PBL)

Problem-based learning (PBL) is a student-centered pedagogy in which students learn about a subject through the experience of solving an open -ended problem. Students learn both thinking strategies and domain knowledge. Problem - based learning (PBL) is an approach that challenges students to learn through engagement in a real problem. It is a format that simultaneously develops both problem solving strategies and disciplinary knowledge bases and skills by placing students in the active role of problem-solvers confronted with an ill-structured situation that simulates the kind of problems they are likely to face as future managers in complex organizations. Problem-based learning makes a fundamental shift from a focus on teaching to a focus on learning. The process is aimed at using the power of authentic problem solving to engage students and enhance their learning and motivation. There are several unique aspects that define the PBL approach:

- Learning takes place within the contexts of authentic tasks, issues, and problems that are aligned with real world concerns.
- In a PBL course, students and the instructor become co-learners, co-planners, co-producers, and co-evaluators as they design, implement, and continually refine their curricula.
- The PBL approach is grounded in solid academic research on learning and on the best practices that promote it. This approach stimulates students to take responsibility for their own learning, since there are few lectures, no structured sequence of assigned readings, and so on.
- PBL is unique in that it fosters collaboration among students, stresses the development of problem solving skills within the context of professional practice, promotes effective reasoning and self-directed learning, and is aimed at increasing motivation for life-long learning.

Problem-based learning begins with the introduction of an ill-structured problem on which all learning is centered. Most of the learning occurs in small groups rather than in lectures. Teacher's role is more like that of a facilitator and coach of student learning, acting at times as a resource person, rather than as knowledge-holder and disseminator. Similarly, your role, as a student, is more active, as you are engaged as a problem-solver, decision-maker, and

meaning-maker, rather than being merely a passive listener and note-taker.

Characteristics of Problem-Based Learning (PBL)

Problem-Based Learning (PBL) is a pedagogical approach and curriculum design methodology often used in higher education and K-12 standard settings.

The following are some of the defining characteristics of PBL:

1. Learning is driven by challenging, open-ended problems with no one "right" answer
2. Problems/cases are context specific
3. Students work as self-directed, active investigators and problem-solvers in small collaborative groups (typically of about five students)
4. A key problem is identified and a solution is agreed upon and implemented
5. Teachers adopt the role as facilitators of learning, guiding the learning process and promoting an environment of inquiry

Learning outcomes of Problem Based Learning

A well designed Problem based learning task provides students with the opportunity to develop skills related to:

- Managing tasks and holding leadership roles
- Oral and written communication
- Self-awareness and evaluation of group processes
- Working independently
- Critical thinking and analysis

Basic Steps in designing a Problem Based Learning Task

There are some important aspect which we want to take care before going for a problem based learning task

1. Articulate the learning outcomes of the task. What do you want students to know or be able to do as a result of participating in the assignment?
2. Create the problem. Ideally, this will be a real-world situation that resembles something students may encounter in their future class or lives. Cases are often the basis of PBL activities.
3. Establish ground rules at the beginning to prepare students to work effectively in

groups.

4. Introduce students to group processes and do some warm up exercises to allow them to practice assessing both their own work and that of their peers.

(3) Brain Based Learning (BBL)

Brain - based learning refers to teaching methods, lesson designs, and school programs that are based on the latest scientific research about how the brain learns, including such factors as cognitive development-how students learn differently as they age, grow, and mature socially, emotionally, and cognitively. It is totally based on the structure and function of the brain. As long as the brain is not prohibited from fulfilling its normal processes, learning will occur. Brain-based learning is motivated by the general belief that learning can be accelerated and improved if educators base how and what they teach on the science of learning, rather than on past educational practices, established conventions, or assumptions about the learning process. For example, it was commonly believed that intelligence is a fixed characteristic that remains largely unchanged throughout a person's life. However, recent discoveries in cognitive science have revealed that the human brain physically changes when it learns, and that after practicing certain skills it becomes increasingly easier to continue learning and improving those skills.

Instructional techniques emerges from Brain Based Learning

The three instructional techniques associated with brain-based learning:

1. ***Orchestrated immersion*:** Creating learning environments that fully immerse students in an educational experience.
2. ***Relaxed alertness*:** Trying to eliminate fear in learners, while maintaining a highly challenging environment.
3. ***Active processing*:** Allowing the learner to consolidate and internalize information by actively processing it.

(4) Collaborative Learning

Effective communication and Collaboration are essential for becoming a successful learner. It is primarily through dialogue and examining different perspectives that students become knowledgeable, strategic and self-determined and empathetic. Moreover, involving students in real world tasks and linking new information to prior knowledge requires effective communication and collaboration among teachers, students and others. Indeed it is through

dialogue and interaction that curriculum objectives come alive. Collaborative learning affords students enormous advantages which is not available in traditional instruction.

"Collaborative learning" is an umbrella term for a variety of educational approaches involving joint intellectual effort by students, or students and teachers together. Usually, students are working in groups of two or more, mutually searching for understanding, solutions, or meanings, or creating a product. Collaborative learning activities vary widely, but most center on students' exploration or application of the course material, not simply the teacher's presentation or explication of it.

Collaborative learning represents a significant shift away from the typical teacher centered or lecture-centered milieu in college classrooms. In collaborative classrooms, the lecturing/ listening/note-taking process may not disappear entirely, but it lives alongside other processes that are based in students' discussion and active work with the course material. Teachers who use collaborative learning approaches tend to think of themselves less as expert transmitters of knowledge to students, and more as expert designers of intellectual experiences for students-as coaches or mid-wives of a more emergent learning process.

Essential features of Collaborative Learning

1. A group learning task is designed based on shared learning goals and outcomes
2. Students work in teams to master academic materials
3. Reward systems are group oriented than individual oriented
4. Co-operative behavior involves trust building activities, joint planning and understanding of team support.
5. Students involvement in learning activities are more
6. Encourages students to acquire an active-voice in shaping their ideas

Advantages of Collaborative Learning

1. Promotes social and intellectual involvement
2. Cultivation of teamwork, community building, and leadership skills
3. Enhanced student satisfaction and promoting positive attitudes
4. Open expression of ideas in groups
5. Patience in hearing others
6. Team building

7. Shared responsibility

(5) Flipped Learning

Flipped Learning is a pedagogical approach in which direct instruction moves from the group learning space to the individual learning space, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter.

Flipped Learning Short video lectures are viewed by students at home before the class session, while in-class time is devoted to exercises, projects, or discussions. The flipped classroom describes a reversal of traditional teaching where students gain first exposure to new material outside of class, usually via reading or lecture videos, and then class time is used to do the harder work of assimilating that knowledge through strategies such as problem solving discussion or debates.

Flipped Classroom and Implications for Teaching

The flipped classroom constitutes a role change for instructors, who give up their front-of-the-class position in favor of a more collaborative and cooperative contribution to the teaching process. There is a concomitant change in the role of students, many of whom are used to being cast as passive participants in the education process, where instruction is served to them. The flipped model puts more of the responsibility for learning on the shoulders of students while giving them greater impetus to experiment. Activities can be student-led, and communication among students can become the determining dynamic of a session devoted to learning through hands-on work.

(6) Blended learning

Blended learning is a planned combination of online learning and face-to-face instruction using variety of learning resources. It is a flexible learning strategy that integrates innovative and technological advances of online learning with interaction and participation of traditional face-to-face classroom learning.

Blended learning strategies vary according to the discipline, the year level, student characteristics and learning outcomes, and have a student-centered approach to the learning design. Blended learning can promote learner's access and flexibility, increase the level of

active learning, and achieve better student experiences and outcomes. For teachers, blended learning can improve teaching and class management practices. A blend might include:

1. Face-to-face and online learning activities and formats
2. Traditional classes with different modalities, such as regular, weekend, evening, part time, semester
3. Use of technology interfaces like social media, wikis and various web sources
4. Group work, Simulation, debate, Online Assignments, Practicals etc.
5. Both usual classroom human factors and digital learning resources of the web
6. Psychological concerns are addressed in the face to face interaction and technological concerns are addressed in the online learning

Blended learning should be viewed as a pedagogical approach that combines the effectiveness and socialization opportunities of the classroom with the technologically enhanced active learning possibilities of the online environment, rather than a ratio of delivery modalities.

Teachers in the Blended learning modality can

- Foster a class culture of hard work and persistence
- Monitor students throughout the period for motivation and learning
- Intervene to personalize instruction when data shows that students are struggling
- Build personal relationships of trust and caring

(7) e-learning

e-learning is the use of electronic media and information and communication technologies (ICT) in education. E-learning is broadly inclusive of all forms of educational technology in learning and teaching. Technology-Enhanced Learning (TEL), Computer-Based Instruction(CBI). Computer-Based Training (CBT), Computer-Assisted Instruction or Computer - Aided Instruction (CAI),Internet-Based Training (IBT), Web-Based Training (WBT), Online education, Virtual education, Virtual Learning Environments (VIE). e-learning can occur in or out of the classroom.

Synchronous and asynchronous

e -learning may either be synchronous or asynchronous. Synchronous learning occurs in real-time, with all participants interacting at the same time, while asynchronous learning is

self-paced and allows participants to engage in the exchange of ideas or information without the dependency of other participants involvement at the same time.

Synchronous learning involves the exchange of ideas and information with one or more participants during the same period of time. A face-to-face discussion is an example of synchronous communications. In e-learning environments, examples of synchronous communications include online real-time live teacher instruction and feedback, Skype conversations, or chat rooms or virtual classrooms where everyone is online and working collaboratively at the same time.

Asynchronous learning may use technologies such as email, blogs, wikis, and discussion boards, as well as web-supported textbooks, hypertext documents, audio video courses, and social networking. Asynchronous learning is particularly beneficial for students who have health problems or have child care responsibilities and regularly leaving the home to attend lectures is difficult.

e-Learning trends

- ✓ Automation
- ✓ Augmented Learning
- ✓ Big Data
- ✓ Going for Cloud Computing
- ✓ Gamification
- ✓ M - Learning
- ✓ Personalization

(8) Video conferencing

Video conferencing is two-way interactive communication delivered using telephone or Internet technologies that allows people at different location to come together for a meeting. The video conference can be as simple as a conversation between two people in private offices involve several sites with more than one person in large rooms at different sites. A basic video conference setup has a camera and a microphone. Video from the camera and audio from the microphone is converted into a digital format and transmitted to a receiving location using a coding and decoding device, often referred to as a "codec". At that receiving location is another codec device that decodes the receiving digital stream into a form that can be seen and heard on monitors or televisions. At the same time, video and audio from cameras and microphones at the

received location is sent back to the original location.

Benefits of Video Conferencing

Video conferencing saves travel time and money. Participants can see and hear all other participants and communicate both verbally and visually, creating a face- to- face experience. PowerPoint and other on screen graphic, as well as other cameras are also available presentation options. People downtime is reduced and productivity gains are achieved by removing the logistics of flight preparations, airport delays, hotel stays, and all the other inconveniences of business travel. In distance education, video conferencing provides quality access to students who could not travel to or could afford to relocate to a traditional campus. Video conferences can also be recorded and made available in a variety of ways. Besides distance education, other applications include meetings, dissertation and thesis defenses, tele-medical procedures, and online conferences.

People use video conferencing when:

- a live conversation is needed.
- visual information is an important component of the conversation.
- parties of the conversation can't physically come to the, same location.
- expense or time of travel is a consideration.
- examples of how video conferencing can benefit people around campus.
- guest lecturer invited into a class from another institution.
- researcher collaborates with colleagues at other institutions on a regular basis.
- thesis defense at another institution.
- administrators from different parts of campus need to collaborate on administrator issues such as a campus strategic plan.
- researcher needs to meet with a review committee about a grant.
- student interviews with an employer in another city.

Conclusion

Every learner learns on his/her own unique way and strategy. The learning is taking place with an individual speed, depending on student's attitude and level of prerequisite knowledge. In designing the teaching process, teacher should take into consideration differences among the students in the target group .Enough of space must be provided for processing and memorizing.

Questions

1. Explain the teacher centered methods of teaching History.
2. How would you use source method in senior classes for increasing effective participation by the pupils?
3. Discuss the main characteristics of lecture method of teaching of history.
4. Mention some difficulties in teacher-centered methods.
5. Discuss the merits and demerits of recent trends.

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UNIT – V RESOURCES FOR TEACHING HISTORY

Objectives

At the end of the course, the student teachers will be able to:

- Know importance of print resources
- Understand audio resources
- Interest to learn objectives of history
- Analyze need and importance of teaching history
- Acquire knowledge of values of history

I. PRINT RESOURCES:

Newspapers

The daily newspapers are very effective as teaching aids in history. They give information regarding the efforts being made to bring peace and harmony in the world, e.g., the summits and non-aligned conferences, the seminars and workshops. They also inform about developments taking place around the world and other news of topical interest.

Contemporary occurrences help to clarify and exemplify the facts and concepts described in the history textbooks. Newspapers may be used to augment other instructional resources and serve as a means of sensitizing the class to the need for updating knowledge. Newspapers can be used to initiate, strengthen and reinforce a unit. Movements, trends, ideas, and changes in national and international governments and relations, addresses of statesmen, prime ministers and presidents are all very important from historical point of view.

Journals

An academic or scholarly **journal** is a periodical publication in which scholarship relating to a particular academic discipline is published. Academic **journals** serve as permanent and transparent forums for the presentation, scrutiny and discussion of research. They are usually peer-reviewed or refereed.

Magazines

Magazines keep the teacher of history more informed of the current events. These events and current problems and their discussion are found in magazines only. Without the knowledge

of the current events a teacher cannot create an effective atmosphere in the teaching of history. The teacher of history fails in his duty if every day problems or current affairs and current events are not brought to the notice of his students.

The students are to be encouraged to read standing standard magazines of the subject and think over those problems which are burning issues.

One period a week for reading of magazines should be developed and the students should be asked to keep a diary and note the main events of the week in their note-books.

Reference books

Reference materials standard or conventional reference books and non-conventional reference books. Conventional reference books include dictionaries, encyclopedias, directories, year books, atlas, maps, charts, pamphlets, hand-books, manuals, and books of knowledge. There should be some picture collections which include well-known masterpieces. These prove most valuable to teachers especially for classroom use.

The non-conventional reference materials consist of all other library books that may be used for reference service of any other kind. They include books on special subjects.

History /Humanities Encyclopedias

There are many children's encyclopedias available-inclusive, well-written, attractive and convenient to use. The teacher should demonstrate their use and cite them frequently. The pupil who acquires the habit of using the encyclopedia is likely to become well-informed. Moreover, when the pupils realize the fullness and richness of these volumes, and acquire the habit of using them, they are also likely to use those which are intended for adults. And they often succeed remarkably well in securing useful information from these relatively difficult books. The pupils should learn to use reference books and to seek out the information itself is of less importance than the discovery of how and where to find it out.

II. AUDIO RESOURCES:

In this category we may include those aids which call upon the visual senses and thus help the learners to learn through listening to the displayed aid.

Radio talk

Radio, as an effective audio aid device, is capable of providing valuable assistance to the teacher in the classroom by presenting worthwhile information and learning experience simultaneously to a large number of students.

These broadcasts are two types, which are as follows:

I. General broadcast providing general information about the events and happenings, assimilating knowledge about the world, culture and life.

II. Educational broadcast specifically prepared and broadcast for serving the cause of education and classroom instruction in the form of radio lessons, lectures, etc.

Use of radio in history teaching: use of radio is helpful in the teaching-learning of the subject history in the following manner:

I. Awareness about the current events and affairs is very much emphasized through the teaching of history. The general broadcasts of the radio may help much to the teachers as well as students of history in this direction.

II. Radio broadcasting makes it possible to listen to the lectures, talks, discussions, seminars and proceedings of educational interest in which renowned authors, educationists, leading scholars and other important personalities may participate. Such contact is bound to provide immense educational and psychological value to the students of history.

III. Specific educational broadcasting on radio, through its planned and sequenced classroom lessons on various topics related to history, may provide much assistance to the teachers in realizing the instructional objectives besides being a direct self-instructional source for the students.

Audio tapes

It is an effective recording device that cells for the use of auditory senses to convey the educational message to the teachers. It mainly consists of three parts-microphone or over sound input, the amplifier, and the reproducer. It involves two main processes-recording and re-producing of the sound.

In recording, the educational message is first fed into the tape recorder through microphone and other inputs. The voice produces mechanical vibrations that are changed into electrical vibrations. The amplifier intensifies these vibrations which, in turn, active a magnet. It results in the establishment of varied sound pattern on the iron oxide coated tape.

The playing of the instrument results into the reproduction of the recording sound. Here the sound pattern contained on the tape is subjected to electrical vibrations that are amplified by the amplifier and changed into an original like voice by the speacker.

III. VISUAL RESOURCES:

In this category we may include those aids which call upon the visual senses and thus help the learners to learn through viewing. For the sake of convenience this category may be further sub-categorized into projective and non-projective aids.

Cartoons

A cartoon does not present the reality directly ; it is a metaphorical presentation of reality. The cartoonist depends on humor, satire and mockery for the presentation of his idea. In a way the cartoon is also a picture diagram, as it presents ideas rather than real objects. Carton type presention makes a strong appeal to the emotions, thus it enhaces learning. This device should be used with pupils of higher classes as a higher level of intellectual maturity is required to appreciate the idea behind a cartoon.

Charts

Charts may be defined as combinations of graphic and pictorial media designed for the orderly and logical visualizing of relationship between key facts and ideas. The main function of the charts is always to show relationships such as comparisons, relative amounts, developments, processes classification and organization.

Types of charts: i) Genealogy charts, ii) Flow charts, iii) Relationship charts, iv) Tabulation charts, v) Chronology charts.

Comics

A comic book or comic book also called comic magazine or simply comic, is a publication that consists of comic art in the form of sequential juxtaposed panels that represent

individual scenes. Panels are often accompanied by brief descriptive prose and written narrative, usually dialog contained in word balloons emblematic of the comics art form. Although comics has some origins in 18th century Japan and 1830s Europe, comic books were first popularized in the United States during the 1930s. The first modern comic book, Famous Funnies, was released in the United States in 1933 and was a reprinting of earlier newspaper humor comic strips, which had established many of the story-telling devices used in comics. The term comic book derives from American comic books once being a compilation of comic strips of a humorous tone; however, this practice was replaced by featuring stories of all genres, usually not humorous in tone.

hy should kids read comics?"

Emerging research shows that comics and graphic novels are motivating, support struggling readers, enrich the skills of accomplished readers and are highly effective at teaching sometimes dull or dry material in subject areas such as science and social studies.

h Elder, founder and president of Reading With Pictures, sums up the strengths of comics as educational tools with his "Three E's of Comics."

- **Engagement:** Comics impart meaning through the reader's active engagement with written language and juxtaposed sequential images. Readers must actively make meaning from the interplay of text and images, as well as by filling in the gaps between panels.
- **Efficiency:** The comic format conveys large amounts of information in a short time. This is especially effective for teaching content in the subject areas (math, science, social studies, etc.).
- **Effectiveness:** Processing text and images together leads to better recall and transfer of learning. Neurological experiments have shown that we process text and images in different areas of the brain: known as the Dual-Coding Theory of Cognition. These experiments also indicate that pairing an image with text leads to increased memory retention for both. With comics, students not only learn the

Flash cards

Flash cards are those cards which are employed to provide valuable information to the viewers through the graphical representation made on them. Usually they make use of flannel graph for their display. However, they can also be effectively displayed at their own without making use of a flannel graph. These are are in the shape of small compact cards and contain some picture, phtotograph, sketch, diagram, and reading material neatly and boldy drawn and written on them. The display of these cards at their own or on the flannel board is for a very small period just in the shape of a flash. This is why, these cards are called flash cards. These cards can also be utilized as projective material for being shown on the screen through projectors.

Graphs

Graphs are flat pictures which employ dots, lines or pictures to visualize numerical and statistical data to show statistics or relationships. They are made according to exact specifications and depict specifically quantitative data for analysis, interpretation or comparison.

Graphs are effective tools for making comparisons and contrasts. The use of visual imageries for abstract ideas helps clarifications and remembrance.

Types of graphs: i) Line graph, ii) Bar graph, iii) Circle graph, iv) Pictorial graph.

Maps

One of the most valuable documents for the students of history is the map; but could they read it. As stated earlier place and time are two most important concepts in history; every historical event occurs at a definite place and at a fixed time; devoid of the sense of place and time, history becomes fiction. Map is the universally accepted symbol for the presentation of space concept. It indicates relationships in space, distance and direction.

Types of maps: i) Relief maps, ii) Flat maps, iii) Pictorial maps.

Pictures

Children, by their very nature, are picture minded. This love of pictures can be capitalized to add zest, interest and validity to the teaching history. Pictures they say, concretise history-they help children to understand that history is concerned with real things, real places and real persons. They are representations of beautiful dreams of reality or at least beautiful dreams. “if history is to be made interesting, particularly for lower classes, the proper materials for

teaching are dramatic scenes and heroic characters." Abstract generalisations are alwys cumbersome . Pictures will simplify the abstractions and help create and maintain interest.

Types of Pictures: i) Picture post cards, ii) Pictures made on charts, iii) Textbook and reference pictures, iv) Pageant type aids, v) Picture assembly, vi) Picture diagram, and vii) cartoon.

Posters

The present age is poster age. Everywhere we can see posters pasted on the walls, advertising boards and public places and also displayed in the newspapers and magazines for commercial, social and political propaganda. Through such propaganda, directly or indirectly, we can draw valuable educational advantages. In all their forms and shapes, posters represent quite forceful and appealing graphic visual aids. They usually concentrate on a single idea or theme.

Posters carry the following significance and advantages as a visual aid in the process of teaching and learning.

Posters are very effective means of catching and holding the attention of the learners, maintaining their interest in the teaching-learning process and leaving a permenant impression on their minds.

Posters can be specially used at the time of introducing a lesson by the teacher in his class for the purpose of attracting and motivating the students for the learning.

At the presentation, practice and recapitulation stages, they can be used for focusing the attention of the learners on some specific idea, fact, event or process.

The proper selection and effective use of posters:

- Simplicity
- Brevity
- Appropriateness
- Attractiveness
- Design and colour

Diagrams

A diagram may be defined as a graphic visual aid in the form of some simplified but explanatory drawing to show interrelationships and explain some idea, events or processes by means of lines, geometrical forms and symbols. Their main value lies in their power to describe and explain rather than merely to represent a thing or phenonmenon. Moreover, in comparison to other visual graphic aids like pictures, charts and graphs, they provide the highest condensed visual summaries of the presented facts and ideas.

The diagram should not be used at the introductory or beginning stage of the presentation of a lesson. They are more helpful at the drill, summary and review stages. In any case it is necessary to help the students to acquire necessary bacjground in terms of the essential previous knowledge of the subject matter that is illustrated through the diagram.

Diagrams are complex and abstract representations. They rely highly on the typical symbolism that is very difficult to understand by the students. Therefore, every care is to be taken on the fact that a particular diagram should be used only when the students are capable of comprehending and interpreting such abstraction.

A diagram should have a single purpose in terms of illustrating and explaining a thing, idea or a phenonmenon. It should never be crowded with many ideas and functions to be explained through it.

Models

Original materials are quite rare in history. Even those which exist are within easy reach of all schools. Therefore, the models the three dimensional representations of real things can be used with great advantage in the teaching of history.

A model may be defined as a replica of an object as it is or in a reduced or in an enlarged form. Model can afford a substitute for most of the historic remains. They give a vivid impression of the real.

Use of models in teaching helps in visualizing the historical reality such as buildings, sculptures, etc., sometimes, models may be the shortest and easiest way of presenting certain concepts to pupils.

Models can invest history with the sense of reality. Things which were mere stories to the pupils, might appear as true if we have models to support our verbal exposition.

Models can help history teachers to teach according to the source method. Models of sources may be considered as sources for all practical purposes.

Specimens

These are also effective teaching aids in history. They become more potent when used with other teaching aids such as pictures, maps and charts.

They say "A bird in hand is worth two in the bush". This saying acquires a new meaning when it is applied to the use of objects and specimens.

Specimen may be defined as typical objects or parts of objects which have been removed from their natural setting and environment.

These teaching aids are powerful interest arousing devices which possess the capacity of bringings into play all the five senses-touch, sight, heraring, smell and taste.

IV.ICT RESOURCE: Radio

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Television

Television is a powerful medium of communication that calls for the use of auditory as well as visual senses of the learners in receiving education from a large distance, this appliance makes us able to transmit instantly every spoken or the written word, the picture, the sights and sounds, and the action of events as they take place.

Like most of the advanced developing countries of the world, india has also started to use television in education for imporving the quality of education at all levels, to expand educational facilities, particularly in rural and backward areas, for formal and non-formal systems and to make education interesting to the learners and thereby reduce wastage, i.e., dropouts in educational system.

The successful placing of the satellites into orbit has added new dimensions in the use of television for instructional purposes. One may observe now a number of programmes on his television set that carry significant educational experiences. Besides this, regular educational service for schools and college studetns in the shape of model lessons and other instructional programmes can now be seen on the television screen. The launching of edusat programmes for the schools through the organized efforts of the centre of educational technology cell of necert may be viewed as the latest development in this direction.

- Internet
- Multimedia
- Interactive whiteboard.

