This study showed how narratives permeate teacher knowledge and are essential to understand teachers' work and learning. It focuses on the characteristics of the teaching profession that are both revealed and constructed in the activity of conversation. The main interest of the study was to reveal new layers of meaning and to uncover interactional relationships involved in them. The study treated teachers' pedagogical knowledge as a broad theoretical concept and as an extended practice. This type of knowledge is characterized as active processes by which teachers perform their duties in situations involving intense social interactions. The study, in which interviews were held with 29 elementary school teachers in Finland, provided a plausible and systematic account of how narrative knowledge construction works. It presents a concrete approach to analyze teachers' narratives, providing step-by-step guidance to uncover and document meaningful patterns of transcribed narrative data. This relational account of pedagogical knowledge construction focuses on the personal, social, and cultural contexts in teachers' working and learning environments. The approach enables teachers better to understand the endeavors in which they are involved. (Contains 1 figure, 2 tables, and 47 references.) (Author/SLD)
‘TELL ME ABOUT YOUR WORK AND I TELL YOU ABOUT YOUR KNOWLEDGE’ - CONSTRUCTING TEACHER KNOWLEDGE BASED ON PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES

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‘TELL ME ABOUT YOUR WORK AND I TELL YOU ABOUT YOUR KNOWLEDGE’ —
CONSTRUCTING TEACHER KNOWLEDGE BASED ON PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES

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ABSTRACT This paper shows how narratives permeate teacher knowledge and are essential to understand teachers’ work and learning. It focuses on the characteristics of teaching profession that are both revealed and constructed in the activity of conversation. The main interest of the study is to reveal new layers of meaning and to uncover interactional relationships involved in them. The paper treats teachers’ pedagogical knowledge as a broad theoretical concept and as an extended practice. This type of knowing is characterized as active process by which teachers perform their duties in situations involving intense social interactions. The study provides a plausible and systematic account of how narrative knowledge construction works. It presents a concrete approach to analyze teachers’ narratives — providing step-by-step guidance to uncover and document meaningful patterns of transcribed narrative data. This relational account of pedagogical knowledge construction focuses on the personal, social, and cultural contexts in teachers’ working and learning environments. The approach enables teachers better to understand the endeavors in which they are involved.

INTRODUCTION

In this paper I advocate explicitly for teaching perspective and practicing teachers about the content and the form of their pedagogical knowledge. I struggle to make visible how teachers’ pedagogical knowledge informs their work and shapes their identities as teachers. This is because teachers at all levels need to develop and understanding of how they know and act in the ways they do.

Recently, a growing number of educational scholars have shifted their attention on teacher knowledge away from the individual perspective and have begun to explore teacher knowledge as socially negotiated (Britzman, 1991; Freeman, 1996; Wortham, 2001; Miller Marsh, 2002; Husu, 2002). The perspective aims to understand how discourses work in and through teachers to position themselves in their profession. Here, discourses are defined as frameworks for thought and action that teachers draw upon in order to speak and interact with others in meaningful ways.
Discourses are historically, culturally, and socially generated patterns of thinking and acting that are sanctioned by a particular group of people (Fairclough, 1989; Gee, 1996). Within professions, they are authorized by their distinct 'professional code'. This paper aims to show how teachers shape and are shaped by the narrative discourses that are available to them. Discourses have meaning only in relation to one other (Gee, 1996). From this perspective, teaching can be defined as a relational phenomenon that is continually being constituted and reconstituted as teachers move in and out of particular set of relations. This perspective provides teachers with multiple ways to position themselves in relations to people, actions, and ideas within school settings.

The stance presupposes exploring day-to-day details of pedagogical encounters to see what they might offer in putting forth an understanding of teachers' pedagogical knowledge. To explore this idea necessitates interpreting pedagogical encounters for the way they promote or prohibit conditions for teachers' knowledge. In this effort, it is necessary to pay attention to the nature of 'educational practice' and the distinctive language through which such a practice can be understood and evaluated.