V.COMMUNITY RESOURCES:

Fieldtrips

Therefore most of history learning can take place in the immediate surroundings. Most of the social and historical phenomena can be clearly and easily understood by organizing local field trips to different places of historical interest. The students get an opportunity to come in contact with the natural environment and they get first hand experience and view of history. In fact, the field trips put school on wheel. Field trips to some of the neighboring villages may help the students to recognize vital and meaningful contrast to city life in respect of pattern of houses, occupations, various activities connected with occupations and socio-economic life of the villagers. They get to know the forts, tombs, battle fields, etc. such trips develop the habit of self-study and understanding.

Purpose of field trips

- Field trips help to utilize the resources of the environment to their fullest extent for teaching history.
- The students are able to see events, relics, objects, specimens in their natural setting.
- Because of direct observation, the understanding of the students becomes meaningful and they confirm the bookish knowledge.
- Field trips create interest in the subject of history.
- They help to neutralize the boredom of teaching of history and to link the school with social and political life outside it.

Museum

The word museum is derived from the greek word MOUSEION meaning thereby a temple of muses. It is place of assembly which specializes in assembling and showing specimens

and exhibits. Museum of art and natural history provides splendid educational opportunities to our school population.

Museum is the temple of the muse, as the word implies, is intended to be a place for study. For ages, the museum has been regarded as the reference file of real objects by which to verify and amplify knowledge acquired and preserved in other forms. It is described as the centre of a three dimensional documentation of the world and the history of man which no publications can replace. It provides information, education and enjoyment. Unless the hearts and minds of the people are exposed to works of art and elevated to a higher creative plane, they generally tend to remain at the animal level below the teaching of civilization.

Today, it is being considered essential that every school should have a museum with a separate section for every subject. It is essential and desirable that there should be a history museum in every school. It will invest history with a sense of reality. By seeing the relics of the past, pupils can realize that history deals with facts. The sculpture can inform the students how in the days of yore arts were patronized and encouraged by different rulers in India. We know that Indian history, particularly the ancient Indian history, is based on ancient relics to a great extent. As such, it provides ample opportunities for study through museum.

A good history museum is not merely a collection of items; it should be a collection of useful items. A museum is also not a curio shop. It must have a dynamic image and role to play in the diverse needs of the pupils of different classes.

Library

It is an important and useful aid to the teaching of history. A small history library is as essential for the teaching history as a laboratory in physics, chemistry, zoology, etc. teachers of history look upon a library as indispensable because original material, reference books, magazines, journals, etc., are stocked in it for reference. Because of a separate history library, the students begin to take interest in the subject and if they do so, the purpose of maintaining a separate history library is served. But is is surprising to know that few schools are really in a position to maintain a good library in general and subject libraries in a particular.

Need of a library

- The need of a good and a separate history is felt both by an intelligent teacher and intelligent students. It need is felt when a teacher is confronted with a few problems during the course of teaching of history because no single text-book on history could possibly provide information on all the topics of history. More and more emphasis in being laid on collateral reading in history these days. It is a good history library which can furnish the requisite information and comes to play an important role of enhancing the knowledge of social and historical nature.

- Such a subject library helps in inculcating library habits in general and subject interest in particular. The students develop the habit of using the index and develop library sense.

- Text-books of history do not meet all the needs of the students. They, thus consult other books on history or reference books. Besides, a history library provides an appropriate atmosphere to inspire and encourage students to consult them and whenever they feel that a text book is not meeting their needs.

Excavated archeological sites

Archaeology has contributed a lot particularly to the history of ancient India. Under the heading of archeology, historical information can obtained from i) inscriptions, ii) numismatics and iii) monuments.

Monuments

The ancient monuments, like forts, mosque, buildings, statues and pottery provide a lot of useful and reliable information about history. The excavations of the sites of the old towns like Harappa, Mohenjo-Daro and Taxila have furnished the historian with a lot of useful and reliable information hitherto unknown and have unearthed much of the history of ancient India. The excavation of the sites of birth has added to the knowledge regarding Budhism and Ashoka.

The remains of the temples of ancient India and the mosques of medieval India are indicative of the hindu and muslim influences. The existence of various monuments through the ages provides a scientific basis for establishing chronology. They shed valuable light on the various phases of our cultural life and also provide as with a clue to the nature and extent of india’s cultural contacts with the other civilizations of the world.

- History resource Centre

History Club

Such clubs if properly organized will be of immense help in enlivening the teaching of history, considered and thought by most of us, as dull in our schools. Such a club stimulates the interest in extra readings of historical matrial. When the students meet in a club, they get an opportunity to mix with other students.

This club should be managed by the students themselves and the teacher should be a mere guide. They meeting may be held once a month in which a few interesting topics of history may be discussed. Excursion should be organized or arranged to places of historical interest. Films if available may be exhibited off and on.

The members of the club may be asked to collect coins, old utensils, old jewellery, pottery, costumes of the past, photographs of historical personalities. Such activities will provide the students an opportunity to show their ingenuity and manual skill. It will create in them the habit of extra study of historical magazines, journals and old books and may create a desire in them to delve deep into the historical writings. Such training will help them to spend their leisure time usefully.

A historical society may help to organize extra school activity and may foster an interest in the historical remains of all kinds. The students may visit places of interest in their free time, taking notes, drawings and take photographs of the old historical monuments. The value of this lies not only in giving them a permanent interest in antiquities, but also in making their ordinary history a more living and interesting thing to them.

Activities of the Historical Club

- This club may organize village survey and the students may be asked to collect some socio-economic data of a village.

- In vacation, the club may organize hiking and trips to mountains, sea side or old monuments. The students will get first-hand knowledge of history.

- This club may arrange film show to enhance the historical knowledge of the students of history.

http://senthilcollegeedu.com/8-History.pdf

GEOGRAPHYSECTION

Geographical Knowledge and Teaching Geography

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Recent events in England and Wales would suggest that geography teachers need to re-engage with their subject matter to enable them to improve how they teach the geography. However, this requires a detailed understanding of how teachers use their subject knowledge. This paper outlines how two geography teachers experience tension between how they understand geography at an academic level and the ways they prefer to teach it. How they resolve these conflicts shows that these teachers have an active relationship with their subject that enables them to develop curricula in line with their values about geography.

Keywords: subject knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, geographical education, geography, synoptic capacity

Introduction

In 1997, Bill Marsden questioned whether historical developments in England and Wales meant that we were taking the geography out of geographical education (Marsden, 1997). Since then the quality of geography education in England and Wales has appeared to have become worse. In 2004, focusing on the situation in England and Wales, David Bell reported that Ofsted[1] had found that geography was the worse taught subject in the primary sector (Ofsted, 2004). Simon Catling has highlighted how the provision for primary geography in initial teacher education is mostly inadequate (Catling, 2004). QCA (the government external examinations agency for England) have reported a continued decline in the numbers of English students choosing to study geography in post-compulsory education (at both post-14 GCSE[2] examinations, and post-16 A Level[3] equivalent examinations) (QCA, 2005). Is there a link then between the decline of geography in our geography education and the quality of geography education?

It has been argued that the discussion within the geographical community in England and Wales (Brooks, 2006) (as evidenced by on-line forums servicing the subject community, such as the Geographical Association and the popular SLN[4] Geography forum), would indicate that geography teachers feel that there is a link between this decline in the subject's popularity and the subject content that is taught. Marsden (1997) predicted that the lack of emphasis on the subject could impact negatively on geography education. Morgan and Lambert (2005) argue that teachers need to engage with geography continually to ensure that their lessons are grounded in geographical meaning and suggest that lessons where the content has not been carefully considered are in danger of being 'morally careless'.

Geography and Geography Teaching

Academic subjects are dynamic entities influenced by a range of factors. The popular image of geography differs greatly from the subject at school and university level (Bonnet, 2003). In his discussion of the historical development of academic geography, Unwin notes that these changes can be related to Habermas' categories of academic disciplines (Unwin, 1992). Unwin notes how the development of geography can be examined through these different categories and broadly defines these as empirical-analytic, historical-hermeneutic, and as a critical science. His argument is that during geography's development as an academic subject, the way that geography has been defined and studied has changed in ways that can be recognised through these differing approaches to 'science' and 'knowledge'. He also notes that changes in academic geography are also influenced by societal pressure as well as influences from outside the discipline.

The development of the subject at academic level has traditionally been held in the hands of HE[5]

geography departments who have been able to conduct research in areas that have interested them. Unwin suggests that the need to obtain funding has influenced the 'freedom' of academics to research according to their personal interests, and Stannard (2003) has noted the powerful role that the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) has played in influencing the work of academics. However, the development of the academic discipline and the development and definition of geography at an academic level remains mostly in the hands of academics and what has influenced them.

The development of school geography in England and Wales, however, needs to respond to different pressures to academic geography. Rawling (2001) records how changes in school geography have been influenced by different ideologies, which have in turn influenced curriculum projects, preferred teaching styles, and the legislation that determines what is to be taught. Graves (2001) and Walford (2001), in their respective accounts of the development of geography in schools, also reflect on how school geography, as expressed through school textbooks, has reflected societal changes, pedagogical fashions, as well as changes in technology. Morgan and Lambert (2005) chart developments in school geography and note how it has changed in relation to the way that curricula and debates on curriculum have been affected by changes in the broader political frame. In England and Wales, however, one of the main differences between academic geography and school geography is the prescriptive nature of the school curriculum. Even for academic geography, the benchmarking standards give a broad definition of what is to be expected from a degree in geography (QAA, 2000). However, at school level the National Curriculum, and examination specifications at both post-14 and post-16 age groups, are more prescriptive as to *what* is to be taught. In fact, as Kington noted in his GA presidential address in 2003, most teachers teaching a post-14 examination-based curriculum will rely on a school geography textbook that has been written specifically with that examination in mind, and often by the examiners responsible for that examination itself (Kington, 2004). This cogently places these examiners in a position of power as not only defining geography at this level (through the specification) but also arguably defining the tools of instruction and therefore possibly influencing how it is to be taught (through the textbooks they write).

At a pre-examination level (pre-14) the geography curriculum is defined by the National

1 HE: Higher Education.

Curriculum, which consists of Themes and Skills as a minimum entitlement of the geography that is to be taught to this age group. Although in the past this has been criticised for being highly prescriptive in content, recent versions are much more flexible in the definition of what is to be taught (Rawling, 2001). Rawling also notes that policies and curriculum documents such as the National Curriculum have to be interpreted and implemented in order for them to change and shape what happens in classrooms (Rawling, 2001). The interpretation and implementation of the geography curriculum is done by geography teachers. It is those teachers who, as Barratt-Hacking (1996), Jewitt (1998) and Walford (1996) suggest, have had very different values related to geography, different understandings of what geography is, and different geographical 'persuasions'.[6] How then do teachers who have experienced a range of 'geographies' at graduate level, use this geography at school level?

Rynne and Lambert (1997) have reported that although novice teachers may not feel confident in teaching certain subjects this does not necessarily affect how they teach these topics. However, research in the subject areas of Science and English would indicate that how a teacher defines or understands their subject will affect how they teach it (Gess-Newsome, 1999; Grossman, 1990; Hillocks, 1999). In fact, within English, Turvey (forthcoming) has noted how the process of teaching a literature topic can change perspectives on their subject knowledge as a teacher reflects on and learns alternative perspectives from the students they teach. This body of research stems from an interest in subject knowledge and how it is taught largely influenced by Shulman's pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Shulman defined PCK as: 'subject matter *for teaching*' (1986: 9, emphasis in original). Carlsen (1999) and Bullough (2001) note that the first mention of PCK (at Shulman's presidential address at the Carnegie Foundation (Shulman, 1986)) coincided with a period when teacher education was being criticised in the US. Carlsen (1999) argues that representing the way that teachers (as pedagogues) engage with their subject knowledge as a discrete knowledge, was a way of claiming power, authority and uniqueness to this form of knowledge, and therefore could be viewed as a way of responding to the criticisms teacher education was experiencing. PCK appears to fall in between the dual division of practical and theoretical knowledge that many academics have identified (as noted by Fenstermacher (1994) in his review on the area). However, as Elbaz (1991) observes, teachers do not conceptualise what they do and what they know in this discrete way. They generally opt for telling stories,

and using narratives to give a more holistic view of how they teach and to what extent their subject knowledge influences this. Proponents of this view (Cochran- Smith & Lytle, 1993; Jalongo *et al.*,

It is worth noting here as well, that in England, the number of non-specialists teaching geography has been of considerable concern. Teachers of geography who have not experienced academic training in the subject area are, it is assumed, at a considerable disadvantage as they may not have had the opportunity of being exposed to a range of geographical approaches.

1995) argue even more strongly that enabling teachers to tell these narratives encourages them to value their knowledge about teaching and to further reflect and develop deeper understandings stemming from their experience.

Elbaz (1991) also argues that analysis of narratives can help us get beyond *what* teachers say they do (which may differ from what they actually do) to the reasons why they practise in this way. Gudmundsdottir's (1990) research indicates that teachers have values, influenced by their subject knowledge, that affects how they teach. However, Korthegan's (2004) more recent work demonstrates that this may go deeper, and teachers may in fact be influenced by a 'mission' close to their core being that drives their values, perspectives and ultimately their work in classrooms.

If the decline of school geography in England and Wales is related to teachers' consideration of their subject matter itself (along with possible other factors), and that teachers' experience of university geography can drive or influence what they do, the need still remains to understand how and to what extent this influence operates. Morgan and Lambert (2005) argue that teachers are encouraged to consider teaching as a technical rather than as an intellectual activity and do not engage in critical and challenging discussions about *what* they are teaching and *why* they are teaching it. In response, this paper will detail two cases of teachers talking about subject knowledge and how it affects their teaching. Although greatly contrasting cases, sharing the experience of these teachers will hopefully enable a greater understanding of ways that subject knowledge can affect how a teacher teaches geography. Analysis of how subject knowledge affects teaching and its relative importance to a teacher's decision making will help us to illuminate if Marsden's warnings about neglecting the subject have come true.

Methodology

The cases presented here are two of six cases studied as part of my PhD research into subject knowledge and 'expert' teachers of geography. These two have been selected as they contrast in experience and outlook. All of the six cases were selected to take part in the study through recommendation as 'expert'[7] geography teachers by members of the geography education community.

Influenced by Elbaz's (1990) observation that teachers express what they do and their knowledge through narratives, the data from each case were collected mostly through an extended interview with the participants, where they were encouraged to discuss their memories of and relationship with geography as well as how and why they decided to teach geography. During the interview they were also encouraged to discuss their preferred methods for

teaching geography and what they considered their approach was to teaching geography. It was acknowledged that teachers' practice and their discussion of their practice may highlight some anomalies. It was not intended to cross reference what the case teachers said and did, but to use their description of what motivates them to teach and what influences their teaching, as one way of understanding their practice. I also felt that it was important to understand the context that each teacher was working in, and therefore they were visited in their schools where I collected documentation about the school and their lesson planning and preparation. I observed them teach and discussed their practice with their colleagues.

The data were collected and analysed through the use of a grounded theory approach. For each case, individual themes emerged from the data about how he or she understood and perceived geography. Similarly, their approach to teaching geography varied greatly. These themes were put together to identify similarities and contradictions. What is presented here is a summary of these observations and recordings, and therefore is a simplified version of the full data set. Names have been changed to protect the identity of individuals.

Case Teacher: Paul

Paul is an experienced teacher who has been head of humanities in a school in Wiltshire. He is also the author and co-author of several school geography textbooks for the 11–16 age group. Paul has been teaching for nearly three decades, the majority of which have been in his current school.

Paul described his relationship with geography as starting with a very early interest in stamps that was sparked through a family connection:

> My aunts worked at Horlicks in Slough and two aunts ran the postal department consecutively. And they had all the stamps and these stamps came in in their hundreds and my mum helped me sort them out where they came from. And this would be when I was 4 or 5. And then as I went through primary school I had a really good stamp collection and I knew so much about where places were, . . . and because of that I became interested in place. (Extract from interview, 2003)

The interest in place he developed at this young age has been something that has sustained Paul through his early years and in more recent times. As a child he recalled travelling around England with his father and how this enabled him to know more about other places than his peers at school and also sparked an interest in travel that he has sustained to this day. His early geographical experiences were also tied up with understanding or valuing place:

> I was in the Boys Brigade. Some of those camps that I went on were absolutely amazing. You know, we went to Hayley Island on the Isle of Wight, and I went to an international camp at Blairmont in Scotland when I was 18 and I climbed a little mountain with John Hunt. He is the Everest man. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul went on to study geography at a prestigious university. Although recalling a fairly traditional geography degree, the impact of this experience has stayed with him. When he recalled his university experience he reflected on the people that he met and the extraordinary travelling that they had achieved or went on to achieve, citing an Olympic athelete who had just come back from Japan, and a TV programme maker who focused on the North Pole. These people appear to have inspired Paul, both in terms of the places they had visited and to seek to travel himself.

When he describes the influence of travel, he describes that experience in geographical language, highlighting geographical themes:

> . . . it wasn't just the unknown, it was the excitement of travel and looking at the variety of life. And I wouldn't say it was particularly *physical*. I think it was *physical* and *human*: it's *people* and *landscape*. Some places though, if you ask me about my travel I've done and what I have brought back into the classroom, it would be very *physical*. You know I have been to Iceland three times, and I think in Iceland I have always brought back the *physical*. And I've been to America recently and Lassen National Park and Yosemite, more recently and it's the landscapes, the physical that I have brought back. But in my experiences in the Gambia, it has never been *physical*, it has only been *development* issues. (Extract from interview, 2003, my emphasis)

It is possible that Paul has used these terms (human, physical and development) because he knows that he is talking to another geographer who would be familiar with them. Alternatively it is possible Paul uses his geographical knowledge to enable him to understand places he has visited. By using these terms he is highlighting how travel has boosted his understanding of these geographical themes as well as developing sensory or aesthetic appreciation. The value of travel appears to lie in the experience and the achievement. He expresses an interest in the physical landscape but this is not necessarily one that is focused on beauty:

> . . . 3 weeks I ago, I took my dad out to Dungeness. Because I love places like Dungeness. It was quite a cold October day and the sun was shining, and I said, 'it might be a bit bleak'

and that's the thing that he remembers about it: it's a bit bleak. And he asked me absolutely clearly: 'why are we going here?' and my only reason was because I haven't been there before and I think it's great. He never understood that. He had a lovely day out with me, but he never understood why we went because he thought it was a bleak place. (Extract from interview, 2003)

By recalling that what he has taken away from these trips are 'physical' then Paul could lead us to assume that he is referring to an aesthetic or humanistic appreciation of landscape as developed through an individualised or personalised geographical understanding (Morgan & Lambert, 2005). However, by referring to a physical appreciation, Paul may also be making reference to an appreciation of the physical landscape from a 'scientific' or positivistic view of geography related to the traditional scientific approach he was familiar with at university.

Nevertheless, his experience of the Gambia demonstrates that Paul has used his travel experiences for both developing his own geography experience and understanding. This combination of aspects of humanistic and physical geography is not surprising as geographers have cited place as being the geographical concept that links the physical and human dimensions of the subject (Johnston, 1991; Livingstone, 1993; Unwin, 1992). His experience of place reflects the humanistic tradition of experiencing places and developing a sense of place (Unwin, 1992). Although he does not use these terms directly, he leaves us with the impression that it is the experience of places that he relishes. It is also an extremely important dimension to his life beyond the classroom:

Well I suppose it [travel] is not as important as my book writing and my teaching. It's a break from it and sometimes I suppose you could say is my career. I have worked hard in order to spend it on travel. And I've got better travel than I have carpets and curtains. But then a lot of my geography friends do as well. My geography friends do have carpets and curtains and all that hi-fi stuff. And they've got good stories and photographs. Yes, that's the sort of life you get locked into. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Here Paul highlights how important travel and geographical experiences are to him personally.

Paul as a geography teacher

Paul also indicated that early academic success was important in his relationship with geography and this was reflected when he recounted the inspirational people with whom he worked.

> [A colleague who had written widely] spoke Italian and he was a role model, and he was just a wonderful geographer of the old school. He knew loads of things. He didn't just know about Italy, he knew about the whole world and I taught alongside [him]. I was working with [him] as a factual geography teacher, slightly wrong to say factual geography teacher but relative to what I do now factual. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul draws a distinction between his current practice and 'factual geography'. Although he acknowledges that 'factual geography', a reference to the highly descriptive, content-rich geography that characterised this type of 'Capes and Bays' school geography (Rawling, 2001) is less a characteristic of his current practice, his respect for his colleague indicates that this was something that he admired and that was important in his early career as a geography teacher. As with his own geographical understanding there seems to be a tension between his geographical knowledge of geographical concepts and his engagement with a more humanistic, personalised view of the world he experiences. It would appear that this tension is replicated in his teaching: between the content of 'factual' geography and his desire to encourage children to learn through their own experience. His discussion about his response to Ofsted inspections later in his career shows that he has taken into account more recent trends in pedagogy and educational thinking:

> Yes, it was about teaching, and more and more we have started thinking about learning now. Even in the last ten years. I remember the first Ofsted here. They were bothered about me and my teaching. And the last Ofsted here were very much bothered about learning. But we weren't sure of that and so we were very much teaching the lesson. They said 'lovely lesson, but where is the learning?' And we were confused. And the next Ofsted to come we won't be confused at all, and we will focus on the learning and we won't worry about our teaching. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul is demonstrating here his development between what might appear to be a content rich 'taught' lesson to more of a focus on learning. His own practice of teaching geography appears then to be settled somewhere between these two approaches. Paul reflected on his current practice of teaching geography which demonstrates the tension between how he feels geography should be taught and the legislation that lays down the geography that he is required to teach:

Well the geography I teach comes from the National Curriculum, so it is not necessarily the geography that I want to teach. It happens to be the geography that I want to teach. I take

examples from where I want, so from within the geography national curriculum framework or from within the GCSE syllabus I do what I need. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul appears able then to place his preferred approach to teaching within these frameworks. What geography is therefore contained in the National Curriculum? The current structure of the National Curriculum is arranged in geographical themes and skills, but the version at this time placed more emphasis on the study of places than previous versions (Rawling, 2001), and it may be that this is what Paul is referring to as 'the geography that he wants to teach'. Paul is able to resolve this potential conflict by focusing his teaching schemes on the geographical concept of place. This enables him to fulfil examination criteria whilst also teaching appropriate content and enabling students to engage with the geography of experience that he personally enjoys:

. . . I was pleased to see [place] come back in the national curriculum, and we've gone big on place here . . . In our GCSE we do our GCSE through three places: Italy, Nigeria and Japan. If you want to do population, we do it of there, if we need to plot a climate graph, we do a climate graph of there. Before that when we are working out the GCSE we used to have case studies from all around the world, now we have just three places where we take our case studies. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul is also a geography textbook author, and he uses his own books in his teaching. He reflects how his travel experiences have influenced his book writing which have then in turn been the main resource for his teaching. It is here that he is able to reconcile this tension, by using his travel experiences to guide his teaching and planning:

So you will see that we are doing Gambia today because it is in my book, because I have been to the Gambia. I tend to bring me into the lessons. And I have always seen my book writing as being a two-way process, planning for my lessons and I have got all my books from the classroom at the same time. So they have come from the classroom and they go back into the classroom. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Teaching about place therefore enables him to use his own geographical experiences as well as encouraging his students to contribute and develop a fuller understanding of their own:

I just honestly believe that if they have some sense of place, they will be good citizens and they will understand where they are in the world, because the lack of sense of place grieves

me sometimes because they go off to a place, and I say 'Oh the Canary islands, that's just off Africa' and they'll shout at me: 'no it isn't – it's in Spain'. So I'll get the Atlas out, 'here's Africa. Here's Morocco', and we go all around – the ignorance about place is so amazing. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul talks with great passion here about how place is important. We have seen a tension between his own experiences of geography: between a physical understanding of the environment and an aesthetic appreciation of it, and it appears that this tension is replicated in his classroom practice:

Funnily enough our course was all physical and we have been criticised to get a bit of landscape into our landforms: You can't just have landforms. We have totally physical coursework, having said that. So we go collecting pebbles, measuring pebbles, and correlating pebble size with length, we do all those sorts of things. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It is through an emphasis on the study of place that Paul is able to reconcile this tension in his role as a curriculum planner. The above statement reflects the tension between a quantitative approach to physical geography, focusing on measurement and a more humanistic approach based on experience. This tension, apparent in his own geographical experience, is reflected here in his curriculum planning. However, Paul appears to view developing geographical learning experiences as a technical task which Morgan and Lambert (2005) suggest can mean that teachers do not fully consider the tensions between the different types of geographical knowledge that their teaching can create.

Case Teacher: Dan

Dan is a head of geography at a school in a small town in Shropshire. Many of the students are bussed in from the surrounding predominantly rural district. He has been teaching for 14 years.

When Dan discusses his relationship with geography and with teaching, it is possible to detect a tension which revolves around two contrasting pulls: one a desire to see things differently, and secondly a need to be pragmatic in his work. The first of those themes, a desire to see things differently, stemmed from his school experiences of geography. At school, Dan studied the School Council 16–19 syllabus which he explains he enjoyed because of the

issues based approach.