The task of this paper is to examine larger issues related to teacher knowledge. First, the target of these remarks is the families of content (representational analysis) that make up the substance of narratives of teacher knowledge. Second, the study aims to direct our attention to the multiple assumptions (presentational analysis) that underlie the substance and structure of narratives in teacher knowledge. Overall, the purpose is to uncover often-unexamined assumptions about what teacher knowledge is made of and how it works? The argument here is that these perspectives can have consequences for how to think about the form and the content of teacher knowledge and its' development.

NARRATIVE AND PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE AS AN INTERPRETATION

What does it mean to be 'practical'?
Before going into a more detailed description of the methodological issues, a clarification of what is meant by 'practical' is helpful. This is because the concept is little understood (van Manen, 1977; Reid 1979, 1999; Waks, 2000), despite the fact that we tend to think that what teachers simply do is practical. However, by using Schwab's (1969, 1971) idea of the practical, the concept includes more than meets the eye. Here, the focus is on two characteristics of the practical (Reid, 1999) that relate to fundamental differences between commonsense notions of what practical is, and the conception of practical as it is understood and applied in this paper.
First, teachers’ work is largely viewed as involving the utilization of resources and the application of skills. If we discuss how teaching is to be improved, we would most likely engage in thinking of needed resources of all kinds (professional skills, materials, funding etc.). However, according to the ‘Schwabian’ tradition and perspective, practical depends primarily not on resources and skills, but on tradition and character. Therefore, discussions of the improvement of practice need primarily to be discussions of how tradition is to be shaped and how character is to be formed. This is because the ability to exercise deliberation depends on the traits of character.

Second, we tend to see practical as value-free, the idea that teaching consists simply of discovering ‘what works.’ In this view, what teachers do (i.e. their practices) is simply a matter of technical know-how. According to this short-sighted stance, there are various means of achieving certain ends - e.g. making teaching more caring - and the choice between them is just a matter of which methods are most effective in producing the desired results. But if tradition and character are considered as important factors in achieving caring relations between teachers and students, then we have to accept the notion that tradition and character are more than the product of experiences of what works. Practical supports and sympathizes with “certain kinds of actions on the basis of what communities and individuals value” (Reid, 1999, p. 13). Therefore, notions of practical are deeply influenced by social and cultural considerations. This, in turn, implies that as we confront practical problems, we also face with problems of moral choice.

**What does it mean to be ‘pedagogical’?**

Teachers and students are not free to do whatever they want; there are certain responsibilities and duties that come along with the educational context. Teachers’ work is carried out within schools, and with these institutions come certain aims and goals to direct the process. The term ‘pedagogical’ refers to this bounded system, and it is accompanied with certain values. Teachers and students are expected to act according with these values.

Pedagogical also means taking stands. In educational contexts acting means making decisions continuously, and it also means choosing between competing alternatives in order to arrive at a certain result. Educational decisions need also some criteria. However, it is important to note that not all criteria can be stated explicitly. In fact, the pervasiveness of pedagogical situations (Husu, 2002) implies that a great deal of teaching depends on teachers’ personal presence and their perceptiveness of what to do in various contingent situations. Usually, teachers are so involved in their activities that they cannot experience themselves as separate from those activities. According to Roth *et al.* (2001), they relate to their work in such a manner that there is no longer a
teacher that experiences her-/himself "in an objectified world - there is only enacting performance that constitutes an event" (p. 185).

Pedagogical judgement can be understood as an ongoing aspect of teachers’ daily work. Here, what matters for teachers is to keep open the question of what they ought to do in any particular situation. Broadly speaking, the ‘pedagogical’ is their answer(s) to the question of ‘How should teachers live and act in their work?’

**How does narrative mean?**

From a pedagogical standpoint, teachers live narrative lives and know narrative mode of knowing (Bruner, 1986). As Sarbin (1986) states, they “think, perceive, imagine, and make moral choices according to narrative structures” (p. 8). This means that teachers tend to interpret their work by weaving comprehensive - and largely implicit - frameworks in which “the incidents, people, actions, emotions, ideas, and settings are brought together, inter-related, and situated” (Doyle & Carter, 2003, p. 130). Within these frameworks, teachers sort through their experiences and construct sensible renderings based on their personal histories and settings. In this process, ‘little things can make a big difference’ (Gladwell, 2002) because usually teachers are not able to bring theories that organize their knowledge in terms of relationships. When teachers try to make sense of their work they often use the storied version of their experiences as the basis for their reflection. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate teacher narratives within which their knowledge and understandings are embedded.