Dan elaborated that it was both the content and the style of the 16–19 syllabus that inspired

him:

> Um I think that it was very much based on case studies which I was interested in. It wasn't theoretical too much. It was a nice synthesis of human and physical and all sorts of things brought them all together which I have always enjoyed, which is characteristic of the 16–19 course really. The issues based thing was crucial really and it really got me going actually. All the time we would be looking at: should the bypass be built here and that kind of thing. And we did a DME[8] as well . . . And so we looked at should they build a Pontins at the top of the cliff at Weymouth and things like that. Arguments for and against and I really, really liked that. In fact, for quite a long time through my degree course, it was that issues based in planning that actually I thought was my main interest and it led me to choose planning options. (Extract from interview, 2003)

The 16–19 syllabus encouraged students to ask their own questions and to develop an issues-based approach to learning was something that really inspired Dan. He reflects that he enjoyed this course because:

> I liked the intellectual challenge of that kind of thing, it was that element of challenge of problem solving that we are supposed to encourage in boys aren't we? It encouraged me. I did like the fact that it was issues which were political issues like 'should we cut the rainforest down?' The London Docklands was one thing that really got me going actually and the political thing. It was in 1984, and it was just starting up and we went to London Docklands for a day and I was really enthused by this Thatcherite sort of monstrosity that was developing. It has since improved and all the people who were missing out on the redevelopment that was going on . . . Seeing graffiti with 'LDDC out' and that kind of thing and that was the subject matter that interested me. I have always been interested in the issues and the slightly political side of things and something to get your teeth into . . .(Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan himself links this political interest in geography to his own development and interests at the time. He has already used the terms 'seeing things differently' and this he reflects was a key part of his personality when at university:

> I had a very conservative upbringing and in my family in suburban London and I was

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looking generally as a person to stretch out and to get interested in different things that I had grown up with. I wore different clothes, and I watched different films, and it was a whole different way of learning and a whole different approach to the world, you know, deconstructing the iconography of things. (Extract from interview, 2003)

However, this interest in seeing things in a different way did not influence his decision of where to study geography at university. Here he made a practical decision:

I went to Loughborough and I went there because I wanted to go there for sport because I was a good athlete at the time . . . I was looking at the wrong sort of things, I was looking at: do you have to do a physical geography option in year 2 and things like that. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Whilst at Loughborough, Dan was influenced by cultural geographer DenisCosgrove, which enabled Dan to maintain his interest in geography by encouraging him again to look at things in a different way:

It drew together some other interests of mine, from when I had done RE and English A Level. I remember a very key moment, when I did a lecture and a seminar following it, done by Denis Cosgrove which was about post-modernism and we were talking about language and its meaning and stuff like that and I just loved it. You know, of all the academic experience, learning experiences, that I have had that would stand out as being you know the thing that really got me going, you know, and because it was challenging and it was different I think. (Extract from interview, 2003)

This contradicts Dan's early engagement with geography which he felt was tied up with planning which influenced his earlier degree choices.

I went down the planning route, and I realised too late what my interests were – so even in the third year I went down the planning route. Partly because I didn't do all that well in the second year which was worth 40% and so I had to go for the safe option to make sure that I could get a 2:1 which I did in the end. So I went for industrial geography which was safe, and, you know, all right. And planning geography which was really boring, and in fact was counter productive because I got so bored with it, I didn't do very well, I don't think. I went for African Studies as well which was taught by Morag Bell who was again one of these people with a different take on life and a different approach and she really enthused me. And got me interested; her stuff was all about South Africa and Apartheid and that was great – issues based, and political and really interesting. (Extract from interview, 2003)

We can see here the tension between these two dimensions for Dan. On one hand the practical need to get a good result in his degree encouraged him to follow the planning route. However, the change in tone and language in the above quotation shows that his real interest was in the more challenging political content of the courses he studied. The emphasis on these earlier interests in geography are focused around the challenge of the subject and how it is presented and geographical study enabling him to see things differently.

Although Dan stated that he was not particularly interested in travel, where travel has been a influence it appears to again have been because it offered him an opportunity to see things in a different way:

I went to Gambia on a fieldtrip with Loughborough and that had quite an impact on me. Just seeing somewhere that is so different and made me reflect more on England and what that is like and again, more interested in places and so they were influences but not as major as the academic side of it really. (Extract from interview, 2003)

His current geographical interests also reflect this tension between intellectual challenge and seeing things differently. Although primarily focused on teaching, this interest stems from him developing a post-modern understanding of geography:

As a geographer? Well my main interest is in fieldwork and for the academic side of things I am very interested in the qualitative ways of doing fieldwork and I suppose it is drawing on the cultural geography interest and background but taking it into the fieldwork area finding different ways of doing things and looking at the world in a different way, again with a slightly post-modern approach if you like, and that would be my main drive and interest really. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan's discussion of himself as a geographer presents an interesting picture and one that tracks how his geographical interests have changed and developed. Starting off by being interested in issues and then moving on to planning, and then to cultural geography and now focusing on fieldwork. Dan has seemingly moved around different geography persuasions. However, there is a common thread to his development: an interest in issues and looking at things in different ways – this could be described as the pull of the intellectual challenge to be challenged to see things and places differently

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Dan as a geography teacher

Dan has already indicated that he has a practical dimension to his decision making, often taking into account practical needs. In the interview, he reflected that this was also the reason why he initially when into teaching:

> Yeah. I ran out of money . . . I wasn't quite sure what to do, didn't have any direction and really wasn't convinced about doing a PhD. I also got married straight after finishing, and so pragmatic needs kicked in . . . and so I jumped for teaching in an independent school which said no PGCE required, and so I thought I would do this for a year, pay off my debts and then maybe do a PhD. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He realised soon after starting this job, that teaching required more than just geographical knowledge and did consider other careers either as an academic geographer or in transport planning. It was at this stage that he changed his mind about teaching and undertook a PGCE training course which unfortunately did not engage him intellectually. It was, however, when he was able to issue his own intellectual challenge that he was able to become more interested:

> But the thing that was by far the most useful was the dissertation which was my first foray into qualitative fieldwork and again, I made something good myself really. It was limited but it was interesting I think and I did some work on London Docklands and two different approaches to fieldwork and I compared them and I did reading on qualitative fieldwork techniques and on research design and that kind of thing and that was really useful and in terms of time it was not too bad, I did a lot of it on the train on the way to work and last minute on the weekend of work at the end to get it done and it wasn't too bad. (Extract from interview, 2003)

We have seen the tension here again, between the practical needs that Dan has experienced as a teacher with other demands on his time but also his desire to get involved in seeing things differently (in this case fieldwork). It is this theme that Dan refers to when he discussed his current practice. He employs a combination of making informed choices and also taking an efficient approach to what needs to be done.

> I think I have got academic ability and the way that my brain works does help I think at times, so I think I have got quite a clear way of thinking and so when it comes down to breaking up difficult ideas at A Level for example, and making them straightforward and simple and logical. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It is here that we can see the two tensions coming together: this ability to see things in a different way enables him to reflect on what his students need, whilst the practical aspect enables him to make efficient choices about what he teaches. His ability to make good selective choices about his teaching had been identified by Ofsted inspectors

> Certainly an Ofsted inspector said to me recently I know what is important and I work on that and I hadn't really thought of that before but I think it is probably true and I try to . . . I recognise for example that if you are going to do well at GCSE they have to be able to write 10 lines really well, getting in examples and developing their points and I just really really flog that and I have loads of ways of doing that I work on that a lot. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He even offers us an analogy so that we can understand this further:

> Yeah, it's like the grand prix driver that is supposed to win the race in the slowest possible time, because if you go racing ahead your car might break up and I think, and I have learnt very very slowly, because it is not in my nature really, that I tend to be a bit of a perfectionist, or used to be, and I am not any more because wiser older teachers have taught me to get out of school as soon as possible and to get home and to see the kids and to try not to work in the evenings if you can. When things are important do them well, but when they are not: can they be left? And so that has kept me fresh I hope. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan could be perceived as a teacher who is highly skilled at getting students through the examinations with the least resistance and in the most efficient way. And yet, this is not the full picture. The theme that Dan expressed in his own geographical experience, of seeing things in a different way is evident again, particularly when he discusses why geography is important for students to study today. His motivation shows that he is taking a perspective that is about the students' self-development and understanding.

> I think it is important to know about the world they live in. Very often I find that I am teaching something and I think, I am glad they are learning this, I am glad that they are becoming aware of this and I think it is important. Like for example trade, and why some countries are rich and some are poor, and that is a very useful role. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He is also critical of a purely practical approach to education:

> I think that it is a shame if you are just doing things preparing them for work all the time – I think that we would end up a very shallow society . . . but my education was not very much preparing me for work directly but the things I gained most from education were things like an understanding of the world around me . . . I feel that I am a better person for that. Also this approach that cultural geography gives on looking at the world in a different way and with a different slant on things and it has influenced me and the way that I look at things all the time. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It would appear that it is this perspective on geography that is the driving force for Dan. However, this tension between the practical and the intellectually challenging is something that Dan is keenly aware of:

> I keep finding myself becoming a bit of an exam factory to be honest. I've become quite good at getting kids through exams and hopefully some of that seeing the world in a different way is a by-product . . . (Extract from interview, 2003)

<u>In Summary</u>

Both of the teachers detailed above have different styles, experiences and approaches to teaching geography. Although both teach in the same broader educational environment, and under the same curriculum constraints (i.e. the same National Curriculum and examination specification restrictions), the interviews show that their understanding of geography, geographical persuasions and approaches to teaching geography are different. What follows are some early observations, made at this stage of the research which may be subject to some change as the research develops.

It would appear at first glance that each teacher has been influenced by values that they have carried over from their early geographical experiences. For Paul this is reflected in

an engagement

with places and the lure of travel. Alternatively, for Dan it was the pull of developing a political understanding of the world, and the opportunity that geography gave him to see the world differently. Both of these values have been carried forward into their current practice: Paul still likes to base his curriculum around the study of places (and particularly those he has experienced), whilst Dan has looked for opportunities to give students a chance to see the world differently. This finding would be in line with Gudmundsdottir (1990) and Korthagen's (2004) work that identifies that values or mission are at the root of a teacher's practice. However, what we also see within these case teachers is that there is conflict in how they can express these values. For Paul, the way that geography education has changed, and the watchdog to enforce these changes (as represented by Ofsted) has required him to adapt and review his teaching practices. He has been able to reconcile these challenges through focusing on the geographical concept of place in his curriculum planning. It would appear that Paul has been able to do this in line with his values of what is 'good' geography at school level. Alternatively, Dan has experienced conflict between the pressure that he feels to be an 'exam factory' to get good results for his students, whilst also wishing to develop in them being able to see things differently. Both teachers have been able to develop their curriculum planning priorities in line with the constraints and contexts that they are teaching within, and their preferred approaches and values that underpin their engagement with geography.

If we refer back to the Habermasian understanding how a subject has developed, it could be highlighted that these teachers engaged with academic geography during different periods when the subject was focusing on different theoretical bases. Paul studied for his degree in the 1960s and described it as focusing on a positivistic, quantitative geography. Dan however, was able to engage with critical and post-modern geographical analysis and understanding. There is some indication that these undergraduate and pre-undergraduate influences have remained with them. For Paul the 'factual' approach to geography was influential in his early career, but a passion for place has remained part of his professional and personal life. Dan has also been able to apply the principles of the cultural and critical geography to his current teaching issues such as fieldwork. Although the links with their early geographical experiences are not direct, it is evident that the relationship that they developed with geography has left 'residuals' that still affect their practice.

Both teachers teach in the same broad educational culture, as they need to respond to agendas set by the current education legislation in England and Wales, and the prescribed 'national' curricula. However, they have not interpreted these curricula, or indeed the geography contained within them in the same way. Influenced by their own 'passions' Paul has chosen to focus on the place emphasis in both the geography National Curriculum and the GCSE specifications, and to interpret the thematic studies through study of places. Conversely, Dan has chosen to structure his curriculum through a series of geographical themes that enable him to

emphasise the geographical issues that he perceives in the curriculum. A picture is starting to emerge here of how their initial geographical passions are influencing their teaching practice.

Although only tentative, what is beginning to emerge through this data is an understanding of how these teachers are using their subject knowledge in the classroom. What is missing from this initial analysis is detail of how this affects their classroom practice. But based on this evidence, they do not appear to have developed a similar or comparable 'knowledge' about teaching that is divorced from their understanding of geography or pedagogy, or indeed that has been transformed or emerged from them. It would seem, however, that their interest in geography has had some influence on how they teach. Each has demonstrated that they are able to understand how *what* they are teaching is part of a broader geographical understanding of what geography is to them.

Shulman's assertion that teachers have a 'subject knowledge *for teaching*' (1986: 9, emphasis in original) would seem to support these observations. However, the case teachers, as curriculum developers, have also had to use their subject knowledge in a strategic way in order to enable them to act within their values framework. This ability to understand the sliding scale of geographical understanding (i.e. from the big picture to the little picture, the local to the global) has been termed synoptic capacity[9] (Daly *et al.,* 2004; Rice, 1992). If geographical content is one of the factors that may influence the quality of geography education, then it would be prudent to examine this notion further. Understanding teachers' subject expertise as a relationship could enable teachers to see how what they are teaching fits synoptically into their larger understanding of the threshold concepts that underpin geographical study. If this is the case, then it would be prudent to suggest that encouraging teachers to focus on this synoptic capacity, and enabling them to appreciate how their subject knowledge can affect their practice which could have an effect on the quality of geography education that is taught.

Marsden warned of taking the geography out of geography education (Marsden, 1997). Foregrounding the development of this relationship between a teacher's subject knowledge and how they teach geography could help to redress this balance and to encourage teachers to reflect on if they are teaching 'good' geography as well as 'good' lessons.

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Current Teaching Methods Education of Geography Teachers in Serbia

Abstract

The content of didactic and methods of teaching, as well as pedagogical-psychological field, is the basic condition for the preparation and performance in school any teacher, including teachers of geography. Methodological knowledge that geography teacher acquired at the University, is required to verify in practice, including 30 hours demonstration classes with mentor. Completely didactic and methods teaching education of geography teachers in Serbia is get at academic master's and doctoral studies, where they represented the core subjects focused on teaching and its modernization. Curriculum structure of future geography teacher's education should be improved. It is important to establish Geography departments for teaching methods and offer courses to faculty and trained staff. In this way, geography teachers can adopt and develop the necessary pedagogical and didactic knowledge and skills to work, and raised teaching of geography to a higher level.

Keywords: geography teacher, didactic, teaching methods in geography, education, subject

INTRODUCTION

Methods of teaching geography and pedagogy represent a "unique science whose subject matter, teaching geography, is conceived as a scientific and educational category" (Mastilo, 1984 by: Rudic, 1998, 24). The relationship of these two disciplines is connected and inseparable. Methods of teaching geography help the development of didactics, and didactics help the development of principles and new methods and techniques on which the methodology of geography is based upon. Rudic notices the relationship between methodology and didactics of geography in the following common issues: the question of the definition of geography, the question of the geographical object of study, the educational values of geography, the application of geography in social practice and teaching methods (Rudic, 1998).

The quality of the teacher and his work with students in teaching geography do not only depend on a good knowledge of the mere profession, but also on the quality use of the best achievements of modern pedagogical science. Good knowledge of the psychological aspects of working with students, in addition to qualifications of a geography teacher, most certainly implies his/her methodological competence.

INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION GEOGRAPHY

The initial high-education of geography teachers, at all levels in Serbia, is carried out in two phases. The first phase is studying at a geographical faculty / department and it includes teacher-training in scientific and technical subjects and the compulsory study of psychological and pedagogical disciplines, as well as specialized methods of teaching geography with the practice in teaching. The second phase is introducing teachers into the teaching profession, under the guidance of a mentor and during this part of teacher preparation the emphasis is put on the pedagogical and educational sciences in general, and the special knowledge and skills of the interactive teaching and effective knowledge transfer.

The most professional group of experts in the teaching of geography in Serbia is formed at four faculties: the Faculty of Geography at the University of Belgrade, Department of Geography, Tourism and Hotel Management at the University of Novi Sad , Faculty of Natural Sciences at the University of Pristina and the Department of Geography at the University of Nis . In all the aforementioned institutions of higher education, in order to become a teacher of geography, it is necessary to take, at least, basic studies (180/240 ECTS) and then graduate master studies (60/120 ECTS) as a condition for entering into the teaching profession. At the Novi Sad and Belgrade University, tertiary studies are also accredited which enables people to get the highest positions in the field of geographical science – the doctor of geo-sciences.

The current programs consist of academic and general subjects, theoretical, methodological, scientific, technical and professional application subjects. The most recent curriculum, at all colleges for the education of geographers, is designed so that the activities of scientific and technical and professional application objects are the crucial part of the education of future teachers of geography, thus leaving the pedagogical education and practical experience neglected. The concept of teacher education, where more than 50% of the teacher training programs are academic and research facilities, was present 10 or more years ago but to a much greater extent (80%). Thus conceived curriculum, based on scientific disciplines with little pedagogical and methodical education, shows us that even after the most recent recommendations and guidelines we have not improved education so much.

SPECIFIC METHODOLOGICAL AND DIDACTICAL EDUCATION

Knowledge of the content of didactic-teaching methods and pedagogical-psychological field is the basic requirement for the preparation and work in school of any teacher, including geography teachers. The future geography teachers are educated by the programs consisting of various subjects in which very important content is being presented and which they adopt. Their willingness to teach geography depends on the overall knowledge obtained in college and how well they have mastered it, and gaining practical methodological competence.

Methodological knowledge, crucial for the future geography teachers, is acquired at the University in the theoretical form and is necessary that it is verified in practice which includes 30 hours of demonstration classes with mentor and provides opportunities for diverse participation in teaching (teacher mentor support, introduction to the pedagogical and psychological services, the use of different methods and work, the choice of teaching materials).

When it comes to the development of a set of competencies for successful performance of the role of teacher, special attention is given to those who are directly related to the practical work of geography teachers. The quality of professional preparation of teachers necessarily means the quality of practical didactic and methodical training of direct educational work. An important prerequisite of the teacher's competence is the knowledge in terms of instruction and the ability of future teachers to understand the specificity of geography.

The curriculum is envisaged so that the future teachers acquire methodical competence through compulsory subjects like pedagogy, psychology, methods of teaching geography and provides for the professional school practice that takes place in school (primary or secondary).

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this study is to assess the subjects that help future geography teachers to acquire methodical and didactic skills. The task of research is a comparative analysis of methodological-didactic, pedagogical and psychological subjects at the Faculty of Geography of Serbia, according to parameters such as: the status of subjects, classes per week and the number of credits per course (ECTS).

According to the analyzed programs of the Faculty / Department of Geography in Serbia in 2013/14. Academic year, the basic methodological knowledge geography teachers receive through subjects: Methods of teaching geography, psychology, and pedagogy and school practice. All the above items are generally found in the group of compulsory subjects (table 1.), the only exception are the Department of Geography in Nis and Geography Faculty at Belgrade, where the methodical and didactic courses are in the election (optional) group.

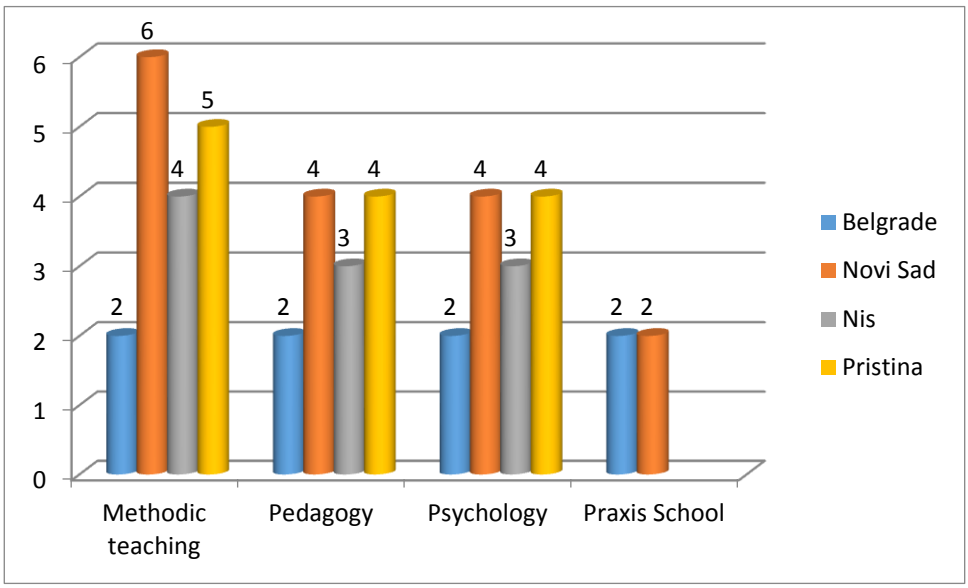
Table 1. Review of the subjects at the Faculty of Geography

Faculty/ Department of Geography at	Teaching methods in geography			Pedagogy			Psychology			Praxis School		
	Status	TH	ECTS	Status	TH	ECTS	Status	TH	ECTS	Status	TH	ECTS
Belgrade	C	2+0	6	O	2+0	2	O	2+0	2	C	2	/
Novi Sad	C	4+2	8	C	4+0	6	C	3+1	6	C	2	6
Nis	O	2+2	6	O	3+0	7	O	3+0	6	/	/	/
Pristina	C	2+3	5	C	2+2	7	C	2+2	7	*	*	*

S-Status, C-Compulsory, O-Optional, TH-Teaching hours per week (lectures + exercises), ECTS-European credit transfer system, * - no data

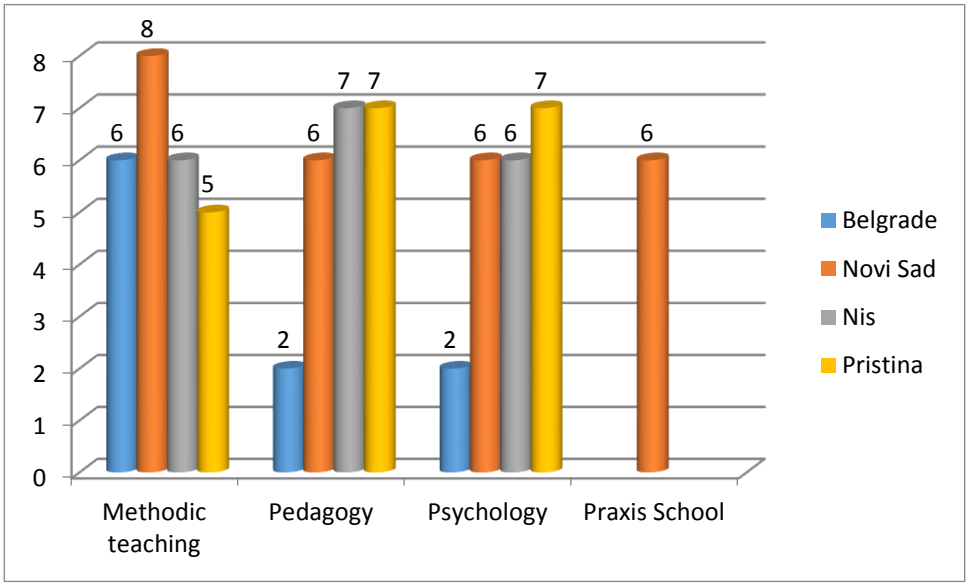
The program of undergraduate studies at the Faculty of Geography, Belgrade, provides two hours of lectures in geography teaching methodology, pedagogy and psychology (figure 1). The paper points out that the plan does not include credit for the prescribed methods of teaching geography. We consider that a total of six classes of methodological and pedagogical-psychological are insufficient for acquiring a master degree in geography.

Figure 1. Common subjects that help to acquire methodical and didactic competence for the geography teachers calling (by the teaching hours per week)



The component of school practice, which is legally in force, and that represents a conditional element for entry into the profession, still, and most unfortunately, is not represented sufficiently and the plan of the Department of Geography in Nis does not even exist!

Figure 2. Didactic-methodical subjects by credits (ECTS)



By comparing study programs for education of geographers it becomes noticeable that methodical and didactic, pedagogical and psychological subjects are not equal according to the status of the case nor the values of points (figure 2). From figure 2 it can be noted that the Belgrade Faculty of Geography, generally, scores least subjects needed for methodical education of teachers.

More complete didactic and methodical education of geography teachers is achieved on the academic master 's and doctoral studies , where the core subjects focused on teaching and its modernization are represented, such as: The application of didactic principles in the teaching of geography, Geography in syllabuses around the world and in Serbia, Innovation in geography, Psychology of learning , The curriculum in the world and in our country, Developmental and

educational Psychology, Educational Psychology, Educational ethics and Educational statistics, Testing and examination (Faculty of Natural Science, 2013).

At the Faculty of Science in Novi Sad, there is an organized course in methods of teaching geography at the level of doctoral studies. This is the only postgraduate course of its kind in Serbia. The aim of this interdisciplinary study is that by linking the teaching methodology, pedagogical and psychological and geographic disciplines professionals, who will clearly understand and apply the knowledge and skills necessary for modern teaching of geography, can be educated and trained.

CONCLUSION

Today, the education of the primary school geography teachers is conducted by the Bologna process and the educational system of 4 +1 or 3 +2. Initial teacher education is a key issue of every country, because teachers have a major influence on the educational achievement of students. One of the important issues of national education policy and the latest reform of high education is the quality of teachers themselves.

Although it is accepted that the master degree is a minimum requirement to be met by a geography teacher , such a formal request from the analyzed program concept of educating future geographers provides little guarantee that the teacher will provide the necessary methodological and didactic skills in order to successfully fulfill the function of geography teaching . It is necessary to improve methods of establishing methodological department of geography at the Faculty of Geography and organizing courses in the faculty and trained staff. In this way, the future, as well as regular, geography teachers will adopt and develop the necessary pedagogical, didactic and psychological knowledge and skills to work, and geography teaching will be raised to a higher level. The establishment of methodical department would provide education and opportunity for a higher education of current highly-educated geography teachers, who have been educated with higher fund vocational courses rather than pedagogical. The styles of our methodologists conclude that "geography teachers are ambassadors of our science, and such as the ambassadors, such is the science" (Rudic, 2007, 192).

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TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY

Effectiveness of Instruction, Maps and Spatial Concepts, Evaluating Geographic Learning

Geography, like history, is not defined by the uniqueness of its content; rather, both gain their distinction by the way in which they organize and analyze the data they collect regarding particular aspects of the human experience. History compares and contrasts information within the framework of chronology, while geography organizes its information within the context of the spatial environment. Today, the focus of geographic inquiry is generally conceded to be on spatial interactions, that is, the geographer seeks to understand the significance of human activity within a spatial framework. Where historians report their findings primarily through written narratives, geographers present their data primarily through the construction of maps.

Until the advent of the Progressive movement in American life, beginning in the decades following the Civil War, geography was taught as a separate subject. Memorization of the names of important cities, physical features, and relational facts dominated instruction. Recognition of the temporary shelf life of that kind of information taught in rote fashion led Progressive educators to deemphasize the acquisition of facts and to instead emphasize the role of reasoning and problem solving in learning. Under this program, the traditional subjects of geography, history, and civics were fused. In this context the teaching of geography began to lose its identity as a unique area of study.

Effectiveness of Instruction

Whether taught as a separate subject or fused in some way with subject matter drawn from other fields of the natural and social sciences, there is a long history of ineffectiveness of instruction in the teaching of geography. From the first attempt to assess the effectiveness of instruction in geography, in the 1840s in Boston's public schools, to the most recent efforts, notably the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), there is a continuing record of what most consider to be substandard results. A much more sophisticated assessment tool than those of past years, the NAEP results have shown, for example, that secondary students learn more geographic information in history classes than in those classes devoted exclusively to the study of geography. Although one can decry such a seeming incongruity, the historical knowledge displayed by students on these tests was equally dismal.

How is it that geographic instruction appears to be so ineffective? One reason may be that teachers generally are not themselves geographically literate. One teaches what one knows, and today's teachers are as much a product of their schooling as anyone else. It might be hoped that professional geographers would be able to communicate the nature of geographic literacy and would be effective in educating teachers for the task of teaching geographic concepts. Unfortunately, the number of professional geographers is limited–hardly a drop in the bucket when compared to the number of professional historians, for example–so it is to be expected their ability to help teachers will also be limited. However, there are many geographers who are devoted to the task of teacher education and are actively involved in remediating this problem, which is coordinated to the extent possible through a professional organization, the National Council for Geographic Education.

A second reason that geographic instruction is not as effective as it might be is because not enough is known about how students acquire geographic concepts. There is, however, a body of information that is suggestive of that process. Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget (1896–1980) is the towering figure in the development of research techniques and in broadening understandings about the fashion in which spatial concepts develop. Rather than being interested in a child's ability to give a correct response to

direct questions, he sought to understand the reasoning process that led children to give incorrect answers to the broader tasks he set before them to solve. As well, instead of attempting to secure answers in a third-person setting in which the correct answers were foretold–the paper-and-pencil test so familiar in American schools–he asked youngsters to talk their way through the solution to a particular spatial problem irrespective of "correctness."

Piaget's pioneering research, and that of many researchers who followed his lead in exploring the emergence of spatial concepts, tells us that the intellectual progression in the ability to comprehend spatial properties moves from perceived space to conceived space, from experiencing space only in the most direct sense to conceptions of space in which the child's thoughts, at first quite primitive, gradually become abstract and based on Euclidean (mathematical) conceptions. The development of a reasonably mature ability to comprehend spatial interactions appears not to be available to the student until early adolescence. If this is so, then the importance of providing direct environmental experience, especially in the elementary school, would be required for the development of the kind of thinking that is basic to the mature comprehending of spatial interactions. That school environments largely preclude direct experiencing of the spatial environment means that the development of geographic literacy faces some significant hurdles, and it also explains why the focus on "where-is-it," "what-is-it" kinds of questions persist in the school curriculum.

Maps and Spatial Concepts

Since the map provides the basic tool for reporting spatial interactions, the ability to read maps meaningfully is a primary objective of instruction. Map reading can be viewed as a more complex form of print reading–the reading of books, newspapers, and so forth–in which the number of symbols and their positions in relation to one another are both consistent and limited. Map reading, in contrast, requires the reader to develop meanings for a wide variety of symbols, some conventional print but others of varying degrees of abstraction, all arranged in a relational two-dimensional environment. The reading process, regardless of the symbol systems employed, requires the creation of meanings, which in turn are dependent upon the reader's conceptual base, that is, what the reader understands the symbols are intended to represent. There has long been controversy over how the reading process, regardless of the complexity of the symbol system involved, is initiated. Many believe that initial skills should be taught in a more or less arbitrary fashion and that the development of meanings follows. Others, and that is the argument here, believe that form follows function, that concepts, in this case of spatial relationships, are basic to the process of creating meanings in response to apprehending textual material.

As in learning to read conventional print, it is argued that the most constructive route to fluent reading involves much writing based on one's own experience. If map reading is, as it appears, similar to reading print in its more conventional form, but complicated by the presence of a variety of symbols representing different sets of meanings arranged in a two-dimensional plane (as well as an abstraction of the world's three-dimensional reality), then learning to read maps with some degree of sophistication must depend upon prior experiences in constructing maps out of one's personal experience. Taking this view, an important activity throughout the school curriculum for both elementary and secondary schools should entail an emphasis on a developmental sequence that takes the student from first creating maps directly out of one's own experience and going onward from there toward learning how the mathematics of map making results in the kind of representations seen in classrooms and the world at large.

Studies of children's conceptions of spatial interactions indicate the progression toward some degree of intellectual maturity in this regard is much slower than commonly perceived. For example, concepts of

political entities (towns, states, nations, etc.), notions of boundary lines, slope, and elevation seem to commence their emergence late–in early adolescence at best. The argument that television and various forms of virtual reality, abstractions even at their best, have expanded student's views such that they are much more aware of the world they live in begs further examination. It is to be regretted in this regard that Piagetian research protocols have not been updated and applied to furthering our knowledge. The admittedly little evidence we do have suggests that we be cautious in coming to any conclusions about the efficacy of media, including the Internet, in promoting geographic understandings because the emergence of mature geographic understanding appears to be so highly dependent upon prior firsthand experiencing of the immediate environment.

Evaluating Geographic Learning

How, then, does one evaluate geographic learning? Geographers are not in agreement regarding the approach instruction should take and, consequently, how to judge whether significant learning has occurred. The major traditions of geographic inquiry, which might be used as the basic framework for making such judgments, have been defined as the *spatial tradition,* the *areas studies tradition, man–land tradition,* and the *earth science tradition.* These are the traditional categories employed in developing college curricula. Geographers more interested in defining geography appropriate to elementary and secondary schools have argued for what they call the *five themes of geography*: location, place, relationships within places, movement over the earth, and regions.

Whichever set of criteria one uses for developing test items, and despite the popularity of paper-and-pencil multiple-choice questions, easily evaluated by mechanical means, it is now widely accepted that evaluation procedures, to be valid, must include questions requiring the student to demonstrate reasoning abilities for reaching a particular conclusion about spatial interrelationships. Evaluating responses that demonstrate reasoning powers along with knowledge of specifics requires more time than current test practice provides and will, therefore, not be widely used until there is a broader acceptance of in-depth analyses of knowledge as the better indicator of students' progress toward geographic literacy.

See also: CURRICULUM, SCHOOL; HISTORY, ***subentry on*** TEACHING OF; SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION.

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Geographical Knowledge and Teaching Geography

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Recent events in England and Wales would suggest that geography teachers need to re-engage with their subject matter to enable them to improve how they teach the geography. However, this requires a detailed understanding of how teachers use their subject knowledge. This paper outlines how two geography teachers experience tension between how they understand geography at an academic level and the ways they prefer to teach it. How they resolve these conflicts shows that these teachers have an active relationship with their subject that enables them to develop curricula in line with their values about geography.

Keywords: subject knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, geographical education, geography, synoptic capacity

Introduction

In 1997, Bill Marsden questioned whether historical developments in England and Wales meant that we were taking the geography out of geographical education (Marsden, 1997). Since then the quality of geography education in England and Wales has appeared to have become worse. In 2004, focusing on the situation in England and Wales, David Bell reported that Ofsted[1] had found that geography was the worse taught subject in the primary sector (Ofsted, 2004). Simon Catling has highlighted how the provision for primary geography in initial teacher education is mostly inadequate (Catling, 2004). QCA (the government external examinations agency for England) have reported a continued decline in the numbers of English students choosing to study geography in post-compulsory education (at both post-14 GCSE[2] examinations, and post-16 A Level[3] equivalent examinations) (QCA, 2005). Is there a link then between the decline of geography in our geography education and the quality of geography education?

It has been argued that the discussion within the geographical community in England and Wales (Brooks, 2006) (as evidenced by on-line forums servicing the subject community, such as the Geographical Association and the popular SLN[4] Geography forum), would indicate that geography teachers feel that there is a link between this decline in the subject's popularity and the subject content that is taught. Marsden (1997) predicted that the lack of emphasis on the subject could impact negatively on geography education. Morgan and Lambert (2005) argue that teachers need to engage with geography continually to ensure that their lessons are grounded in geographical meaning and suggest that lessons where the content has not been carefully considered are in danger of being 'morally careless'.

Geography and Geography Teaching

Academic subjects are dynamic entities influenced by a range of factors. The popular image of geography differs greatly from the subject at school and university level (Bonnet, 2003). In his discussion of the historical development of academic geography, Unwin notes that these changes can be related to Habermas' categories of academic disciplines (Unwin, 1992). Unwin notes how the development of geography can be examined through these different categories and broadly

1 Ofsted – Office for Standards in Education: The English government education watchdog.
2 GCSE: General Certificate in Secondary Education: The external examination in Geography taken by 16-year-olds in England and Wales.
3 A Level: Advanced Level referring to the academic qualification in geography taken post-16 in England and Wales.

Staffordshire Learning Network – a popular Geography Education website that started in Staffordshire, UK, and now has a national Geographical Knowledge and Teaching Geography

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defines these as empirical-analytic, historical-hermeneutic, and as a critical science. His argument is that during geography's development as an academic subject, the way that geography has been defined and studied has changed in ways that can be recognised through these differing approaches to 'science' and 'knowledge'. He also notes that changes in academic geography are also influenced by societal pressure as well as influences from outside the discipline. The development of the subject at academic level has traditionally been held in the hands of HE[5] geography departments who have been able to conduct research in areas that have interested them. Unwin suggests that the need to obtain funding has influenced the 'freedom' of academics to research according to their personal interests, and Stannard (2003) has noted the powerful role that the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) has played in influencing the work of academics. However, the development of the academic discipline and the development and definition of geography at an academic level remains mostly in the hands of academics and what has influenced them.

The development of school geography in England and Wales, however, needs to respond to different pressures to academic geography. Rawling (2001) records how changes in school geography have been influenced by different ideologies, which have in turn influenced curriculum projects, preferred teaching styles, and the legislation that determines what is to be taught. Graves (2001) and Walford (2001), in their respective accounts of the development of geography in schools, also reflect on how school geography, as expressed through school textbooks, has reflected societal changes, pedagogical fashions, as well as changes in technology. Morgan and Lambert (2005) chart developments in school geography and note how it has changed in relation to the way that curricula and debates on curriculum have been affected by changes in the broader political frame. In England and Wales, however, one of the main differences between academic geography and school geography is the prescriptive nature of the school curriculum. Even for academic geography, the benchmarking standards give a broad definition of what is to be expected from a degree in geography (QAA, 2000). However, at school level the National Curriculum, and examination specifications at both post-14 and post-16 age groups, are more prescriptive as to *what* is to be taught. In fact, as Kington noted in his GA presidential address in 2003, most teachers teaching a post-14 examination-based curriculum will rely on a school geography textbook that has been written specifically with that examination in mind, and often by the examiners responsible for that examination itself (Kington, 2004). This cogently places these examiners in a position of power as not only defining geography at this level (through the specification) but also arguably defining the tools of instruction and therefore possibly influencing how it is to be taught (through the textbooks they write).

At a pre-examination level (pre-14) the geography curriculum is defined by the National Curriculum, which consists of Themes and Skills as a minimum entitlement of the geography that is to be taught to this age group. Although in the past this has been criticised for being highly prescriptive in content, recent versions are much more flexible in the definition of what is to be taught (Rawling, 2001). Rawling also notes that policies and curriculum documents such as the National Curriculum have to be interpreted and implemented in order for them to change and shape what happens in classrooms (Rawling, 2001). The interpretation and implementation of the geography curriculum is done by geography teachers. It is those teachers who, as Barratt-Hacking (1996), Jewitt (1998) and Walford (1996) suggest, have had very different values related to geography, different understandings of what geography is, and different geographical 'persuasions'.[6] How then do teachers who have experienced a range of 'geographies' at graduate level, use this geography at school level?

Rynne and Lambert (1997) have reported that although novice teachers may not feel confident in teaching certain subjects this does not necessarily affect how they teach these topics. However, research in the subject areas of Science and English would indicate that how a teacher defines or understands their subject will affect how they teach it (Gess-Newsome, 1999; Grossman, 1990; Hillocks, 1999). In fact, within English, Turvey (forthcoming) has noted how the process of teaching a literature topic can change perspectives on their subject knowledge as a teacher reflects on and learns alternative perspectives from the students they teach. This body of research stems from an interest in subject knowledge and how it is taught largely influenced by Shulman's pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Shulman defined PCK as: 'subject matter *for teaching*' (1986: 9, emphasis in original). Carlsen (1999) and Bullough (2001) note that the first mention of PCK (at Shulman's presidential address at the Carnegie Foundation (Shulman, 1986)) coincided with a period when teacher education was being criticised in the US. Carlsen (1999) argues that representing the way that teachers (as pedagogues) engage with their subject knowledge as a discrete knowledge, was a way of claiming power, authority and uniqueness to this form of knowledge, and therefore could be viewed as a way of responding to the criticisms teacher education was experiencing. PCK appears to fall in between the dual division of practical and theoretical knowledge that many academics have identified (as noted by Fenstermacher (1994) in his review on the area). However, as Elbaz (1991) observes, teachers do not conceptualise what they do and what they know in this discrete way. They generally opt for telling stories, and using narratives to give a more holistic view of how they teach and to what extent their subject knowledge influences this. Proponents of this view (Cochran- Smith & Lytle, 1993; Jalongo *et al.*,

1995) argue even more strongly that enabling teachers to tell these narratives encourages them to value their knowledge about teaching and to further reflect and develop deeper understandings stemming from their experience.

Elbaz (1991) also argues that analysis of narratives can help us get beyond *what* teachers say they do (which may differ from what they actually do) to the reasons why they practise in this way. Gudmundsdottir's (1990) research indicates that teachers have values, influenced by their subject knowledge, that affects how they teach. However, Korthegan's (2004) more recent work demonstrates that this may go deeper, and teachers may in fact be influenced by a 'mission' close to their core being that drives their values, perspectives and ultimately their work in classrooms.

If the decline of school geography in England and Wales is related to teachers' consideration of their subject matter itself (along with possible other factors), and that teachers' experience of university geography can drive or influence what they do, the need still remains to understand how and to what extent this influence operates. Morgan and Lambert (2005) argue that teachers are encouraged to consider teaching as a technical rather than as an intellectual activity and do not engage in critical and challenging discussions about *what* they are teaching and *why* they are teaching it. In response, this paper will detail two cases of teachers talking about subject knowledge and how it affects their teaching. Although greatly contrasting cases, sharing the experience of these teachers will hopefully enable a greater understanding of ways that subject knowledge can affect how a teacher teaches geography. Analysis of how subject knowledge affects teaching and its relative importance to a teacher's decision making will help us to illuminate if Marsden's warnings about neglecting the subject have come true.

Methodology

The cases presented here are two of six cases studied as part of my PhD research into subject knowledge and 'expert' teachers of geography. These two have been selected as they contrast in experience and outlook. All of the six cases were selected to take part in the study through recommendation as 'expert'[7] geography teachers by members of the geography education community.

Influenced by Elbaz's (1990) observation that teachers express what they do and their knowledge through narratives, the data from each case were collected mostly through an extended interview with the participants, where they were encouraged to discuss their memories of and relationship with geography as well as how and why they decided to teach geography. During the interview they were also encouraged to discuss their preferred methods for teaching geography and

what they considered their approach was to teaching geography. It was acknowledged that teachers' practice and their discussion of their practice may highlight some anomalies. It was not intended to crossreference what the case teachers said and did, but to use their description of what motivates them to teach and what influences their teaching, as one way of understanding their practice. I also felt that it was important to understand the context that each teacher was working in, and therefore they were visited in their schools where I collected documentation about the school and their lesson planning and preparation. I observed them teach and discussed their practice with their colleagues.

The data were collected and analysed through the use of a grounded theory approach. For each case, individual themes emerged from the data about how he or she understood and perceived geography. Similarly, their approach to teaching geography varied greatly. These themes were put together to identify similarities and contradictions. What is presented here is a summary of these observations and recordings, and therefore is a simplified version of the full data set. Names have been changed to protect the identity of individuals.

Case Teacher: Paul

Paul is an experienced teacher who has been head of humanities in a school in Wiltshire. He is also the author and co-author of several school geography textbooks for the 11–16 age group. Paul has been teaching for nearly three decades, the majority of which have been in his current school.

Paul described his relationship with geography as starting with a very early interest in stamps that was sparked through a family connection:

> My aunts worked at Horlicks in Slough and two aunts ran the postal department consecutively. And they had all the stamps and these stamps came in in their hundreds and my mum helped me sort them out where they came from. And this would be when I was 4 or 5. And then as I went through primary school I had a really good stamp collection and I knew so much about where places were, . . . and because of that I became interested in place. (Extract from interview, 2003)

The interest in place he developed at this young age has been something that has sustained Paul through his early years and in more recent times. As a child he recalled travelling around England with his father and how this enabled him to know more about other places than his peers at school and also sparked an interest in travel that he has sustained to this day. His early geographical experiences were also tied up with understanding or valuing place:

> I was in the Boys Brigade. Some of those camps that I went on were absolutely amazing. You know, we went to Hayley Island on the Isle of Wight, and I went to an international camp at Blairmont in Scotland when I was 18 and I climbed a little mountain with John Hunt. He is the Everest man. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul went on to study geography at a prestigious university. Although recalling a fairly traditional geography degree, the impact of this experience has stayed with him. When he recalled his university experience he reflected on the people that he met and the extraordinary travelling that they had achieved or went on to achieve, citing an Olympic athelete who had just come back from Japan, and a TV programme maker who focused on the North Pole. These people appear to have inspired Paul, both in terms of the places they had visited and to seek to travel himself.

When he describes the influence of travel, he describes that experience in geographical language, highlighting geographical themes:

> . . . it wasn't just the unknown, it was the excitement of travel and looking at the variety of life. And I wouldn't say it was particularly *physical*. I think it was *physical* and *human*: it's *people* and *landscape*. Some places though, if you ask me about my travel I've done and what I have brought back into the classroom, it would be very *physical*. You know I have been to Iceland three times, and I think in Iceland I have always brought back the *physical*. And I've been to America recently and Lassen National Park and Yosemite, more recently and it's the landscapes, the physical that I have brought back. But in my experiences in the Gambia, it has never been *physical*, it has only been *development* issues. (Extract from interview, 2003, my emphasis)

It is possible that Paul has used these terms (human, physical and development) because he knows that he is talking to another geographer who would be familiar with them. Alternatively it is possible Paul uses his geographical knowledge to enable him to understand places he has visited. By using these terms he is highlighting how travel has boosted his understanding of these geographical themes as well as developing sensory or aesthetic appreciation. The value of travel appears to lie in the experience and the achievement. He expresses an interest in the physical landscape but this is not necessarily one that is focused on beauty:

> . . . 3 weeks I ago, I took my dad out to Dungeness. Because I love places like Dungeness. It was quite a cold October day and the sun was shining, and I said, 'it might be a bit bleak'

and that's the thing that he remembers about it: it's a bit bleak. And he asked me absolutely clearly: 'why are we going here?' and my only reason was because I haven't been there before and I think it's great. He never understood that. He had a lovely day out with me, but he never understood why we went because he thought it was a bleak place. (Extract from interview, 2003)

By recalling that what he has taken away from these trips are 'physical' then Paul could lead us to assume that he is referring to an aesthetic or humanistic appreciation of landscape as developed through an individualised or personalised geographical understanding (Morgan & Lambert, 2005). However, by referring to a physical appreciation, Paul may also be making reference to an appreciation of the physical landscape from a 'scientific' or positivistic view of geography related to the traditional scientific approach he was familiar with at university.

Nevertheless, his experience of the Gambia demonstrates that Paul has used his travel experiences for both developing his own geography experience and understanding. This combination of aspects of humanistic and physical geography is not surprising as geographers have cited place as being the geographical concept that links the physical and human dimensions of the subject (Johnston, 1991; Livingstone, 1993; Unwin, 1992). His experience of place reflects the humanistic tradition of experiencing places and developing a sense of place (Unwin, 1992). Although he does not use these terms directly, he leaves us with the impression that it is the experience of places that he relishes. It is also an extremely important dimension to his life beyond the classroom:

Well I suppose it [travel] is not as important as my book writing and my teaching. It's a break from it and sometimes I suppose you could say is my career. I have worked hard in order to spend it on travel. And I've got better travel than I have carpets and curtains. But then a lot of my geography friends do as well. My geography friends do have carpets and curtains and all that hi-fi stuff. And they've got good stories and photographs. Yes, that's the sort of life you get locked into. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Here Paul highlights how important travel and geographical experiences are to him personally.

Paul as a geography teacher

Paul also indicated that early academic success was important in his relationship with geography and this was reflected when he recounted the inspirational people with whom he worked.

> [A colleague who had written widely] spoke Italian and he was a role model, and he was just a wonderful geographer of the old school. He knew loads of things. He didn't just know about Italy, he knew about the whole world and I taught alongside [him]. I was working with [him] as a factual geography teacher, slightly wrong to say factual geography teacher but relative to what I do now factual. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul draws a distinction between his current practice and 'factual geography'. Although he acknowledges that 'factual geography', a reference to the highly descriptive, content-rich geography that characterised this type of 'Capes and Bays' school geography (Rawling, 2001) is less a characteristic of his current practice, his respect for his colleague indicates that this was something that he admired and that was important in his early career as a geography teacher. As with his own geographical understanding there seems to be a tension between his geographical knowledge of geographical concepts and his engagement with a more humanistic, personalised view of the world he experiences. It would appear that this tension is replicated in his teaching: between the content of 'factual' geography and his desire to encourage children to learn through their own experience. His discussion about his response to Ofsted inspections later in his career shows that he has taken into account more recent trends in pedagogy and educational thinking:

> Yes, it was about teaching, and more and more we have started thinking about learning now. Even in the last ten years. I remember the first Ofsted here. They were bothered about me and my teaching. And the last Ofsted here were very much bothered about learning. But we weren't sure of that and so we were very much teaching the lesson. They said 'lovely lesson, but where is the learning?' And we were confused. And the next Ofsted to come we won't be confused at all, and we will focus on the learning and we won't worry about our teaching. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul is demonstrating here his development between what might appear to be a content rich 'taught' lesson to more of a focus on learning. His own practice of teaching geography appears then to be settled somewhere between these two approaches. Paul reflected on his current practice of teaching

geography which demonstrates the tension between how he feels geography should be taught and the legislation that lays down the geography that he is required to teach:

> Well the geography I teach comes from the National Curriculum, so it is not necessarily the geography that I want to teach. It happens to be the geography that I want to teach. I take

examples from where I want, so from within the geography national curriculum framework or from within the GCSE syllabus I do what I need. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul appears able then to place his preferred approach to teaching within these frameworks. What geography is therefore contained in the National Curriculum? The current structure of the National Curriculum is arranged in geographical themes and skills, but the version at this time placed more emphasis on the study of places than previous versions (Rawling, 2001), and it may be that this is what Paul is referring to as 'the geography that he wants to teach'. Paul is able to resolve this potential conflict by focusing his teaching schemes on the geographical concept of place. This enables him to fulfil examination criteria whilst also teaching appropriate content and enabling students to engage with the geography of experience that he personally enjoys:

. . . I was pleased to see [place] come back in the national curriculum, and we've gone big on place here . . . In our GCSE we do our GCSE through three places: Italy, Nigeria and Japan. If you want to do population, we do it of there, if we need to plot a climate graph, we do a climate graph of there. Before that when we are working out the GCSE we used to have case studies from all around the world, now we have just three places where we take our case studies. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul is also a geography textbook author, and he uses his own books in his teaching. He reflects how his travel experiences have influenced his book writing which have then in turn been the main resource for his teaching. It is here that he is able to reconcile this tension, by using his travel experiences to guide his teaching and planning:

So you will see that we are doing Gambia today because it is in my book, because I have been to the Gambia. I tend to bring me into the lessons. And I have always seen my book writing as being a two-way process, planning for my lessons and I have got all my books from the classroom at the same time. So they have come from the classroom and they go back into the classroom. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Teaching about place therefore enables him to use his own geographical experiences as well as encouraging his students to contribute and develop a fuller understanding of their own:

I just honestly believe that if they have some sense of place, they will be good citizens and they will understand where they are in the world, because the lack of sense of place grieves

me sometimes because they go off to a place, and I say 'Oh the Canary islands, that's just off Africa' and they'll shout at me: 'no it isn't – it's in Spain'. So I'll get the Atlas out, 'here's Africa. Here's Morocco', and we go all around – the ignorance about place is so amazing. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul talks with great passion here about how place is important. We have seen a tension between his own experiences of geography: between a physical understanding of the environment and an aesthetic appreciation of it, and it appears that this tension is replicated in his classroom practice:

Funnily enough our course was all physical and we have been criticised to get a bit of landscape into our landforms: You can't just have landforms. We have totally physical coursework, having said that. So we go collecting pebbles, measuring pebbles, and correlating pebble size with length, we do all those sorts of things. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It is through an emphasis on the study of place that Paul is able to reconcile this tension in his role as a curriculum planner. The above statement reflects the tension between a quantitative approach to physical geography, focusing on measurement and a more humanistic approach based on experience. This tension, apparent in his own geographical experience, is reflected here in his curriculum planning. However, Paul appears to view developing geographical learning experiences as a technical task which Morgan and Lambert (2005) suggest can mean that teachers do not fully consider the tensions between the different types of geographical knowledge that their teaching can create.