Narrative inquiry is considered as especially suited to get in touch with practical knowledge. White (1981) considers it as a solution to a problem of “how to translate knowing into telling” (p. 1, original emphasis). Lakoff & Johnston (1980), in turn, argue that most of our abstract concepts are organized in terms of common metaphors and narratives which are rooted in our experiences. As a result, they can serve as a vehicle for understanding and can help us to uncover such qualities in practice that often tend to get lost. Epistemologically, the person her-/herself is the primary holder of her/his knowledge (Tirri, Husu, Kansanen, 1999). An individual ‘dwells in’ her/his narrative knowing and is only subsidiary aware of it as her/his attention is focused on its use. The person tends to attend to what is thought and not to the mode of knowing by which s/he does her/his thinking.

For this reason, Connelly & Clandinin (1985) argue, three consequences arise: first, the user’s goal is usually to “put the modes of knowing out of ‘sight’” (p. 182). The more effective the narrative tool is, the less the user attends to it. It is submerged in her/his awareness and its multiple uses depend on particularity of situations. This situatedness highlights the second character of narrative understanding. As Schutz (1970) puts it, due to our ‘natural attitude’ to our life-world, all our modes of knowing
are ‘on hand’ in our inquiries. Thus, narrative provides a loose frame of reference as a producer and transmitter of our knowing. Third, our narrative modes of knowing “are always ‘on call’” (Connelly & Clandinin, 1985, p. 183, original emphasis). A user does not mobilize her/his modes of knowing in the sense that she/he applies certain conscious strategies or specific rules and guidelines. This clarity is lost and has to be reconstructed out of a person’s narrative.

The process of reconstruction is complex, partly because its results do not ‘prove’ anything, they only incline (Buchmann, 1987a, Buchmann & Floden, 1993); partly because our search for ‘explanations’ or ‘conceptions’ tend to simultaneously implicate ‘other’ explanations and ‘better’ conceptions. When we have identified an act or event as fitting a certain interpretation, the identification “slips away” in the midst of other competing interpretations. For instance, a teacher helping a student during a lesson turns out, among other things, to be acting ‘interpersonally’ (going from student to student), ‘intuitively’ (it is her/his ‘gut reaction’ when someone has problems with her/his studying), ‘formally’ (it is a teacher’s task to guide her/his students’ schoolwork), or ‘ethically’ (a teacher has a caring relation to this particular student). The same content can be understood and interpreted in quite different ways. Each of these interpretations often has certain limitations that simultaneously exclude other possible understandings. Indeed, an event may be a proper blend of all of the possible interpretations.

Thus, narrative representations are often open-ended, experiential, and quest-like qualities by their nature (Conle, 2000). A narrative resists singular interpretation. As Doyle & Carter (2003) summarize, narratives capture “indeterminacy and interconnectedness in ways that defy formalistic expression and expand the possibilities for interpretation and understanding” (p. 130). Narrative interpretations direct our attention to the multiple assumptions that underlie the substance and the structure of teacher knowledge. According to Doyle & Carter (ibid.), they suggest that “the knowledge base for teaching resides in the stories of experience as a teacher.” (p. 134, original emphasis). Teacher knowledge is apprehended as elements of experience. Hence, the performance as a teacher emerges as central organizing element in the issues of teacher knowledge.

TWO WAYS TO ANALYSE TEACHERS’ NARRATIVES

In order to understand how teacher knowledge is positioned in narrative discourses, we need approaches that can give us a better view of teacher knowledge in its pedagogical contexts. This chapter examines the assumptions that underlie in the studies of teacher knowledge. Based on the work of Freeman (1994, 1996), it proposes an integrated
approach that uses complementary ways to develop a fuller understanding of teacher knowledge in its social contexts. Also, it shows the ways in which teacher knowledge evolves, and the role that the research process plays in shaping the data as it is analyzed.