Case Teacher: Dan

Dan is a head of geography at a school in a small town in Shropshire. Many of the students are bussed in from the surrounding predominantly rural district. He has been teaching for 14 years.

When Dan discusses his relationship with geography and with teaching, it is possible to detect a tension which revolves around two contrasting pulls: one a desire to see things differently, and secondly a need to be pragmatic in his work. The first of those themes, a desire to see things differently, stemmed from his school experiences of geography. At school, Dan studied the School Council 16–19 syllabus which he explains he enjoyed because of the issues based approach.

Dan elaborated that it was both the content and the style of the 16–19 syllabus that inspired

him:

> Um: I think that it was very much based on case studies which I was interested in. It wasn't theoretical too much. It was a nice synthesis of human and physical and all sorts of things brought them all together which I have always enjoyed, which is characteristic of the 16–19 course really. The issues based thing was crucial really and it really got me going actually. All the time we would be looking at: should the bypass be built here and that kind of thing. And we did a DME[8] as well . . . And so we looked at should they build a Pontins at the top of the cliff at Weymouth and things like that. Arguments for and against and I really, really liked that. In fact, for quite a long time through my degree course, it was that issues based in planning that actually I thought was my main interest and it led me to choose planning options. (Extract from interview, 2003)

The 16–19 syllabus encouraged students to ask their own questions and to develop an issues-based approach to learning was something that really inspired Dan. He reflects that he enjoyed this course because:

> I liked the intellectual challenge of that kind of thing, it was that element of challenge of problem solving that we are supposed to encourage in boys aren't we? It encouraged me. I did like the fact that it was issues which were political issues like 'should we cut the rainforest down?' The London Docklands was one thing that really got me going actually and the political thing. It was in 1984, and it was just starting up and we went to London Docklands for a day and I was really enthused by this Thatcherite sort of monstrosity that was developing. It has since improved and all the people who were missing out on the redevelopment that was going on . . . Seeing graffiti with 'LDDC out' and that kind of thing and that was the subject matter that interested me. I have always been interested in the issues and the slightly political side of things and something to get your teeth into . . .(Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan himself links this political interest in geography to his own development and interests at the time. He has already used the terms 'seeing things differently' and this he reflects was a key part of his personality when at university:

> I had a very conservative upbringing and in my family in suburban London and I was

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looking generally as a person to stretch out and to get interested in different things that I had grown up with. I wore different clothes, and I watched different films, and it was a whole different way of learning and a whole different approach to the world, you know, deconstructing the iconography of things. (Extract from interview, 2003)

However, this interest in seeing things in a different way did not influence his decision of where to study geography at university. Here he made a practical decision:

I went to Loughborough and I went there because I wanted to go there for sport because I was a good athlete at the time . . . I was looking at the wrong sort of things, I was looking at: do you have to do a physical geography option in year 2 and things like that. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Whilst at Loughborough, Dan was influenced by cultural geographer DenisCosgrove, which enabled Dan to maintain his interest in geography by encouraging him again to look at things in a different way:

It drew together some other interests of mine, from when I had done RE and English A Level. I remember a very key moment, when I did a lecture and a seminar following it, done by Denis Cosgrove which was about post-modernism and we were talking about language and its meaning and stuff like that and I just loved it. You know, of all the academic experience, learning experiences, that I have had that would stand out as being you know the thing that really got me going, you know, and because it was challenging and it was different I think. (Extract from interview, 2003)

This contradicts Dan's early engagement with geography which he felt was tied up with planning which influenced his earlier degree choices.

I went down the planning route, and I realised too late what my interests were – so even in the third year I went down the planning route. Partly because I didn't do all that well in the second year which was worth 40% and so I had to go for the safe option to make sure that I could get a 2:1 which I did in the end. So I went for industrial geography which was safe, and, you know, all right. And planning geography which was really boring, and in fact was counter productive because I got so bored with it, I didn't do very well, I don't think. I went for African Studies as well which was taught by Morag

Bell who was again one of these

people with a different take on life and a different approach and she really enthused me. And got me interested; her stuff was all about South Africa and Apartheid and that was great – issues based, and political and really interesting. (Extract from interview, 2003)

We can see here the tension between these two dimensions for Dan. On one hand the practical need to get a good result in his degree encouraged him to follow the planning route. However, the change in tone and language in the above quotation shows that his real interest was in the more challenging political content of the courses he studied. The emphasis on these earlier interests in geography are focused around the challenge of the subject and how it is presented and geographical study enabling him to see things differently.

Although Dan stated that he was not particularly interested in travel, where travel has been a influence it appears to again have been because it offered him an opportunity to see things in a different way:

I went to Gambia on a fieldtrip with Loughborough and that had quite an impact on me. Just seeing somewhere that is so different and made me reflect more on England and what that is like and again, more interested in places and so they were influences but not as major as the academic side of it really. (Extract from interview, 2003)

His current geographical interests also reflect this tension between intellectual challenge and seeing things differently. Although primarily focused on teaching, this interest stems from him developing a post-modern understanding of geography:

As a geographer? Well my main interest is in fieldwork and for the academic side of things I am very interested in the qualitative ways of doing fieldwork and I suppose it is drawing on the cultural geography interest and background but taking it into the fieldwork area finding different ways of doing things and looking at the world in a different way, again with a slightly post-modern approach if you like, and that would be my main drive and interest really. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan's discussion of himself as a geographer presents an interesting picture and one that tracks how his geographical interests have changed and developed. Starting off by being interested in issues and then moving on to planning, and then to cultural geography and now focusing on fieldwork. Dan has seemingly moved around different geography persuasions. However, there is a common thread to his development: an interest in issues and looking at things in different

ways – this could be described as the pull of the intellectual challenge to be challenged to see things and places differently.

Dan as a geography teacher

Dan has already indicated that he has a practical dimension to his decision making, often taking into account practical needs. In the interview, he reflected that this was also the reason why he initially when into teaching:

> Yeah. I ran out of money . . . I wasn't quite sure what to do, didn't have any direction and really wasn't convinced about doing a PhD. I also got married straight after finishing, and so pragmatic needs kicked in . . . and so I jumped for teaching in an independent school which said no PGCE required, and so I thought I would do this for a year, pay off my debts and then maybe do a PhD. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He realised soon after starting this job, that teaching required more than just geographical knowledge and did consider other careers either as an academic geographer or in transport planning. It was at this stage that he changed his mind about teaching and undertook a PGCE training course which unfortunately did not engage him intellectually. It was, however, when he was able to issue his own intellectual challenge that he was able to become more interested:

> But the thing that was by far the most useful was the dissertation which was my first foray into qualitative fieldwork and again, I made something good myself really. It was limited but it was interesting I think and I did some work on London Docklands and two different approaches to fieldwork and I compared them and I did reading on qualitative fieldwork techniques and on research design and that kind of thing and that was really useful and in terms of time it was not too bad, I did a lot of it on the train on the way to work and last minute on the weekend of work at the end to get it done and it wasn't too bad. (Extract from interview, 2003)

We have seen the tension here again, between the practical needs that Dan has experienced as a teacher with other demands on his time but also his desire to get involved in seeing things differently (in this case fieldwork). It is this theme that Dan refers to when he discussed his current practice. He employs a combination of making informed choices and

also taking an efficient approach to what needs to be done.

> I think I have got academic ability and the way that my brain works does help I think at times, so I think I have got quite a clear way of thinking and so when it comes down to breaking up difficult ideas at A Level for example, and making them straightforward and simple and logical. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It is here that we can see the two tensions coming together: this ability to see things in a different way enables him to reflect on what his students need, whilst the practical aspect enables him to make efficient choices about what he teaches. His ability to make good selective choices about his teaching had been identified by Ofsted inspectors

> Certainly an Ofsted inspector said to me recently I know what is important and I work on that and I hadn't really thought of that before but I think it is probably true and I try to . . . I recognise for example that if you are going to do well at GCSE they have to be able to write 10 lines really well, getting in examples and developing their points and I just really really flog that and I have loads of ways of doing that I work on that a lot. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He even offers us an analogy so that we can understand this further:

> Yeah, it's like the grand prix driver that is supposed to win the race in the slowest possible time, because if you go racing ahead your car might break up and I think, and I have learnt very very slowly, because it is not in my nature really, that I tend to be a bit of a perfectionist, or used to be, and I am not any more because wiser older teachers have taught me to get out of school as soon as possible and to get home and to see the kids and to try not to work in the evenings if you can. When things are important do them well, but when they are not: can they be left? And so that has kept me fresh I hope. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan could be perceived as a teacher who is highly skilled at getting students through the examinations with the least resistance and in the most efficient way. And yet, this is not the full picture. The theme that Dan expressed in his own geographical experience, of seeing things in a different way is evident again, particularly when he discusses why geography is important for students to study today. His motivation shows that he is taking a perspective that is about the students' self-development and understanding.

> I think it is important to know about the world they live in. Very often I find that I am teaching something and I think, I am glad they are learning this, I am glad that they are becoming aware of this and I think it is important. Like for example trade, and why some countries are rich and some are poor, and that is a very useful role. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He is also critical of a purely practical approach to education:

> I think that it is a shame if you are just doing things preparing them for work all the time – I think that we would end up a very shallow society . . . but my education was not very much preparing me for work directly but the things I gained most from education were things like an understanding of the world around me . . . I feel that I am a better person for that. Also this approach that cultural geography gives on looking at the world in a different way and with a different slant on things and it has influenced me and the way that I look at things all the time. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It would appear that it is this perspective on geography that is the driving force for Dan. However, this tension between the practical and the intellectually challenging is something that Dan is keenly aware of:

> I keep finding myself becoming a bit of an exam factory to be honest. I've become quite good at getting kids through exams and hopefully some of that seeing the world in a different way is a by-product . . . (Extract from interview, 2003)

<u>In Summary</u>

Both of the teachers detailed above have different styles, experiences and approaches to teaching geography. Although both teach in the same broader educational environment, and under the same curriculum constraints (i.e. the same National Curriculum and examination specification restrictions), the interviews show that their understanding of geography, geographical persuasions and approaches to teaching geography are different. What follows are some early observations, made at this stage of the research which may be subject to some change as the research develops.

It would appear at first glance that each teacher has been influenced by values that

they have carried over from their early geographical experiences. For Paul this is reflected in an engagement

with places and the lure of travel. Alternatively, for Dan it was the pull of developing a political understanding of the world, and the opportunity that geography gave him to see the world differently. Both of these values have been carried forward into their current practice: Paul still likes to base his curriculum around the study of places (and particularly those he has experienced), whilst Dan has looked for opportunities to give students a chance to see the world differently. This finding would be in line with Gudmundsdottir (1990) and Korthagen's (2004) work that identifies that values or mission are at the root of a teacher's practice. However, what we also see within these case teachers is that there is conflict in how they can express these values. For Paul, the way that geography education has changed, and the watchdog to enforce these changes (as represented by Ofsted) has required him to adapt and review his teaching practices. He has been able to reconcile these challenges through focusing on the geographical concept of place in his curriculum planning. It would appear that Paul has been able to do this in line with his values of what is 'good' geography at school level. Alternatively, Dan has experienced conflict between the pressure that he feels to be an 'exam factory' to get good results for his students, whilst also wishing to develop in them being able to see things differently. Both teachers have been able to develop their curriculum planning priorities in line with the constraints and contexts that they are teaching within, and their preferred approaches and values that underpin their engagement with geography.

If we refer back to the Habermasian understanding how a subject has developed, it could be highlighted that these teachers engaged with academic geography during different periods when the subject was focusing on different theoretical bases. Paul studied for his degree in the 1960s and described it as focusing on a positivistic, quantitative geography. Dan however, was able to engage with critical and post-modern geographical analysis and understanding. There is some indication that these undergraduate and pre-undergraduate influences have remained with them. For Paul the 'factual' approach to geography was influential in his early career, but a passion for place has remained part of his professional and personal life. Dan has also been able to apply the principles of the cultural and critical geography to his current teaching issues such as fieldwork. Although the links with their early geographical experiences are not direct, it is evident that the relationship that they developed with geography has left 'residuals' that still affect their practice.

Both teachers teach in the same broad educational culture, as they need to respond to agendas set by the current education legislation in England and Wales, and the prescribed 'national' curricula. However, they have not interpreted these curricula, or indeed the geography contained within them in the same way. Influenced by their own 'passions' Paul has chosen to focus on the place emphasis in both the geography National Curriculum and the

GCSE specifications, and to interpret the thematic studies through study of places. Conversely, Dan has chosen to structure his curriculum through a series of geographical themes that enable him to emphasise the geographical issues that he perceives in the curriculum. A picture is starting to emerge here of how their initial geographical passions are influencing their teaching practice.

Although only tentative, what is beginning to emerge through this data is an understanding of how these teachers are using their subject knowledge in the classroom. What is missing from this initial analysis is detail of how this affects their classroom practice. But based on this evidence, they do not appear to have developed a similar or comparable 'knowledge' about teaching that is divorced from their understanding of geography or pedagogy, or indeed that has been transformed or emerged from them. It would seem, however, that their interest in geography has had some influence on how they teach. Each has demonstrated that they are able to understand how *what* they are teaching is part of a broader geographical understanding of what geography is to them.

Shulman's assertion that teachers have a 'subject knowledge *for teaching*' (1986: 9, emphasis in original) would seem to support these observations. However, the case teachers, as curriculum developers, have also had to use their subject knowledge in a strategic way in order to enable them to act within their values framework. This ability to understand the sliding scale of geographical understanding (i.e. from the big picture to the little picture, the local to the global) has been termed synoptic capacity[9] (Daly *et al.,* 2004; Rice, 1992). If geographical content is one of the factors that may influence the quality of geography education, then it would be prudent to examine this notion further. Understanding teachers' subject expertise as a relationship could enable teachers to see how what they are teaching fits synoptically into their larger understanding of the threshold concepts that underpin geographical study. If this is the case, then it would be prudent to suggest that encouraging teachers to focus on this synoptic capacity, and enabling them to appreciate how their subject knowledge can affect their practice which could have an effect on the quality of geography education that is taught.

Marsden warned of taking the geography out of geography education (Marsden, 1997). Foregrounding the development of this relationship between a teacher's subject knowledge and how they teach geography could help to redress this balance and to encourage teachers to reflect on if they are teaching 'good' geography as well as 'good' lessons.

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Curriculum, which consists of Themes and Skills as a minimum entitlement of the geography that is to be taught to this age group. Although in the past this has been criticised for being highly prescriptive in content, recent versions are much more flexible in the definition of what is to be taught (Rawling, 2001). Rawling also notes that policies and curriculum documents such as the National Curriculum have to be interpreted and implemented in order for them to change and shape what happens in classrooms (Rawling, 2001). The interpretation and implementation of the geography curriculum is done by geography teachers. It is those teachers who, as Barratt-Hacking (1996), Jewitt (1998) and Walford (1996) suggest, have had very different values related to geography, different understandings of what geography is, and different geographical 'persuasions'.[6] How then do teachers who have experienced a range of 'geographies' at graduate level, use this geography at school level?

Rynne and Lambert (1997) have reported that although novice teachers may not feel confident in teaching certain subjects this does not necessarily affect how they teach these topics. However, research in the subject areas of Science and English would indicate that how a teacher defines or understands their subject will affect how they teach it (Gess-Newsome, 1999; Grossman, 1990; Hillocks, 1999). In fact, within English, Turvey (forthcoming) has noted how the process of teaching a literature topic can change perspectives on their subject knowledge as a teacher reflects on and learns alternative perspectives from the students they teach. This body of research stems from an interest in subject knowledge and how it is taught largely influenced by Shulman's pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Shulman defined PCK as: 'subject matter *for teaching*' (1986: 9, emphasis in original). Carlsen (1999) and Bullough (2001) note that the first mention of PCK (at Shulman's presidential address at the Carnegie Foundation (Shulman, 1986)) coincided with a period when teacher education was being criticised in the US. Carlsen (1999) argues that representing the way that teachers (as pedagogues) engage with their subject knowledge as a discrete knowledge, was a way of claiming power, authority and uniqueness to this form of knowledge, and therefore could be viewed as a way of responding to the criticisms teacher education was experiencing. PCK appears to fall in between the dual division of practical and theoretical knowledge that many academics have identified (as noted by Fenstermacher (1994) in his review on the area). However, as Elbaz (1991) observes, teachers do not conceptualise what they do and what they know in this discrete way. They generally opt for telling stories,

> and using narratives to give a more holistic view of how they teach and to what extent their subject knowledge influences this. Proponents of this view (Cochran- Smith & Lytle, 1993; Jalongo *et al.*, 1995) argue even more strongly that enabling teachers to

tell these narratives encourages them to value their knowledge about teaching and to further reflect and develop deeper understandings stemming from their experience.

Elbaz (1991) also argues that analysis of narratives can help us get beyond *what* teachers say they do (which may differ from what they actually do) to the reasons why they practise in this way. Gudmundsdottir's (1990) research indicates that teachers have values, influenced by their subject knowledge, that affects how they teach. However, Korthegan's (2004) more recent work demonstrates that this may go deeper, and teachers may in fact be influenced by a 'mission' close to their core being that drives their values, perspectives and ultimately their work in classrooms.

If the decline of school geography in England and Wales is related to teachers' consideration of their subject matter itself (along with possible other factors), and that teachers' experience of university geography can drive or influence what they do, the need still remains to understand how and to what extent this influence operates. Morgan and Lambert (2005) argue that teachers are encouraged to consider teaching as a technical rather than as an intellectual activity and do not engage in critical and challenging discussions about *what* they are teaching and *why* they are teaching it. In response, this paper will detail two cases of teachers talking about subject knowledge and how it affects their teaching. Although greatly contrasting cases, sharing the experience of these teachers will hopefully enable a greater understanding of ways that subject knowledge can affect how a teacher teaches geography. Analysis of how subject knowledge affects teaching and its relative importance to a teacher's decision making will help us to illuminate if Marsden's warnings about neglecting the subject have come true.

Methodology

The cases presented here are two of six cases studied as part of my PhD research into subject knowledge and 'expert' teachers of geography. These two have been selected as they contrast in experience and outlook. All of the six cases were selected to take part in the study through recommendation as 'expert'[7] geography teachers by members of the geography education community.

Influenced by Elbaz's (1990) observation that teachers express what they do and their knowledge through narratives, the data from each case were collected mostly through an extended interview with the participants, where they were encouraged to discuss their memories of and relationship with geography as well as how and why they decided to teach geography. During the interview they were also encouraged to discuss their preferred methods for teaching geography and defines these as empirical-analytic, historical-hermeneutic, and as a critical science. His argument is that during geography's development as an academic subject, the way that geography has been defined and studied has changed in ways that can be recognised

through these differing approaches to 'science' and 'knowledge'. He also notes that changes in academic geography are also influenced by societal pressure as well as influences from outside the discipline. The development of the subject at academic level has traditionally been held in the hands of HE[5] geography departments who have been able to conduct research in areas that have interested them. Unwin suggests that the need to obtain funding has influenced the 'freedom' of academics to research according to their personal interests, and Stannard (2003) has noted the powerful role that the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) has played in influencing the work of academics. However, the development of the academic discipline and the development and definition of geography at an academic level remains mostly in the hands of academics and what has influenced them.

The development of school geography in England and Wales, however, needs to respond to different pressures to academic geography. Rawling (2001) records how changes in school geography have been influenced by different ideologies, which have in turn influenced curriculum projects, preferred teaching styles, and the legislation that determines what is to be taught. Graves (2001) and Walford (2001), in their respective accounts of the development of geography in schools, also reflect on how school geography, as expressed through school textbooks, has reflected societal changes, pedagogical fashions, as well as changes in technology. Morgan and Lambert (2005) chart developments in school geography and note how it has changed in relation to the way that curricula and debates on curriculum have been affected by changes in the broader political frame. In England and Wales, however, one of the main differences between academic geography and school geography is the prescriptive nature of the school curriculum. Even for academic geography, the benchmarking standards give a broad definition of what is to be expected from a degree in geography (QAA, 2000). However, at school level the National Curriculum, and examination specifications at both post-14 and post-16 age groups, are more prescriptive as to *what* is to be taught. In fact, as Kington noted in his GA presidential address in 2003, most teachers teaching a post-14 examination-based curriculum will rely on a school geography textbook that has been written specifically with that examination in mind, and often by the examiners responsible for that examination itself (Kington, 2004). This cogently places these examiners in a position of power as not only defining geography at this level (through the specification) but also arguably defining the tools of instruction and therefore possibly influencing how it is to be taught (through the textbooks they write).

At a pre-examination level (pre-14) the geography curriculum is defined by the National

10 For this research, expertise is understood as socially constructed and defined by those that made the recommendations.

what they considered their approach was to teaching geography. It was acknowledged that teachers' practice and their discussion of their practice may highlight some anomalies. It was not intended to cross reference what the case teachers said and did, but to use their description of what motivates them to teach and what influences their teaching, as one way of understanding their practice. I also felt that it was important to understand the context that each teacher was working in, and therefore they were visited in their schools where I collected documentation about the school and their lesson planning and preparation. I observed them teach and discussed their practice with their colleagues.

The data were collected and analysed through the use of a grounded theory approach. For each case, individual themes emerged from the data about how he or she understood and perceived geography. Similarly, their approach to teaching geography varied greatly. These themes were put together to identify similarities and contradictions. What is presented here is a summary of these observations and recordings, and therefore is a simplified version of the full data set. Names have been changed to protect the identity of individuals.

Case Teacher: Paul

Paul is an experienced teacher who has been head of humanities in a school in Wiltshire. He is also the author and co-author of several school geography textbooks for the 11–16 age group. Paul has been teaching for nearly three decades, the majority of which have been in his current school.

Paul described his relationship with geography as starting with a very early interest in stamps that was sparked through a family connection:

> My aunts worked at Horlicks in Slough and two aunts ran the postal department consecutively. And they had all the stamps and these stamps came in in their hundreds and my mum helped me sort them out where they came from. And this would be when I was 4 or 5. And then as I went through primary school I had a really good stamp collection and I knew so much about where places were, . . . and because of that I became interested in place. (Extract from interview, 2003)

The interest in place he developed at this young age has been something that has sustained Paul through his early years and in more recent times. As a child he recalled travelling around England with his father and how this enabled him to know more about other places than his peers at school and also sparked an interest in travel that he has sustained to this day. His early geographical experiences were also tied up with understanding or valuing place:

> I was in the Boys Brigade. Some of those camps that I went on were absolutely amazing. You know, we went to Hayley Island on the Isle of Wight, and I went to an international camp at Blairmont in Scotland when I was 18 and I climbed a little mountain with John Hunt. He is the Everest man. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul went on to study geography at a prestigious university. Although recalling a fairly traditional geography degree, the impact of this experience has stayed with him. When he recalled his university experience he reflected on the people that he met and the extraordinary travelling that they had achieved or went on to achieve, citing an Olympic athelete who had just come back from Japan, and a TV programme maker who focused on the North Pole. These people appear to have inspired Paul, both in terms of the places they had visited and to seek to travel himself.

When he describes the influence of travel, he describes that experience in geographical language, highlighting geographical themes:

> . . . it wasn't just the unknown, it was the excitement of travel and looking at the variety of life. And I wouldn't say it was particularly *physical*. I think it was *physical* and *human*: it's *people* and *landscape*. Some places though, if you ask me about my travel I've done and what I have brought back into the classroom, it would be very *physical*. You know I have been to Iceland three times, and I think in Iceland I have always brought back the *physical*. And I've been to America recently and Lassen National Park and Yosemite, more recently and it's the landscapes, the physical that I have brought back. But in my experiences in the Gambia, it has never been *physical*, it has only been *development* issues. (Extract from interview, 2003, my emphasis)

It is possible that Paul has used these terms (human, physical and development) because he knows that he is talking to another geographer who would be familiar with them. Alternatively it is possible Paul uses his geographical knowledge to enable him to understand places he has visited. By using these terms he is highlighting how travel has boosted his understanding of these geographical themes as well as developing sensory or aesthetic appreciation. The value of travel appears to lie in the experience and the achievement. He expresses an interest in the physical landscape but this is not necessarily one that is focused on beauty:

> . . . 3 weeks I ago, I took my dad out to Dungeness. Because I love places like Dungeness. It was quite a cold October day and the sun was shining, and I said, 'it might be a bit bleak'

and that's the thing that he remembers about it: it's a bit bleak. And he asked me absolutely clearly: 'why are we going here?' and my only reason was because I haven't been there before and I think it's great. He never understood that. He had a lovely day out with me, but he never understood why we went because he thought it was a bleak place. (Extract from interview, 2003)

By recalling that what he has taken away from these trips are 'physical' then Paul could lead us to assume that he is referring to an aesthetic or humanistic appreciation of landscape as developed through an individualised or personalised geographical understanding (Morgan & Lambert, 2005). However, by referring to a physical appreciation, Paul may also be making reference to an appreciation of the physical landscape from a 'scientific' or positivistic view of geography related to the traditional scientific approach he was familiar with at university.

Nevertheless, his experience of the Gambia demonstrates that Paul has used his travel experiences for both developing his own geography experience and understanding. This combination of aspects of humanistic and physical geography is not surprising as geographers have cited place as being the geographical concept that links the physical and human dimensions of the subject (Johnston, 1991; Livingstone, 1993; Unwin, 1992). His experience of place reflects the humanistic tradition of experiencing places and developing a sense of place (Unwin, 1992). Although he does not use these terms directly, he leaves us with the impression that it is the experience of places that he relishes. It is also an extremely important dimension to his life beyond the classroom:

Well I suppose it [travel] is not as important as my book writing and my teaching. It's a break from it and sometimes I suppose you could say is my career. I have worked hard in order to spend it on travel. And I've got better travel than I have carpets and curtains. But then a lot of my geography friends do as well. My geography friends do have carpets and curtains and all that hi-fi stuff. And they've got good stories and photographs. Yes, that's the sort of life you get locked into. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Here Paul highlights how important travel and geographical experiences are to him personally.

Paul as a geography teacher

Paul also indicated that early academic success was important in his relationship with geography and this was reflected when he recounted the inspirational people with whom he worked.

[A colleague who had written widely] spoke Italian and he was a role model, and he was just a wonderful geographer of the old school. He knew loads of things. He didn't just know about Italy, he knew about the whole world and I taught alongside [him]. I was working with [him] as a factual geography teacher, slightly wrong to say factual geography teacher but relative to what I do now factual. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul draws a distinction between his current practice and 'factual geography'. Although he acknowledges that 'factual geography', a reference to the highly descriptive, content-rich geography that characterised this type of 'Capes and Bays' school geography (Rawling, 2001) is less a characteristic of his current practice, his respect for his colleague indicates that this was something that he admired and that was important in his early career as a geography teacher. As with his own geographical understanding there seems to be a tension between his geographical knowledge of geographical concepts and his engagement with a more humanistic, personalised view of the world he experiences. It would appear that this tension is replicated in his teaching: between the content of 'factual' geography and his desire to encourage children to learn through their own experience. His discussion about his response to Ofsted inspections later in his career shows that he has taken into account more recent trends in pedagogy and educational thinking:

Yes, it was about teaching, and more and more we have started thinking about learning now. Even in the last ten years. I remember the first Ofsted here. They were bothered about me and my teaching. And the last Ofsted here were very much bothered about learning. But we weren't sure of that and so we were very much teaching the lesson. They said 'lovely lesson, but where is the learning?' And we were confused. And the next Ofsted to come we won't be confused at all, and we will focus on the learning and we won't worry about our teaching. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul is demonstrating here his development between what might appear to be a content rich 'taught' lesson to more of a focus on learning. His own practice of teaching geography appears then to be settled somewhere between these two approaches. Paul reflected on his current practice of teaching geography which demonstrates the tension between how he feels geography should be taught and the legislation that lays down the geography that he is required to teach:

Well the geography I teach comes from the National Curriculum, so it is not necessarily the geography that I want to teach. It happens to be the geography that I want to teach. I take

defines these as empirical-analytic, historical-hermeneutic, and as a critical science. His

argument is that during geography's development as an academic subject, the way that geography has been defined and studied has changed in ways that can be recognised through these differing approaches to 'science' and 'knowledge'. He also notes that changes in academic geography are also influenced by societal pressure as well as influences from outside the discipline. The development of the subject at academic level has traditionally been held in the hands of HE[5] geography departments who have been able to conduct research in areas that have interested them. Unwin suggests that the need to obtain funding has influenced the 'freedom' of academics to research according to their personal interests, and Stannard (2003) has noted the powerful role that the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) has played in influencing the work of academics. However, the development of the academic discipline and the development and definition of geography at an academic level remains mostly in the hands of academics and what has influenced them.

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Paul appears able then to place his preferred approach to teaching within these frameworks. What geography is therefore contained in the National Curriculum? The current structure of the National Curriculum is arranged in geographical themes and skills, but the version at this time placed more emphasis on the study of places than previous versions (Rawling, 2001), and it may be that this is what Paul is referring to as 'the geography that he wants to teach'. Paul is able to resolve this potential conflict by focusing his teaching schemes on the geographical concept of place. This enables him to fulfil examination criteria whilst also teaching appropriate content and enabling students to engage with the geography of experience that he personally enjoys:

> . . . I was pleased to see [place] come back in the national curriculum, and we've gone big on place here . . . In our GCSE we do our GCSE through three places: Italy, Nigeria and Japan. If you want to do population, we do it of there, if we need to plot a climate graph, we do a climate graph of there. Before that when we are working out the GCSE we used to have case studies from all around the world, now we have just three places where we take our case studies. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul is also a geography textbook author, and he uses his own books in his teaching. He reflects how his travel experiences have influenced his book writing which have then in turn been the main resource for his teaching. It is here that he is able to reconcile this tension, by using his travel experiences to guide his teaching and planning:

> So you will see that we are doing Gambia today because it is in my book, because I have been to the Gambia. I tend to bring me into the lessons. And I have always seen my book writing as being a two-way process, planning for my lessons and I have got all my books from the classroom at the same time. So they have come from the classroom and they go back into the classroom. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Teaching about place therefore enables him to use his own geographical experiences as well as encouraging his students to contribute and develop a fuller understanding of their own:

> I just honestly believe that if they have some sense of place, they will be good citizens and they will understand where they are in the world, because the lack of sense of place grieves me sometimes because they go off to a place, and I say 'Oh the Canary islands, that's just off Africa' and they'll shout at me: 'no it isn't – it's in Spain'. So I'll get the Atlas out, 'here's

Africa. Here's Morocco', and we go all around – the ignorance about place is so amazing. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Paul talks with great passion here about how place is important. We have seen a tension between his own experiences of geography: between a physical understanding of the environment and an aesthetic appreciation of it, and it appears that this tension is replicated in his classroom practice:

> Funnily enough our course was all physical and we have been criticised to get a bit of landscape into our landforms: You can't just have landforms. We have totally physical coursework, having said that. So we go collecting pebbles, measuring pebbles, and correlating pebble size with length, we do all those sorts of things. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It is through an emphasis on the study of place that Paul is able to reconcile this tension in his role as a curriculum planner. The above statement reflects the tension between a quantitative approach to physical geography, focusing on measurement and a more humanistic approach based on experience. This tension, apparent in his own geographical experience, is reflected here in his curriculum planning. However, Paul appears to view developing geographical learning experiences as a technical task which Morgan and Lambert (2005) suggest can mean that teachers do not fully consider the tensions between the different types of geographical knowledge that their teaching can create.

Case Teacher: Dan

Dan is a head of geography at a school in a small town in Shropshire. Many of the students are bussed in from the surrounding predominantly rural district. He has been teaching for 14 years.

When Dan discusses his relationship with geography and with teaching, it is possible to detect a tension which revolves around two contrasting pulls: one a desire to see things differently, and secondly a need to be pragmatic in his work. The first of those themes, a desire to see things differently, stemmed from his school experiences of geography. At school, Dan studied the School Council 16–19 syllabus which he explains he enjoyed because of the issues based approach.

Dan elaborated that it was both the content and the style of the 16–19 syllabus that inspired

him:

> Um I think that it was very much based on case studies which I was interested in. It wasn't theoretical too much. It was a nice synthesis of human and physical and all sorts of things brought them all together which I have always enjoyed, which is characteristic of the 16–19 course really. The issues based thing was crucial really and it really got me going actually. All the time we would be looking at: should the bypass be built here and that kind of thing. And we did a DME[8] as well . . . And so we looked at should they build a Pontins at the top of the cliff at Weymouth and things like that. Arguments for and against and I really, really liked that. In fact, for quite a long time through my degree course, it was that issues based in planning that actually I thought was my main interest and it led me to choose planning options. (Extract from interview, 2003)

The 16–19 syllabus encouraged students to ask their own questions and to develop an issues-based approach to learning was something that really inspired Dan. He reflects that he enjoyed this course because:

> I liked the intellectual challenge of that kind of thing, it was that element of challenge of problem solving that we are supposed to encourage in boys aren't we? It encouraged me. I did like the fact that it was issues which were political issues like 'should we cut the rainforest down?' The London Docklands was one thing that really got me going actually and the political thing. It was in 1984, and it was just starting up and we went to London Docklands for a day and I was really enthused by this Thatcherite sort of monstrosity that was developing. It has since improved and all the people who were missing out on the redevelopment that was going on . . . Seeing graffiti with 'LDDC out' and that kind of thing and that was the subject matter that interested me. I have always been interested in the issues and the slightly political side of things and something to get your teeth into . . .(Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan himself links this political interest in geography to his own development and interests at the time. He has already used the terms 'seeing things differently' and this he reflects was a key part of his personality when at university:

> I had a very conservative upbringing and in my family in suburban London and I was

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11 Decision Making Exercise.

> looking generally as a person to stretch out and to get interested in different things that I had grown up with. I wore different clothes, and I watched different films, and it was a whole different way of learning and a whole different approach to the world, you know, deconstructing the iconography of things. (Extract from interview, 2003)

However, this interest in seeing things in a different way did not influence his decision of where to study geography at university. Here he made a practical decision:

> I went to Loughborough and I went there because I wanted to go there for sport because I was a good athlete at the time . . . I was looking at the wrong sort of things, I was looking at: do you have to do a physical geography option in year 2 and things like that. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Whilst at Loughborough, Dan was influenced by cultural geographer DenisCosgrove, which enabled Dan to maintain his interest in geography by encouraging him again to look at things in a different way:

> It drew together some other interests of mine, from when I had done RE and English A Level. I remember a very key moment, when I did a lecture and a seminar following it, done by Denis Cosgrove which was about post-modernism and we were talking about language and its meaning and stuff like that and I just loved it. You know, of all the academic experience, learning experiences, that I have had that would stand out as being you know the thing that really got me going, you know, and because it was challenging and it was different I think. (Extract from interview, 2003)

This contradicts Dan's early engagement with geography which he felt was tied up with planning which influenced his earlier degree choices.

> I went down the planning route, and I realised too late what my interests were – so even in the third year I went down the planning route. Partly because I didn't do all that well in the second year which was worth 40% and so I had to go for the safe option to make sure that I could get a 2:1 which I did in the end. So I went for industrial geography which was safe, and, you know, all right. And planning geography which was really boring, and in fact was counter productive because I got so bored with it, I didn't do very well, I don't think. I went for African Studies as well which was taught by Morag Bell who was again one of these

people with a different take on life and a different approach and she really enthused me. And got me interested; her stuff was all about South Africa and Apartheid and that was great – issues based, and political and really interesting. (Extract from interview, 2003)

We can see here the tension between these two dimensions for Dan. On one hand the practical need to get a good result in his degree encouraged him to follow the planning route. However, the change in tone and language in the above quotation shows that his real interest was in the more challenging political content of the courses he studied. The emphasis on these earlier interests in geography are focused around the challenge of the subject and how it is presented and geographical study enabling him to see things differently.

Although Dan stated that he was not particularly interested in travel, where travel has been a influence it appears to again have been because it offered him an opportunity to see things in a different way:

I went to Gambia on a fieldtrip with Loughborough and that had quite an impact on me. Just seeing somewhere that is so different and made me reflect more on England and what that is like and again, more interested in places and so they were influences but not as major as the academic side of it really. (Extract from interview, 2003)

His current geographical interests also reflect this tension between intellectual challenge and seeing things differently. Although primarily focused on teaching, this interest stems from him developing a post-modern understanding of geography:

As a geographer? Well my main interest is in fieldwork and for the academic side of things I am very interested in the qualitative ways of doing fieldwork and I suppose it is drawing on the cultural geography interest and background but taking it into the fieldwork area finding different ways of doing things and looking at the world in a different way, again with a slightly post-modern approach if you like, and that would be my main drive and interest really. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan's discussion of himself as a geographer presents an interesting picture and one that tracks how his geographical interests have changed and developed. Starting off by being interested in issues and then moving on to planning, and then to cultural geography and now focusing on fieldwork. Dan has seemingly moved around different geography persuasions. However, there is a common thread to his development: an interest in issues and looking at things in different ways – this could

be described as the pull of the intellectual challenge to be challenged to see things and places differently.

Dan as a geography teacher

Dan has already indicated that he has a practical dimension to his decision making, often taking into account practical needs. In the interview, he reflected that this was also the reason why he initially when into teaching:

> Yeah. I ran out of money . . . I wasn't quite sure what to do, didn't have any direction and really wasn't convinced about doing a PhD. I also got married straight after finishing, and so pragmatic needs kicked in . . . and so I jumped for teaching in an independent school which said no PGCE required, and so I thought I would do this for a year, pay off my debts and then maybe do a PhD. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He realised soon after starting this job, that teaching required more than just geographical knowledge and did consider other careers either as an academic geographer or in transport planning. It was at this stage that he changed his mind about teaching and undertook a PGCE training course which unfortunately did not engage him intellectually. It was, however, when he was able to issue his own intellectual challenge that he was able to become more interested:

> But the thing that was by far the most useful was the dissertation which was my first foray into qualitative fieldwork and again, I made something good myself really. It was limited but it was interesting I think and I did some work on London Docklands and two different approaches to fieldwork and I compared them and I did reading on qualitative fieldwork techniques and on research design and that kind of thing and that was really useful and in terms of time it was not too bad, I did a lot of it on the train on the way to work and last minute on the weekend of work at the end to get it done and it wasn't too bad. (Extract from interview, 2003)

We have seen the tension here again, between the practical needs that Dan has experienced as a teacher with other demands on his time but also his desire to get involved in seeing things differently (in this case fieldwork). It is this theme that Dan refers to when he discussed his current practice. He employs a combination of making informed choices and also taking an efficient approach to what needs to be done.

> I think I have got academic ability and the way that my brain works does help I think at times, so I think I have got quite a clear way of thinking and so when it comes down to breaking up difficult ideas at A Level for example, and making them straightforward and simple and logical. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It is here that we can see the two tensions coming together: this ability to see things in a different way enables him to reflect on what his students need, whilst the practical aspect enables him to make efficient choices about what he teaches. His ability to make good selective choices about his teaching had been identified by Ofsted inspectors

> Certainly an Ofsted inspector said to me recently I know what is important and I work on that and I hadn't really thought of that before but I think it is probably true and I try to . . . I recognise for example that if you are going to do well at GCSE they have to be able to write 10 lines really well, getting in examples and developing their points and I just really really flog that and I have loads of ways of doing that I work on that a lot. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He even offers us an analogy so that we can understand this further:

> Yeah, it's like the grand prix driver that is supposed to win the race in the slowest possible time, because if you go racing ahead your car might break up and I think, and I have learnt very very slowly, because it is not in my nature really, that I tend to be a bit of a perfectionist, or used to be, and I am not any more because wiser older teachers have taught me to get out of school as soon as possible and to get home and to see the kids and to try not to work in the evenings if you can. When things are important do them well, but when they are not: can they be left? And so that has kept me fresh I hope. (Extract from interview, 2003)

Dan could be perceived as a teacher who is highly skilled at getting students through the examinations with the least resistance and in the most efficient way. And yet, this is not the full picture. The theme that Dan expressed in his own geographical experience, of seeing things in a different way is evident again, particularly when he discusses why geography is important for students to study today. His motivation shows that he is taking a perspective that is about the students' self-development and understanding.

> I think it is important to know about the world they live in. Very often I find that I am teaching something and I think, I am glad they are learning this, I am glad that they are becoming aware of this and I think it is important. Like for example trade, and why some countries are rich and some are poor, and that is a very useful role. (Extract from interview, 2003)

He is also critical of a purely practical approach to education:

> I think that it is a shame if you are just doing things preparing them for work all the time – I think that we would end up a very shallow society . . . but my education was not very much preparing me for work directly but the things I gained most from education were things like an understanding of the world around me . . . I feel that I am a better person for that. Also this approach that cultural geography gives on looking at the world in a different way and with a different slant on things and it has influenced me and the way that I look at things all the time. (Extract from interview, 2003)

It would appear that it is this perspective on geography that is the driving force for Dan. However, this tension between the practical and the intellectually challenging is something that Dan is keenly aware of:

> I keep finding myself becoming a bit of an exam factory to be honest. I've become quite good at getting kids through exams and hopefully some of that seeing the world in a different way is a by-product . . . (Extract from interview, 2003)

In Summary

Both of the teachers detailed above have different styles, experiences and approaches to teaching geography. Although both teach in the same broader educational environment, and under the same curriculum constraints (i.e. the same National Curriculum and examination specification restrictions), the interviews show that their understanding of geography, geographical persuasions and approaches to teaching geography are different. What follows are some early observations, made at this stage of the research which may be subject to some change as the research develops.

It would appear at first glance that each teacher has been influenced by values that they have carried over from their early geographical experiences. For Paul this is reflected in an engagement

with places and the lure of travel. Alternatively, for Dan it was the pull of developing a political understanding of the world, and the opportunity that geography gave him to see the world differently. Both of these values have been carried forward into their current practice: Paul still likes to base his curriculum around the study of places (and particularly those he has experienced), whilst Dan has looked for opportunities to give students a chance to see the world differently. This finding would be in line with Gudmundsdottir (1990) and Korthagen's (2004) work that identifies that values or mission are at the root of a teacher's practice. However, what we also see within these case teachers is that there is conflict in how they can express these values. For Paul, the way that geography education has changed, and the watchdog to enforce these changes (as represented by Ofsted) has required him to adapt and review his teaching practices. He has been able to reconcile these challenges through focusing on the geographical concept of place in his curriculum planning. It would appear that Paul has been able to do this in line with his values of what is 'good' geography at school level. Alternatively, Dan has experienced conflict between the pressure that he feels to be an 'exam factory' to get good results for his students, whilst also wishing to develop in them being able to see things differently. Both teachers have been able to develop their curriculum planning priorities in line with the constraints and contexts that they are teaching within, and their preferred approaches and values that underpin their engagement with geography.

If we refer back to the Habermasian understanding how a subject has developed, it could be highlighted that these teachers engaged with academic geography during different periods when the subject was focusing on different theoretical bases. Paul studied for his degree in the 1960s and described it as focusing on a positivistic, quantitative geography. Dan however, was able to engage with critical and post-modern geographical analysis and understanding. There is some indication that these undergraduate and pre-undergraduate influences have remained with them. For Paul the 'factual' approach to geography was influential in his early career, but a passion for place has remained part of his professional and personal life. Dan has also been able to apply the principles of the cultural and critical geography to his current teaching issues such as fieldwork. Although the links with their early geographical experiences are not direct, it is evident that the relationship that they developed with geography has left 'residuals' that still affect their practice.

Both teachers teach in the same broad educational culture, as they need to respond to agendas set by the current education legislation in England and Wales, and the prescribed 'national' curricula. However, they have not interpreted these curricula, or indeed the geography contained within them in the same way. Influenced by their own 'passions' Paul has chosen to focus on the place emphasis in both the geography National Curriculum and the GCSE specifications, and to interpret the thematic studies through study of places. Conversely, Dan has chosen to structure his curriculum through a series of geographical themes that enable him to emphasise the geographical

A picture is starting to emerge here of how their initial geographical passions are influencing their

teaching practice.

Although only tentative, what is beginning to emerge through this data is an understanding of how these teachers are using their subject knowledge in the classroom. What is missing from this initial analysis is detail of how this affects their classroom practice. But based on this evidence, they do not appear to have developed a similar or comparable 'knowledge' about teaching that is divorced from their understanding of geography or pedagogy, or indeed that has been transformed or emerged from them. It would seem, however, that their interest in geography has had some influence on how they teach. Each has demonstrated that they are able to understand how *what* they are teaching is part of a broader geographical understanding of what geography is to them.

Shulman's assertion that teachers have a 'subject knowledge *for teaching*' (1986: 9, emphasis in original) would seem to support these observations. However, the case teachers, as curriculum developers, have also had to use their subject knowledge in a strategic way in order to enable them to act within their values framework. This ability to understand the sliding scale of geographical understanding (i.e. from the big picture to the little picture, the local to the global) has been termed synoptic capacity[9] (Daly *et al.*, 2004; Rice, 1992). If geographical content is one of the factors that may influence the quality of geography education, then it would be prudent to examine this notion further. Understanding teachers' subject expertise as a relationship could enable teachers to see how what they are teaching fits synoptically into their larger understanding of the threshold concepts that underpin geographical study. If this is the case, then it would be prudent to suggest that encouraging teachers to focus on this synoptic capacity, and enabling them to appreciate how their subject knowledge can affect their practice which could have an effect on the quality of geography education that is taught.

Marsden warned of taking the geography out of geography education (Marsden, 1997). Foregrounding the development of this relationship between a teacher's subject knowledge and how they teach geography could help to redress this balance and to encourage teachers to reflect on if they are teaching 'good' geography as well as 'good' lessons.

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12 Term was originally used by Rice (1992) with reference to Scholarship of Teaching.