The first way: representational analysis - narratives of action
As Freeman (1994) states, any study of what teachers know depends on the analysis of what they say: “[t]his relationship between the inner world of the teacher and the language which the teachers uses to express that world has provided the foundation for the study of teachers’ knowledge” (p. 77). Within the stance, words are taken as providing a vehicle for thought, and teachers are usually ‘taken at their word’ (Freeman, 1996). Teachers’ words are taken for their capacity to reveal their knowledge and therefore “to represent their thinking” (ibid., p. 734, original emphasis). What teachers know can be seen in the language they use in interviews or in the written documents they produce.

The basic methodological challenge of this research mode is to “get inside teachers’ heads” (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986), to gain access to their views, perceptions, and understandings. In the use of narrative, this kind of representational analysis argues to be a natural one (Bruner, 1990), expressed in extended passages of language data. It is hoped that within these passages of language data the boundaries between a teacher’s background, classroom practice, and professional knowledge merge into an integrated whole. This type of analysis also draws upon often unrecognized and undervalued forms of teacher knowledge and knowing (cf. Carter, 1993; Elbaz, 1991; Tirri, Husu & Kansanen, 1999, Husu, 2002). The perspective has emphasized coherence and its devices are intended to integrate teachers’ words, actions, and classroom environment into a jointly interpreted whole (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). Within the stance, the use of narratives has diversified the landscape to be studied and introduced new means of doing so.

Data analysis
The present study used narrative interview as a research tool in order to investigate teachers’ pedagogical knowledge. Twenty-nine elementary school teachers, 20 females and 9 males were interviewed. The duration of each interview was approximately one and a half to two hours (per teacher). Interviews were conducted by the author. All the interviews were conducted in Finnish and tape-recorded. Rough transcriptions of the interview data produced approximately 350 pages of text. Later, five interview texts were re-transcribed and translated in English for more detailed analysis.
The representational analysis consisted of five stages. Each of them aimed to present a higher level of generality. In the first stage of the analysis certain patterns emerged and the first broad outlines of the phenomenon became visible. This stage involved numerous readings of the transcripts. Step by step I responded to meaningful 'chunks' of the transcripts. In this phase, these 'chunks' of the data or narrative segments were treated on their own terms, ignoring their possible relationships to other parts of the texts.

In the second stage, the object was to go beyond the original form of the narrative segments until their implications and possibilities were more fully played out. Each segment worked as a kind of lens through which the transcript could be further examined. When this was done, the narrative segments were examined according to the literature (cf. Kansanen et al., 2000).

In the third stage, the narrative segments were again developed on their own accord and in relation to other segments. Gradually, a process of refinement ensued and a field of patterns and utterances emerged. These tentative findings made the scene of analysis less 'crowded' and clearer. Here, I speculated in a “better organized, more exacting context” (McCracken 1988, p. 45). ‘Speculation’ involved playing with possibilities of interpretation: with them, I was able to go beyond the narrative segments and make some tentative conceptualizations concerning the investigated phenomena.

During the fourth stage I moved into conceptual analysis where I began to focus my attention on the constellations of narrative segments in order to sort out the general utterances implicit in them. Having established the narrative segments, the next step was to interpret what they generally meant. The process was both deductive and inductive. It was deductive in the sense that the interpretation was partly based on the literature (cf. Kansanen et al., 2000). The process was inductive in the sense that it relied on local coherence within the narrative segments under consideration (Mishler, 1986, 1990).