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Teaching Geography in Secondary School:

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Teachers Perceptions and Experiences Keshav Raj Dhakal1 Abstract Geography has the feature of being a science by examining the relationship of human and nature. Geography occupies very important role in school education. In secondary level education within Nepal there is a provision of selection of geography as an optional subject. This paper examines the perception and experiences about geography as an academic discipline from the teacher of secondary levels. Qualitative research method is used in this study and the semi structured interview method is applied. A semi structured interview guideline is applied for the participant in this study. Data are categorized into seven different groups and the analysis is carried out through the interpretations. The Research findings are discussed in relation to the theme and some recommendations have been given. This article provides useful information on the topic of perceptions and experiences of geography teachers on geography teaching in secondary school of Nepal. Key words: perception, teaching geography, curriculum, textbook, effective teaching Introduction Geography is a discipline that seeks to understand the world in its physical and human features through an understanding of place and location. Geography combines both physical and human geography and looks at the interactions between the human and environment. According to Adhikari (2003) geography attempts to bridge the widening gap between the changing physical and biological phenomena on the one hand, and the changing human phenomena on the other (p.4). Geography should be understood as a science that enquiries how this knowledge can be more useful for people by exerted it from being it just to be memorized the knowledge of the names and sizes of the mountain, river and lake. At present, geography is commonly referred to as the study of the environment and human's changing relationship. Subedi and Joshi (1997) stated that like most other social 1 PhD Scholar, Central Department of Geography, Tribhuvan University. Corresponding email: dhakalkeshav@hotmail.com Keshav Raj Dhakal 33 science disciplines, it is dynamic and over the last few decades changes have taken place in both the nature and scope of the discipline (p. 90). Sanil, Sezer and Pinar (2016) review that the integration of technology to teaching, during their education, prospective geography teachers should be encouraged to produce technology aided instructional materials that could be utilized in teaching geography in under graduate level. Babacan (2018) concludes that most participants think primarily about holding a teaching position in state schools or having an academic career, while some intend to work as public servant, police officer, GIS expert and in different job positions in the private sector also. Wilmot and Irwin (2015) present the teachers' perceptions of the geography curriculum. Artvinil (2017) focuses the views of geography teachers on innovative geography teaching that the geography teachers are open and willing to use current education technologies in their classes, but with some challenges. Geographical knowledge is very important for teachers, educationists, planners and policy makers of the country owing to geographical diversity of the country. In such context, effective geography teaching and learning is necessary in Nepal. In the early days of formal education implemented in the Nepal, geography was included in the school curriculum. However, nowadays, the subject is not in a position of high profile in the secondary school education. Therefore, it is necessary to find out the problems of geography teaching in secondary schools. The present study brings out the factual realities of the perceptions and experiences of geography teachers of secondary level. This study is significant because it

gives attention to geography teachers perceptions, they have their teaching experiences. There is dearth of literature in Nepal about the perception and experiences of secondary level teacher in Nepal. This paper addresses the gap in the current literature by placing an emphasis on understanding the perceptions of secondary level teacher to effective geography teaching. The main objective of this study is to find out the perceptions and experiences of geography teachers towards geography teaching in terms of instructional strategies, strength and weakness of curriculum, teaching methods, textbook, teaching materials, class room management, problems of teaching geography and suggestion to improve geography teaching at secondary schools. Methodology Qualitative research methods have been used in this study. This research is a descriptive study to gather teacher's perception and experiences about teaching The Geographic Base Vo. 6: 32-41, 2019 34 geography in secondary levels. The research population of this study consisted of the teachers teaching geography at secondary school. Eight schools were selected for the study on the basis of purposive sampling out of sixteen community schools offering geography as an optional subject. Eight teachers who teach geography in sampled secondary schools were selected. A semi structured interview guideline has been applied for the participant in this study. The researcher visited the sampled schools for collecting necessary data. Necessary data acquired through the interviews were determined. The primary mode of analysis is the development of categories or themes from the raw data. The themes were divided into seven groups as instructional strategies, strength and weakness of curriculum, teaching methods, textbook, teaching materials, class room management, problems of teaching geography and suggestion to improve geography teaching at secondary schools. The secondary data were acquired from the review of the published and unpublished materials and electronic materials and documents of various organizations. Information regarding distribution of secondary schools, offering geography was acquired from official records. After collecting data, analysis of the data acquired was made through the interpretative method. The analysis was carried out through multiple readings and interpretations of the raw data. Result and discussion The survey was responded to by eight teachers teaching geography in eight different secondary schools located in Kathmandu district. Out of the total eight secondary level teachers teaching geography constituting the research population, all teachers are male. All teachers had at least bachelor's degree in geography from University. In terms of year of service, it is found that 50% of teacher had a teaching experience over 10 years, 25% had teaching experience between 5-10 years and 25% had a teaching experience less than 5 years. All teachers participated in training program after their appointment as a teacher. Instructional strategies Instructional strategies refer to methods used to help learn to students the desire course contents. Instructional strategy is the implementation of a long-term plan designed to achieve a goal followed in order to achieve learning. Instructional strategies comprise the principle and methods used by teachers to enable the students Keshav Raj Dhakal 35 learning. Weston and Cranton (1986) viewed instructional strategies as both the teaching method and materials used in the process of teaching. Effective instructional strategies can be used across grade levels and subject areas, available instructional materials and can accommodate a range of student differences. According to findings all teachers have used interactive, collaborative and teacher centered strategies. An interactive classroom student talk than teacher talk. Students are given the opportunity to interact with teacher and with other students in interactive approach. Students will work as group work, team work and discussion in collaborative approach. The approaches called constructivist, subject matter centered and student centered are also used by some teachers as instructional strategies in

teaching in secondary schools. Teaching methods Geography should be taught as a very practical subject. It adds to one's knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the world around us. The variety of teaching and learning method which is used within geography is an important ingredient in creating a course with interest to students. A good teaching method helps the students to question their preconceptions, and motivates them to learn, by putting them in a situation in which they come to see themselves as the authors of answers, as the agents of responsibility for change. According to the findings all teachers have used lecture, question answer, field work and discussion method in teaching geography at secondary schools. In lecture method teacher teaches orally to a group of students in class room. Question answer teaching method is a shared dialogue between teacher and student to achieve the cognitive objectives and bringing knowledge to conscious level. Table 1: Instructional strategies Instructional strategies Frequency Interactive 8 Collaborative (group work, team work and discussion) 8 Teacher centered 8 Constructivist 6 Subject matter centered 5 Student centered 3 Source: Field survey, 2018. The Geographic Base Vo. 6: 32-41, 2019 36 Discussion is an active teaching method that encourages student to reflect their own experience. Fieldwork is regarded as an essential part of teaching and learning geography and all teachers agree that it represents one of the most effective and enjoyable forms of teaching and learning for both teachers and students. Though problem solving, narrative, demonstration and project based methods are used by some teachers as teaching method in teaching secondary schools. Strengths and weakness of curriculum Curriculum is a tool in the hands of the teacher to mound his pupil according to his objective in the school. Curriculum is all the experiences of the pupil which is planned and directed by the school teachers to attain the objective of the education. Curriculum is an integration of need interest and skill of learners and helps to bring desire changes in learners. Curriculum also helps to prepare textbook, teaching manual and other reference materials. According to findings geography curriculum has some strength like giving the knowledge of our country, knowledge about climate and weather, knowledge about natural resource and maps, knowledge about agricultural pattern etc. Encourage the use of technology, student centered curriculum, encourages research through observation, encourages learning Table 2: Teaching methods Teaching Methods Frequency Lecture 8 Question answer 8 Field work 8 Problem solving 7 Demonstration 6 Discussion 8 Laboratory method 5 Narrative method 6 Project based method 4 Source: Field survey, 2018. Table 3: Strength of curriculum Strength of Curriculum Frequency Knowledge of our country 7 Knowledge about latitude and longitude 3 Knowledge about climate and weather 5 Knowledge about natural resource and maps 7 Knowledge about agricultural pattern 4 Encourage the use of technology 7 Student centered curriculum 6 Encourages research through observation 5 Encourages learning by doing 4 Source: Field survey, 2018. Keshav Raj Dhakal 37 by doing and knowledge about latitude and longitude are the other strength of geography curriculum. According to the findings the geography curriculum has some weakness. It is seen that the weaknesses relating to curriculum are poor performance in the S.E.E. exam. It is not job oriented subject at present, gap on practical skills and knowledge, heavily theoretical curriculum, inadequacy of the infrastructure and resources for implementation, lacking vertical as well as horizontal linkages etc. Teaching materials Teaching materials are resource to teacher which the teacher can use to help students learn a through visual and audio perception. Quality teaching materials help greatly to reinforce the students' initial desire to learn and to sustain enthusiasm throughout the course. Teaching materials plays a role in making knowledge accessible to a learner and can encourage the student to engage with knowledge in different ways and increase student's success. Okobia (2011)

summarized the importance of using instructional materials in the classroom to include: a. making the subject matter more real. b. explicating difficult concepts. c. making the learner experience what is being learnt. d. helping to fire the imagination of the learners. e. preventing misconceptions. f. making learning interesting amongst others. Table 4: Weakness of curriculum Weakness of curriculum Frequency Poor performance in the S.E.E. exam 7 Not job oriented subject 6 Gap on practical skills and knowledge 3 Heavily theoretical curriculum 5 Inadequacy of the infrastructure and resources for implementation 6 Lacking vertical as well as horizontal linkages 3 Source: Field survey, 2018. The Geographic Base Vo. 6: 32-41, 2019 38 According to the findings all teachers have used printed materials (text book, reference book, magazine, journal, newspaper, teachers guide) frequently in teaching geography in secondary schools. All teachers used graphic materials (chart, graph, map, atlas, globe, poster and diagram) sometimes in teaching geography class room. Use of audio-visual materials (tape, cassette, radio, photo, slide, overhead projector, television, computer and video) in class room is occasional. Local materials (mud floor, stones, bricks, stick, culture and tradition etc.) are not utilized as teaching materials. Geography text book Textbook is a book containing facts about a particular subject that is used by people studying that subject and are produced according to the demand of educational institutions. Widdowson and Lambert (2005) stated that textbooks have a key place in teaching learning. Textbook plays an important role in teaching and learning. It represents useful resource for teachers and learners. Textbooks are undoubtedly the most popular teaching materials use in classroom. According to the geography teacher there are some defects of secondary level geography textbooks. The subject matters of the geography are not presented in the textbook according to the curriculum. All teacher said that the portion of mathematical geography is not appropriate in textbook. This portion has no practical utility in daily life. There are some errors in the geography textbook such as the problems on calculation of latitude and longitude. Most of the teacher said that geography of continents was too lengthy in the text book. Some statistical data are not updated in human and economic aspect in the text book. Some examples and figures are not appropriate in the text book. Examples based on local geography should be emphasized in text book. Table 5: Teaching materials Teaching materials Frequency Printed materials (text book, reference book, magazine, journal, newspaper, teacher's manual) 8 Graphic materials (chart, graph, map, atlas, globe, poster and diagram) 8 Audio visual materials (tape, cassette, radio, photo, slide, overhead projector, television, computer and video) 5 Local materials (mud floor, stones, bricks, stick, culture and tradition etc.) 0 Source: Field survey, 2018. Keshav Raj Dhakal 39 Classroom management Classroom management comprises broad knowledge and skills of teacher (Steins, Wittrock and Haep, 2015). Classroom management is the wide variety of skills and techniques that teachers use to keep students organized, orderly focused, attentive and ensure that their classrooms runs smoothly without disruptive behavior of the student during class room. According to the result obtained there are no teachers who have problem in classroom management. All of the teacher manages their class from eye contact and gathering attention by doing question answer method. Besides these method geography teachers also manage their classroom by applying other method. These methods are active participation of teacher and student in the classroom and course and good dialogue and positive communication between teacher and student in the class room. This type of class room management shows that their better efficiency in teaching in class room. Problems of geography teaching There are some problems of geography teaching at secondary school. A separate geography class room and laboratory are not available even a separate geography class room and laboratory for

effective teaching are essential at the secondary schools. Reference materials on geography are not easily available at the market. Teaching mathematical concepts of geography is very difficult because mathematical geography is not included in higher education in geography. There is not sufficient availability of teaching materials to teach geography at the secondary level. And also, there is no provision of teacher training program by concerned authorities and no provision of workshop and seminars by educational institutions. Suggestions to improve geography teaching Secondary school's geography teachers gave some suggestions to improve geography teaching at secondary level. According to the teacher there should be separate Table 6: Class room management Class room Management Frequency Eye contact 8 Gathering attention by doing question-andanswer 8 Active teacher role 5 By providing active participation in the course 6 Good dialogue and positive communication 5 Source: Field survey, 2018. The Geographic Base Vo. 6: 32-41, 2019 40 geography class room and laboratory in each school. The concerning authorities should give teacher refresher programme. There should be provision of training programme to update the knowledge of geography teachers. There should be workshop and seminars for the geography teachers from educational institutions. Reference books and materials should be available in schools and geography curriculum should be job oriented. The respondents reported that there was a need of changing curriculum according to the need of the society and market demand. There was also a need of bringing changes in teaching learning methods/strategies using new technology like audio-visual devices. The respondents reported that the syllabus should also be changed in order to meet new challenges. Public awareness program about geography education was to be launched. There was a need of increasing weightage for GIS, RS and practical courses. Conclusion The major task of teacher is to use classroom instructions and presentations to help students learning. School teachers play an important role in the overall development of students. Teaching is a profession in which the teacher becomes a model to the students and shows cognitive and affective behaviors and also the reflections of these behaviors through her/his own behaviors, attitudes and relations. According to finding interactive, collaborative and teacher centered strategies and methods are applied in the geography class room. There are some strength and weaknesses of geography curriculum and geography textbook. The finding of the research indicates that there are so many problems in teaching geography in secondary schools such as instructional materials, reference books, curriculum, textbooks etc. Teachers have positive perception and experience towards geography teaching in spite of various problems. References Adhikari, J. (2003). Geographical education and studies in Nepal. (Unpublished Seminar Paper). Kathmandu. Pp.1-35. Artivinil. E. (2017). What is innovative geography teaching? A Perspective from geography teachers, Journal of Education and Training Studies, 5(6), 9-23. Babacan, S. (2018). Pre-service geography teachers' perception of university education and their expectations of their field of study, International Journal of Geography and Geography Education, 38,119-126. Keshav Raj Dhakal 41 Okobia, E.O. (2011). Availability and teachers' use of instructional materials and resources in the implementation of social studies in junior secondary schools in edo state. Review of European Studies, 3(3) December 2011. Retrieved from www.cesent. Org/res on 05/12/18. Sanil,C., Sezer, A., & Pinar, A. (2016). Perception of geography teachers to integrating technology to teaching and their practices, RIGEO, 6(3), 234-252. Retrieved from www.rigeo.org 6(3) winter/RIGEOV6 N3.pdf. Steins, G. Wittrock, K. & Haep, A. (2015) Contents of classroom management: What is necessary, what is possible? How is it done at school? Creative Education, 6, 2045-2062. Doi:10.4236/ce.2015.619210. Subedi, B. P. & Joshi. B. D. (1997). About geography in Nepal: An outline for discussion.

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Main Challenges in Front of the Teachers to Teach Geography More Effectively: A Phenomenological Research

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify the main challenges geography teachers face in providing a more efficient geography education and the solutions teachers come up with against these issues. In order to be more effective in geography teaching, identifying and producing solutions for the issues that geography teachers go through within the context of school administration, students, parents and other branch teachers is among the first measures that need to be taken. Phenomenology design, one of the qualitative research methods, was used in the study. As a part of the study, semi-structured interviews were held with 212 voluntary geography teachers from nine different provinces of Turkey, and the obtained results were analyzed using descriptive analysis. According to the obtained findings, two third of the geography teachers state that they have problems with parents, more than half with the school administration and students, and more than one third with other branch teachers. By extension, it can be seen that the majority of geography teachers face problems with parents, students and school administration, the key shareholders of education. In an effort to turn the current situation around, applied trainings assisted by case studies may be provided to improve geography teachers' conflict management, adolescent psychology, problem solving and communication skills. Furthermore, projects that will turn the socio-cultural environment of the school into a center of attraction and promote participation may be designed to spark parents' interest in education. Lastly, school administrators may be suggested to take measures in terms of both in-service training and material and learning environment that are aimed at inclining teachers

towards using student-oriented active learning methods and techniques in order to generate interest and motivation in students towards lessons.

Keywords

Challenges, Teaching Geography, Phenomenological Research, Geography Teachers, Turkey

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Although it is impossible to provide accurate information about its history, teaching has become a modern profession only after undergoing certain phases. 7). Teaching profession is defined as an occupational field of professional status that requires vocational training, with education-related social, cultural, economic, scientific and technological dimensions (Hacıoğlu and Alkan, 1997; Kaya, Durmaz, 2015, p. 72). Although there are many variables in the field of education that have an impact on success, teachers are the leading factor among the most important ones. 43). Therefore, one can say that an educational system is only as competent as the teachers in it (Kaya, 2012, p. 177).

It is a widely accepted fact that education plays the most important role in a country's development and a prosperous and peaceful living for the society. One of the leading shareholders in providing this education, teachers hold certain traits that affect the quality of education. It is for this reason that teachers take on a critical duty in a country's development and advancement (Özdemir, Yalın ve Sezgin, 2008; Vural, 2004; Erdemir, 2007; Sarı ve Altun, 2015, p. 213). The quality of the education and individual is largely a reflection of the quality of the teacher (Açıkgöz, 2003; Adıgüzel, 2008; Aydın, 2004; Binbaşıoğlu, 1995; Demir ve Çamlı, 2011; Erçetin ve Özdemir, 2004; Öztürk, Kaya, Durmaz, 2015, p. 72).

Today, teachers must posses the mental and educational competencies that will allow them to evaluate, select and synthesize the information and earnings students acquire from a broad array of information sources (Aladağ, 2003, p. 8). Teachers are no longer sources of information, but have rather focused their efforts on how and where to use the information, studying its relation with the needs of the individual, society and humanity, its conformance with the requirements of the current age and the society, and render life valuable for all humanity. This, in turn, brings up the issue of quality for the profession of teaching (Duman, 1991, p. 268).

As a matter of fact, the studies in the literature shows the notion that, except for some matters, geography teachers do not possess sufficient skills for teaching and conducting classes effectively is gaining prominence. And this lack of skill can be ranked among the factors that have a negative impact, which prevents students in secondary education institutions from paying attention to and study geography lessons, and seeing it as interesting, fun and topical. 38).

A teacher who aspires to perform their profession in adherence to the moder education and training principles should not be considered as a person who merely gives lectures, holds exams and gives marks; in addition to giving lectures, a teacher should also take on the tasks of organization, management, guidance, observation and evaluation (Temel, 1988, p. 21).

Oğuzkan (1989) defines the attributes of the modern teacher as

individuals who adjust their values, look for resources, identify difficulties, establish interdisciplinary links, foster human relations, give counseling on choice of profession and spare time activities, help examining and learning about the environment, assist and lead students in preparing

for their occupation, are regarded as experts in teaching and learning, and well-versed in future processes and making good use of what is available (Oğuzkan, 1989, p. 41).

It is the teacher who will manage the education system and teach individuals. The duty expected from a teacher is to plan and engage in educational and training activities that will contribute to bringing up individuals with universal knowledge, values, skills and manners in line with societal expectations and the goals of the Turkish national education. Teachers should be able to adept themselves to the social and technological developments while doing so (Baki, 2009, p. 62). This adaptation can help generate a readily available and sustainable qualified human resource, through which nations can achieve happiness and prosperity. Teacher is the most crucial person in providing individuals with the insight brought about by the shifting needs of nations necessary for sustaining a happy and prosperous existence, and teaching the ways to utilize this insight (Kaya, 2014).

Since teachers constitute one of the most fundamental components of the education system, the problems they are faced with certainly have a direct impact on the education system. As a natural result, teachers struggling with problems will not be able to make the desired contribution to the structure and mechanism of the education system. 294). Moreover, having to perform their professions in such difficult conditions causes teachers to lose their faith in their professions (Gömleksiz, Ülkü, Biçer and Yetkiner, 2010; Sarı and Altun, 2015, p. 213). Like all other teachers, geography teachers, too, perform their duties in accordance with the principles and objectives set out by the Ministry of National Education, and during which they are confronted with various professional problems (Şahin, 2001, p. 60).

It can be said that there are numerous obstacles in the way of geography teachers for providing a better geography education. These, however, can be roughly divided into two categories; system-related problems and problems encountered in the field of geography education. One of the examples to the problems encountered in the field of geography education is teachers' wide use of teaching methods that is based on explaining concepts (Artvinli, 2010a). One of its primary underlying reasons is the overpopulation of classrooms and behavioral training teachers formerly received. On the other hand, the lack of in-service training support for geography teachers and an education that will present them with proper guidance and activity using the necessary and relevant materials can be given among the examples of qualitative problems faced in geography education.

In order to realize targeted earnings and to reach designed targets in students, it is highly important to raise teachers who are program implementers. With this purpose, it needs to increase academic research

that would serve raising teachers of higher quality. Besides attitudes of teachers, candidates of teacher and students towards geography courses should be displayed rationally (Geçit, 2010, p. 983). Geography teachers need to follow a more innovative path to be able to provide a more effective geography education. Geography teachers describe how a more innovative teacher should be as follows: use more of the trip-observation method, participate in the social projects, attend the conferences and seminars, receive post-graduate education and use educational technologies effectively" (Artvinli, 2017, p. 21).

In another study, regarding the obstacles in the way of an effective geography education, geography teachers state that they run into problems in the application of geography curriculum (Artvinli, 2010b). According to the results of the said study, looking at the most common three items regarding the "obstacles" in the way of the application of geography curriculum that geography teachers "completely agree", "Students coming from primary education lacking sufficient geographical knowledge and skills" ranks number one. This item is followed secondly by "School administration not attaching priority to the application of the program" and "Lack of sufficient support from school administration regarding the material problem and other issues for the application of the program", both sharing the same ratio. And "Classroom environment not being favorable for student-oriented learning" follows them as the third most significant problem. Moreover, the choice of "Program approach seeming hard and complicated due to the insufficiency of the training provided to teachers on realizing program earnings" also ranks high on the list (Artvinli, 2010b, p. 1978-1979). On the other hand, according to Değirmenci and Ilter (2017), the majority of the teachers stated that they aimed to provide their students with skills of “geographical inquiry”, “observation”, “comparison of patterns”, “geographic association of facts” and “make conclusions” through the teaching of current events. These skills were followed by “increase environmental awareness”, “maps and graphs reading and interpretation” and “problem solving”.

But at the end of graduation, it is obviuos that gradıuate of high school students in Turkey don’t have higher order thinking skills or map skills in order to use in their Daily life. One of the main reasons of these reults are the barriers and obstacles for teaching geography in an effective way in high schools in Turkey. Thus, drawing upon the above- mentioned studies as well, the question of "What are the major challenges in the way of geography teachers providing a more effective geography education?" has been determined as the main problem of this study with the aim to reveal the most significant obstacles in the way of geography teachers providing a more effective geography teaching in a general and extensive manner. And answers were sought to the following problems to be able to give an answer to the main question of the study:

I. What is the nature of the problems geography teachers have with *the school administration* in providing a more effective geography teaching?
II. What is the nature of the problems geography teachers have with *other teachers* in providing a more effective geography teaching?
III. What is the nature of the problems geography teachers have with *parents* in providing a more effective geography teaching?
IV. What is the nature of the problems geography teachers have with *students* in

providing a more effective geography teaching?

v. What is the nature of the solutions geography teachers propose for the problems they encounter to provide a more effective geography teaching?

Methodology

Research Design

Qualitative research method was used in this study, which is a technique that allows regular analysis of the opinions drawing from individuals' experiences that have been or planned to be realized (Ekiz, 2003; Beldağ ve Geçit, 2017, p. 102). Thus, phenomenology design, one of the qualitative research methods, was used in the study. Phenomenology design focuses on concepts that we are aware of yet lack a deep and comprehensive understanding of (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2013, p. 78). In phenomenology, a common meaning is defined for the prior experiences of multiple people regarding a phenomenon or concept (Creswell, 2013, p. 77).

Data was collected through semi-structured interview, one of the techniques of qualitative research. Interviews are regarded as a strong method since they eliminate the restrictions faced in the tests and surveys that are based on writing and filling out, and reveal the data, views, experiences and emotions of individuals in a more effective manner. Semi-structured interviews are conducted based on the previously prepared interview forms. The interviewees are asked systematic and appropriate questions. The interviewees have the freedom to express whatever they want in any way they wish. Depending on the course of the interview, the surveyor may influence the course of the interview through different side or sub-questions, allowing the individual to elaborate on their answers. With this technique, the survey can obtain systematic and comparable information. Semi-structured interview technique is favored and preferred by researchers due to the certain level of standard and flexibility it offers (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2006; Gökçe, 2009, p. 726). This study is limited to the views of 212 geography teachers serving in 9 different provinces of Turkey. The problems identified in the study and the proposed solutions are limited to the problems geography teachers have with the school administration, students and parents, and the solutions they proposed to the problems.

Participants

The principles that must be considered in determining the sample size are; the focus of the study, the amount of data, and institutional sampling (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2006, p. 114). For that reason, with a purposeful and easily accessible sampling approach, 212 geography teachers, who could be reached from among the 680 teachers giving geography lessons in Adıyaman, Ankara, Antalya, Artvin, Denizli, Isparta, İzmir, Kahramanmaraş and Trabzon in Turkey, participated in the study Demographic information of the geography teachers who participated in the study was given on Table 1.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Geography Teachers

Characteristics	Dimensions	*f*	%
Gender	Female	78	36.8
	Male	134	63.2
Age Group	Younger than 25	2	0.9
	26-30	18	8.5
	31-35	27	12.8

	36 and older	165	77.8
Working experience (year)	0-5	12	5.7
	6-10	36	16.7
	11-15	32	15.1
	16-20	40	18.9
	21-25	62	29.2
	26 and more	30	14.4
School Types	Science and Social Sciences High School	10	4.7
	Anatolian High School	98	46.2
	Imam-Hatip High School	42	19.8
	Vocational High School	62	29.3
Educational Level	Training Institute or Bachelor's Completed	18	8.5
	Undergraduate	130	61.3
	Master's Degree	62	29.3
	Doctorate Degree	2	0.9
	Total	**212**	**100**

According to the table, all of the geography teachers serve in the Ministry ofNational Education (MEB). 78 of the geography teachers were females and 134 were males. Their professional seniority ranges between 1 year and 36 years. Of the geography teachers who participated in the study, 36 serves in İzmir, 31 in Kahramanmaraş, 27 in Antalya, 27 in Isparta, 22 in Denizli, 21 in Ankara, 19 in Adıyaman, 15 in Trabzon an 14 in Artvin. Of the geography teachers who participated in the study, 46.2% serve in Anatolian High School, 29.3% in Vocational High School, 19.8% in Imam Hatip High School, and 4.7% in Science and Social Sciences High School. Of the geography teachers who participated in the study, 61.3% had Undergraduate, 29.3% had Master's, 8.5% had Training Institute or Bachelor's completed, and 0.9% had Doctorate degrees.

Table 2

Distribution of the Geography Teachers Who Participated in the Study According to the Provinces They Serve

No	City	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
1	Adıyaman	19	8.9
2	Ankara	21	9.9
3	Antalya	27	12.7
4	Artvin	14	6.6
5	Denizli	22	10.4
6	İzmir	36	17.0
7	Isparta	27	12.7
8	Kahramanmaraş	31	14.7
9	Trabzon	15	7.1
	Total	**212**	**100**

Data Collection Tool

"Problems Geography Teachers Are Faced with and Proposed Solutions" form prepared by the researcher was used to determine thoughts and opinions of the geography teachers in the research group. In the form, participants were asked ranking questions and open-ended questions listed under four parts. The form comprises of items developed by the researchers, with the first part aiming to determine personal information about the teachers filling out the form, the second part aiming to determine information regarding the environment of the school where teachers serve, the third part aiming to determine the problems teachers have with their colleagues, the school administration, students and parents while practicing their profession, and the fourth part aims to determine the solutions teachers propose for the problems they encounter. The measurement form was initially applied to a group of 14 individuals, and the Cronbach Alpha value was calculated to be 0.84. For reliability purposes, the related form was checked by two academics from geography education field, 3 teachers an administrator who serve as geography teachers in secondary education institutions, and was ready for application after several refinements.

Collection and Analysis of Data

The data collection tool, which was developed for the purpose of determining the problems geography teachers face and their views regarding the solution of these problems, was lastly checked in terms of language by a Literature teacher, and was ready for application after the final check. After permits were obtained from the related institutions, schools were visited to hold interviews with the principals regarding the study. During the interviews, principals were informed about the purpose and methodology of the study and how answers are obtained, and the data collection tool was applied to geography teachers on a voluntary basis.

Before moving on to the data analysis phase of the study, the filled-out forms were assigned scale numbers from 1 to 212. The answers given by teachers to each item were analyzed through grounded theory and constant comparison analysis methods that are used for data analysis in qualitative studies. The primary purpose of this analysis method is to identify the themes within the data sets and develop new theories based on these themes (Leech ve Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Glaser ve Strauss, 1967; Özdemir, 2010, p. 336). Constant comparison analysis method used in the analysis of quantitative data comprises of two basic stages. In the first stage, the data are read and compared to each other. Thus, relevant data are gathered under certain concepts or categories. In the second stage, main themes are initially identified based on the concepts and categories, and then these themes are turned into propositional statements and hypothesis sentences are formed (Have, 2004, p. 136).

Findings

This part of the study consists of the findings regarding the problems the geography teachers, who participated in the study in line with the main objective of the study, have with the school administration, teachers, students and parents as well as the answers they gave for the proposed solutions. The obtained data was explained and interpreted in the

form of tables. The findings were listed under five main headings in accordance with the sub-problems of the study.

The main area of employment for the graduates of four-year geography and geography teaching departments in Turkey is the official secondary education institutions affiliated with the Ministry of National Education (MEB). Moreover, private teaching institutions, which rapidly raised in number during 1990s, and study centers, which appeared after 2000s, also became an important area of employment. Additionally, the goal to increase the number of private schools that was included in the government programs and development plans after 2005 and the incentives provided to that end resulted in private schools becoming another important area of employment.

The number of geography teachers employed in official secondary education institutions affiliated with the Ministry of National Education that provide formal education located in 81 provinces as of the date of 7 January 2018 is 11,285, the required number of employed teachers according to the norm staffing guide is 11,375, and the norm deficit is 90 (MEB, 2018). The difference between the number of employed teachers and the required number of employed teachers being 90 is an acceptable value. Because, this number was 1,609 in January 7, 2012 (Kaya, 2014, p. 796).

Of the 11,375 geography teachers serving in MEB, 20 of them have doctorate degree, 831 have master's with thesis degree, 3,267 have master's without thesis degree, and 7,257 have undergraduate degree. In other words, 63.8% of geography teachers holds undergraduate degree while 36,2% hold post-graduate education degree. When the educational levels of geography teachers are evaluated based on Turkey average, the rate of teachers with post-graduate education is four times above the country average (See Table 1).

Problems between Geography Teachers and the School Administration

This section aimed to determine the rate at which geography teachers have problems with the school administration. Accordingly, 42.7% of the geography teachers who participated in the study stated that they did not have any problems with the school administration while 56.6% stated that they did (Table 3). The findings show that one out of every two geography teachers in our country has problems with the school administration.

Table 3

Distribution of Geography Teachers According to Their Relation with the School Administration

Do you face any problems with the school management? While practicing your profession?	F	%

Yes	120	56.6
No	90	42.5
No Answer	2	0.9
Total	212	100

And the distribution of the answers regarding what kind of problems the geography teachers who stated that they have problems with the school management face are given in table 4. The given answers were sorted from the most emphasized to the least emphasized according to how many times a problem is marked.

Table 4

Distribution of the Problems between the School Management and Geography Teachers

	Problems with the school management	F	%
1	Lack of knowledge about the geography curriculum	98	26.8
2	Lack of interest and concern towards the activities that are planned to be carried out for effective geography teaching.	62	16.9
3	Failing to supply the educational materials required for a qualified education and training	58	15.9
4	Lack of promoting participation in personal and vocational development activities	42	11.5
5	Prioritizing an exam-oriented education over an education that provide fundamental knowledge, skills and value	20	5.4
6	Lack of emphasis on activities aimed at the development of low-level, disinterested students coming from a lower learning level.	18	4.9
7	Putting more emphasis on numerical courses	16	4.4
8	Lack of effective disciplinary practices against unfavorable student behavior	14	3.9
9	Lack of sufficient support in problems with parents	12	3.3
10	Not placing as much emphasis on the quality of education and training as the school maintenance	10	2.7
11	Inducement regarding unionization	6	1.6
12	Discrimination between teachers	5	1.4
13	Not referring to teachers' opinions in decision making processes for the school	4	1.1
	Total	**365**	**100**

The greatest problems experienced with the school administration are ranked as the lack of knowledge about the geography curriculum (26.8%), lack of interest and concern towards the activities that are planned to be carried out for effective geography teaching (16.9%), failing to supply the educational materials required for a qualified education and training (15.9%) and lack of promoting participation in personal and vocational development activities (11.5%).

Problems between Geography Teachers and Other Teachers

69.8% of the geography teachers who participated in the survey stated that they did not have problems with teachers while 30.2% stated otherwise. When an evaluation is made considering the ratios, it can be said that approximately two thirds of the geography teachers do not have problems with the other teachers. The answers of the geography teachers who responded to this question with 'yes' are further examined in Table 6.

Table 5

Distribution of Geography Teachers According to Their Relation with Other Teachers

Do you encounter any problems with other teachers when practicing your profession?	F	%
Yes	64	30.2
No	148	69.8
No Answer	0	0.0
Total	**212**	**100**

Table 6

Distribution of the Problems between Other Teachers and Geography Teachers

	Problems with Teachers	F	%
1	Conducting classes based on course books rather than the curriculum	26	25.5
2	Failure to fairly share the teaching materials	20	19.6
3	Disagreements that arise in group activities	18	17.6
4	Failure to implement the decisions taken in meetings	14	13.7
5	Different practices in similar situations due to poor communication with students and parents	11	10.8
6	Exhibiting different attitudes and behaviors towards children with insufficient academic levels and unruly behavior	9	8.8
7	Different practices in measurement and evaluation	4	3.9
	Total	**102**	**100**

The greatest problems experienced with other teachers are ranked as conducting classes based on course books rather than the curriculum (25.5%), failure to fairly share the teaching materials (19.6%), disagreements that arise in group activities (17.6%) and Failure to implement the decisions taken in meetings (13.7%).

Problems between Geography Teachers and Students

43.8% of the geography teachers who participated in the survey stated that they did not have problems with students while 56.6% stated otherwise. An evaluation made considering the ratios in Table 7, reveals that every one teacher out of two has problems with students.

Table 7

Distribution of Geography Teachers According to Their Relation with Students

Do you encounter any problems with students when practicing your profession?	F	%
Yes	120	56.6
No	92	43.4
No Answer	0	0.0
Total	**212**	**100**

Details about what problems the geography teachers who state that they have problems with students are faced with are shown extensively in Table

8.

Table 8

Distribution of the Problems between Students and Geography Teachers

	Problems with Students	F	%
1	Low academic level of students	118	25.7
2	Lack of interest in courses among students	80	17.4
3	Failure to bring educational materials to in-class and out-of-class activities	62	13.4
4	Students showing up in courses without any prior preparation/study	54	11.7
5	Lingering behavioral disorders among students that have not been eliminated in the family or primary education	50	10.9
6	Weak sense of belonging among students towards school and education	43	9.4
7	Differences in the academical, social, economic and cultural levels of students	35	7.6
8	Parents' lack of interest in their children and education	18	3.9
	Total	**460**	**100**

The problems geography teachers have with students are ranked as low academic level of students (25.7%), lack of interest in courses among students (17.4%), failure to bring educational materials to in-class and out-of-class activities (13.4%), students showing up in courses without any prior preparation/study (11.7%), lingering behavioral disorders among students that have not been eliminated in the family or primary education (10.9%), Weak sense of belonging among students towards school and education (9.4%), differences in the academical, social, economic and cultural levels of students (7.6%), parents' lack of interest in their children and education (3.9%).

Problems between Geography Teachers and Parents

34% of the geography teachers who participated in the survey stated that they did not have problems with parents while 66% stated otherwise. An evaluation made considering the ratios in Table 9, reveals that every two teachers out of three have problems with parents.

Table 9

Distribution of Geography Teachers According to Their Relation with Parents

Do you encounter any problems with parents when practicing your profession?	F	%
Yes	140	66.0
No	72	34.0
No Answer	0	0.0
Total	212	100

And the distribution of the problems the geography teachers who stated that they have problems with parents face are given in table 10.

Table 10

Distribution of the Problems between Parents and Geography Teachers

	Problems with Parents	F	%
1	Parent's lack of interest in education and training	104	24.9
2	Courses and activities not being consolidated at home	84	20.1
3	Lack of participation to meetings and activities	78	18.6
4	Failure in the timely meeting of the materials that are necessary for children's development	55	13.2
5	Lack of support in the activities that are necessary for children's academic development	47	11.2
6	Lack of participation in and support for activities that are/will be carried out for children with behavioral disorders who are disinterested in school and education	26	6.2
7	Avoiding responsibility towards ensuring a good education for their children and laying all responsibility on the school	24	5.8
	Total	**418**	**100**

Problems that geography teachers have with parents were analyzed and classified according to their content. As a result of the categorization, the problems geography teachers have with parents are ranked as Parent's lack of interest in education and training (24.9%), courses and activities not being consolidated at home (20.1%), lack of participation to meetings and activities (18.6%), failure in the timely meeting of the materials that are necessary for children's development (13.2%), lack of support in the activities that are necessary for children's academic development (11.2%), Lack of participation in and support for activities that are/will be carried out for children with behavioral disorders who are disinterested in school and education (6.2%), and Avoiding responsibility towards ensuring a good education for their children and laying all responsibility on the school (5.8%).

Solutions Geography Teachers Proposed to the Problems They Face

This last section includes findings regarding the solutions geography teachers proposed to the problems they are inquired about in the data collection tool and have with variables such as the school administration, other teachers, students and parents.

Table 11

Solutions Geography Teachers Proposed to the Problems They Have with the School Administration

	Proposed Solutions to the Problems with the School Administration	F	%
1	Educational administrative should undergo training about the curriculum	100	23.4
2	Educational materials that are essential for a qualified education and training should be provided	78	18.3

3	The school administration should give permission for and ensure participation in and support for the activities planned for effective geography teaching and ensure	70	16.4

4	The necessary permits should be granted for ensuring participation in personal and vocational development activities	60	14.0
5	Knowledge, skill and value oriented education should be prioritized over an exam-oriented education	30	7.0
6	Efforts should be made towards supporting students with low academic level who are disinterested in courses	26	6.1
7	School guidance service should be granted greater authority and responsibility to be able to win over the students who display negative behavior, and held accountable for the obtained results.	22	5.2
8	Verbal courses should be valued and prioritized as much as numerical courses	16	3.8
9	There should be no discrimination between teachers, a fair and just sense of administration should be aimed	12	2.8
10	Teachers should not be left unsupported in problems with parents	8	1.9
11	Union activities should not be involved in school's functioning	6	1.4
12	Teachers should be more involved in decision making processes	4	0.9
	Total	**426**	**100**

The solutions geography teachers proposed for the problems they stated to have with the school management are ranked as follows; educational administrative should undergo training about the curriculum (23.4%), educational materials that are essential for a qualified education and training should be provided (18.3%), the school administration should give permission for and ensure participation in and support for the activities planned for effective geography teaching and ensure (16.4%), the necessary permits should be granted for ensuring participation in personal and vocational development activities (14.0%), knowledge, skill and value oriented education should be prioritized over an exam-oriented education (7.0%).

Table 12

Solutions Geography Teachers Proposed to the Problems They Have with Other Teachers

	Proposed Solutions to the Problems with Teachers	F	%
1	The school administration and group leaders should conduct observations and inspections to ensure that educational activities are based on the curriculum	22	28.6
2	The school administration should make plans according to a certain program for fair distribution of educational materials	18	23.4
3	The school administration should provide job descriptions and establish boundaries to avoid disagreements that arise during group activities	13	16.9
4	The school administration should carry out observations and inspections for the application of the decisions taken during meetings	10	12.9
5	Applied trainings should be organized to establish good communication with students and parents	7	9.1
6	Applied trainings should be organized on how to treat children with low academic level who exhibit unruly behavior	4	5.2

7	Minimum standards should be set for practices the measurement and evaluation works will be based on	3	3.9
	Total	**77**	**100**

The solutions geography teachers proposed for the problems they stated to have with other teachers are ranked as follows; the school administration and group leaders should conduct observations and inspections to ensure that educational activities are based on the curriculum (28.6%), the school administration should make plans according to a certain program for fair distribution of educational materials (23.4%), the school administration should provide job descriptions and establish boundaries to avoid disagreements that arise during group activities (16.9%), the school administration should carry out observations and inspections for the application of the decisions taken during meetings (12.9%).

Table 13

Solutions Geography Teachers Proposed to the Problems They Have with Students

	Proposed Solutions to the Problems with Students	F	%
1	Training classes should be organized to improve students' academic levels	122	27.8
2	Teachers should utilize student-oriented active learning methods and techniques to stimulate students' interest in courses	90	20.5
3	Award and punishment method should be used to ensure that students bring materials to in-class and out-of-class activities	52	11.9
4	Teachers should provide students with encouraging and fun exercises to ensure that they come to the class prepared	48	11.0
5	School guidance service should carry out identification and rehabilitation efforts to eliminate behavioral disorders among students	40	9.2
6	The school administration should turn the school into a center of attraction by organizing social, cultural and athleticism activities to boost students' sense of belonging towards school and education	32	7.3
7	The school guidance service should take measures to ensure that the differences in students' academical, social, economic and cultural levels do not conflict with the school culture	30	6.8
8	The school guidance service and teachers should organize various social and cultural activities to ensure that parents pay more attention to their children	24	5.5
	Total	**440**	**100**

The highest-ranking solutions geography teachers proposed for the problems they stated to have with students are as follows; training classes should be organized to improve students' academic levels (27.8%), teachers should utilize student-oriented active learning methods and techniques to stimulate students' interest in courses (20.5%) award and punishment method should be used to ensure that students bring materials to in-class and out-of-class activities (11.9%). These are ensued by the following proposed solutions; teachers should provide students with encouraging and fun exercises to ensure that they come to the class prepared (11.0%), school guidance service should carry out identification and rehabilitation efforts to eliminate behavioral disorders among students (9.2%), the school administration should turn the school into a center of attraction by

organizing social, cultural and athleticism activities to boost students' sense of belonging towards school and education (7.3%), the school guidance service should take measures to ensure that the differences in students' academical, social, economic and cultural levels do not conflict with the school culture (6.8%), the school guidance service and teachers

should organize various social an cultural activities to ensure that parents pay more attention to their children (5.5%).

Table 14

Solutions Geography Teachers Proposed to the Problems They Have with Parents

	Proposed Solutions to the Problems with Parents	F	%
1	The school administration and guidance service should organize different periodic activities to stimulate students' interest in education and training	80	22.8
2	Teachers and the school guidance service should organize meetings and family visits aimed at parents to inform them about the direct and indirect effects of consolidating courses and activities at home on children's development.	70	19.9
3	Meetings and events should be enriched with encouraging and fun activities to ensure parents' participation in meetings and events	54	15.3
4	Parents should be provided with evidence-based applied trainings to inform them about the necessary practices towards improving children's academic level	47	13.4
5	Experts should provide face-to-face training to families to inform them about the necessary practices towards winning over the children with behavioral disorders who are disinterested in school and education	42	11.8
6	Families should be provided applied trainings assisted with demonstrations to inform them about the possible/necessary practices towards ensuring a qualified education for their children	34	9.6
7	Families should be informed about the timely obtainment of the materials necessary for their children's development	22	6.2
	Total	**351**	**100**

The highest ranking solutions geography teachers proposed for the problems they stated to have with students are as follows; the school administration and guidance service should organize different periodic activities to stimulate students' interest in education and training (22.8%), Teachers and the school guidance service should organize meetings and family visits aimed at parents to inform them about the direct and indirect effects of consolidating courses and activities at home on children's development (19.9%). These are ensued by the following proposed solutions; Meetings and events should be enriched with encouraging and fun activities to ensure parents' participation in meetings and events (15.3%), parents should be provided with evidence-based applied trainings to inform them about the necessary practices towards improving children's academic level (13.4%), experts should provide face-to-face training to families to inform them about the necessary practices towards winning over the children with behavioral disorders who are disinterested in school and education (11.8%), families should be provided applied trainings assisted with demonstrations to inform them about the possible/necessary practices towards ensuring a qualified education for their children (9.6%), Families should be informed about the timely obtainment of the materials necessary

for their children's development (6.2%).

Results and Discussion

It is a fact that in Turkey, the profession of teaching is carried out under difficult conditions, and it is a fact that everybody agrees on a neutral side. In the literature survey conducted in Turkey on teacher problems, there were many studies on teachers ' problems like (MEB, 1982; MEB, 1982a; Tekışık, 1986; Afşin, 1988; Güler, 1999; Yapıcı, 2003; Taneri, 2004; Maraşlı, 2007; Karabulut, 2007; Aydın, 2008; Aydın, 2009; Bozpolat, 2009; Ekinci, 2010; Sarı, 2011; Geçer ve Özel, 2012; Demir ve Arı, 2013; Polat, 2014; Öztürk, Kaya ve Durmaz, 2015), many studies have been carried out on geography teaching and problems. When these studies are examined, the titles are drawn attention like “Geography teaching and problems in higher education institutions during the Republican period” of Koçman (1999), Kayan (2000)'s “geography Education in Turkish universities”, Şahin (2001)'s “a research on the Vocational problems of secondary education teachers”and Şahin (2003)'s “geography teaching in Turkey", problems and solutions", “the effectiveness and problems of Geography Education” of Akınoğlu (2005); "the satisfaction of the work of the Geography teachers in secondary education institutions" of Duman (2006); "the problems of geography education in teacher education in Turkey" of Gökçe (2009); "the stress resources of the Geography teachers" in Kaya and Alim (2015), but a study on the problems experienced by Geography teachers during the practice of their profession could not be reached.

The results obtained in this research with the participation of the 2012 geography teacher in order to determine the work that needs to be done in order to solve the problems experienced by the geography teachers while performing their professions are listed below:

While 56.6% of geography teachers stated that they had problems with school management and 42.5% said that they did not have problems, 0.9% said that they did not. According to this finding, it can be concluded that one of the two geography teachers had problems with school administration.

Thirteen problems were identified in which geography teachers lived with school administration while doing their jobs. Among the problems experienced are that school management does not have knowledge about geography education program, 26.8% was first ranked, while it was followed by the lack of interest and indifference of school management to the activities required for effective geography teaching, 16.9% of school management did not meet the teaching materials required for qualified education and teaching, 15.9% of school management.

Geography teachers have developed twelve proposals to solve problems they face with school management. Among the solution proposals developed, education for educational managers was first with 23.4%, and managers for

qualified education and training should meet the need for teaching materials 18.3%, should allow school administration for planned activities for effective geography education, should provide participation and should support 16.4%, managers should grant permission to participate in personal and professional development activities 14.0%.

30.2% of geography teachers had problems with teachers and 69% stated that they did not have problems. According to this finding, about two-thirds of the geography teachers who participated in the survey did not have problems with the teachers.

The problems that geography teachers experienced with their colleagues were grouped under seven headings. Geography teachers in the problems they experienced with their colleagues, while the course book was the first place with 25.5% instead of the teaching program, it was followed by 19.6%, and differences in ideas arising from mass activities 17.6%, and 13.7% of the decisions taken in meetings were not implemented.

Geography teachers have developed seven recommendations for solving their problems with their colleagues. In order to make sure that the school management and the district heads are in the first place with 28.6%, school management should plan for the fair sharing of teaching materials within a certain program 23.4%, defining the boundaries by defining the definitions of the school management duties in order to avoid the differences in the public activities 16.9%. For the implementation of the decisions taken in the meetings, the school administration's supervision and monitoring is indicated as 12.9%.

56.6% of geography teachers stated that they had problems with students and 43.4% said that they did not have problems. According to this finding, one of the two geography teachers who participated in the study had no problems with the students.

Eight problems that geography teachers experienced with their students were identified while performing their professions. Among the problems experienced, the students 'academic levels were low with 25.7%, while the students' interest in the lesson was low with 17.4%, the teachers ' materials were not brought to the in-class and out-of- class activities and 13.4%, the students were unprepared to the class and 11.7% from the study.

Geography teachers have developed eight solutions to solve problems they have experienced with students. Among the proposed solutions, 27.8% of the courses were placed in the first place, while 20.5% of the teachers' student-centred active learning methods and techniques to increase the interest of their students in the courses, and 11.9% of the awards and penalties for bringing teaching materials to in-class and out-of-class activities were given. 11.0% of the teachers have given the students fun activities that encourage them to come prepared for the lesson.

66.0% of geography teachers stated that they had problems with parents and 34.0% said that they did not have problems. According to this finding, about two-thirds of the geography teachers who participated in the survey had problems with their parents.

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Seven problems have been identified in which geography teachers live with parents. In the problems faced with parents, the lack of parents ' education and education was the first with 24.9%, followed by the lack of support of classes and schools at home, 20.1% of participation in meetings and activities, 18.6% of participation in meetings and activities, and 13.2% of the necessary materials for children's development were not removed on time.

Geography teachers, the suggestions they developed to solve the problems they experienced with parents were grouped under seven items. Among the solution proposals developed, the school management and guidance service periodically organizesdifferent studies to increase parents 'interest in education and education with 22.8%, while it is stated as 19.9% of the meetings and family visits that describe the direct effects of the teacher and school guidance service on the development of the parents' courses and activities. In order to ensure parents ' participation in meetings and activities, the enrichment of meetings and activities with stimulating fun activities is set to 15.3%. 13.4% of the parents were given evidence-based applied training on the studies to improve the academic level of children.

The results of the research draw attention to various problems in teacher training, geography education, learning-teaching environment. Some scientific studies that support the results of the study explain the problems of the learning-teaching environment in geography education as follows: classroom environments are not suitable for geography education. There are no geography classrooms. There is not enough equipment and equipment to be used in geography courses in classrooms. Classes are crowded and physical conditions are bad. Teachers cannot create interesting learning environments. (Akınoğlu, 2005; Güngördü, 2002; Koçman ve Sütgibi, 2004; Öztürk, 2002; Sekin ve Ünlü, 2002).

The lack of the teaching materials required for qualified education and instruction by the school administration causes various problems in geography education for the learning-teaching environment. Some scientific studies that support this situation explain the problems of the learning-teaching environment in geography education as follows: classroom environments are not suitable for geography education. There are no geography classrooms. There is not enough equipment and equipment to be used in geography courses in classrooms. Classes are crowded and physical conditions are bad. Teachers cannot create interesting learning environments (Akınoğlu, 2005; Güngördü, 2002; Koçman ve Sutgıbı, 2004; Öztürk, 2002; Sekin ve Ünlü, 2002; Gökçe, 2009). The suggestions developed for this proposed solution for learning-teaching environment are supported by a large number of scientific studies. Research should address the needs of school administrations in such a way as to enable teachers to remove geography, statistics and memorabilia by presenting the richness of the learning-teaching environment with tools, technical equipment, geography classrooms and laboratories for qualified geography education. (Akengin ve Kayalı, 2003; Akınoğlu, 2005; Bednarz, Burkill, Lidstone, & Rawling, 2000; Campbell, 2007; Cohen et al., 2004; Healey, 2003; Svingen, 1994).

Suggestions

In line with the findings and results obtained in the research, the following suggestions are given:

Provincial Directorate of National Education should conduct periodic research in order to determine the problems experienced by teachers in performing their professions and the work to be done in order to eliminate these problems. Training staff should organize

practical trainings supported by case studies to improve conflict management, problem solving and communication skills.

Teachers should be encouraged to attend various courses, seminars, symposiums and meetings for personal and professional development. Legal arrangements should be made for granting the necessary permits. Educational institutions managers should consider teachers ' views more so as not to eliminate and repeat the problems that teachers face and adopt a democratic participatory management approach that supports them to implement the work they offer.

Within the Provincial / District National Education directorates, the units where experts can be consulted should be established. In order to make qualified education taking into consideration the courses and teaching programs, the necessary teaching materials must be met in a timely and complete manner. School-based development programs should be developed in order to increase school membership and to ensure that children with inadequate academic levels, adaptation to school and behavioral problems have the same level of access to their peers.

In order to increase the interest of parents in education, meetings should be organized to encourage participation in the school to transform the school into a center of attraction in harmony with the socio-cultural environment in which the school is located. School administrators should take measures to increase the interest and motivation of their students for teachers to use student-centred active learning methods and techniques.

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