The fifth stage of the analysis called for a review of the decisions made in the previous stages of the analysis. At this level, I was no longer concerned with the particulars of the individual teacher but about the general properties of her/his pedagogical thought and action. Furthermore, I was no longer describing the situations as the respondents personally saw them. Instead, I was presenting teachers' pedagogical situations as they appeared to me from the perspective of the narrative interpretation. Table 1. shows a short example of the representational analysis and the interpretation of the utterances:
Table 1. An excerpt of the representational analysis of a narrative interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NARRATIVE TEXT: the words</th>
<th>INTERPRETATION: what do the words mean?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer: Tell me about your work is this school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher: In this school I have a feeling that I am going somewhere. Here we are constantly developing our curriculum and updating our aims and projects. So far, I can say from my own experience that as a teacher you have many ways to do things, and there's not just &quot;the one and only way&quot; to do them.</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have found that very inspiring. This has given me a kind of a boost to try out some new things in my work that I have learned from my colleagues. For example, they have encouraged me to base my teaching more on constructivist principles and student initiatives and less on textbook-based routines. I am also eager to participate in some of my colleagues' teaching projects and get the chance to learn new ways of teaching.</td>
<td>Teacher: teaching &amp; professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I also find it very rewarding that my professional growth as a teacher doesn't depend solely on me any more. My colleagues share their knowledge and experience and they update my &quot;tool kit,&quot; which is great because school life is filled with so many tasks and duties.</td>
<td>Professional self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be able to create the kind of atmosphere that gives my students a feeling that they are safe: &quot;School without tears&quot;-- that's my slogan. I see it as my professional task to be able to create the kind of good and enjoyable safe place where my students can spend their schooldays.</td>
<td>Students: studying &amp; learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That's the key element in my professional attitude that has to be taken into consideration whatever I do in my classroom: the feeling that school should be enjoyable for all students in my classroom. And when I reflect on my teaching career, this has not always been an easy thing to do.</td>
<td>Professional self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have had a lot of students in my classes whom I had regarded as &quot;weak&quot; students, or as &quot;difficult&quot; students-- whatever those definitions mean. At any rate, I use those terms to describe the great diversity of students I have had during my teaching career.</td>
<td>Students: studying &amp; learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Basically, teachers talked about three issues: their teaching work, their students, and themselves as teachers. The issues were not separate, instead teachers tend to discuss them in quite an integrative manner. In the teachers' narratives, those three themes could often be heard simultaneously: when teachers were talking about their teaching, at the same time, they told things about their students and about their own character as a teacher. This indicated that these utterances were at least partly patterned or organized. Using these three categories the data could be re-read in a way that gave it more coherence and made it more explicit.

**Teaching** was treated as very broad concept. Teaching was not simply what happened in schools and classrooms. It involved the facilitation and promotion of change in others, and also in teachers themselves. The changes involved combinations of learning contents such as intellectual skills, virtues, habits of mind, appropriate social behaviour, new teaching and learning practices, etc. Generally, teachers' statements were closely related to their personal views of teaching, i.e. what was regarded as good teaching. Within this process, teachers' actions and intentions also became part of their professional learning.

Teachers could not talk about their teaching without talking about their students. Students practically defined teachers' teaching by their classroom activities and behaviour. These utterances seemed to be nearly inseparable. This is because teaching is the activity of teachers and studying is the activity of students. Similarly, studying and learning were treated as very broad concepts. By using the concepts of teaching and studying the instructional process could be understood as active on behalf of both sides (Kansanen et al., 2000). It is the active part of the teacher's intention to teach and the student's intention to study which both reflected in the teachers' narratives.

Teachers' talk was closely related with themselves as teachers. Most representational utterances of the data were imbued by this personal tone of teachers' professional selves. Here, the question of how the teacher described her-/himself as a teacher seemed to be of great importance. These self-descriptions were often formulated in terms of professional ideals that the teachers wanted to accomplish.

Frequently, the practical school contexts put severe pressures on these teachers' high hopes. Everything that was regarded as 'good' could not be done, and many things teachers personally disliked had to be done. No matter what the teacher's personal and professional commitments, each teacher was strongly affected by her/his school context. Accordingly, students brought their own life contexts into school. Their personal joys and family problems were embedded in their behaviour, and therefore, became an integral part of teachers' professional practices. Figure 1 shows the framework of representational utterances that the analysis produced:
From representational analysis it emerged that all the concepts used are broad frames. They were, in part, interactional concepts through which teachers can recognize themselves as certain sorts of professionals. However, they should not be interpreted as 'fixed' or 'natural categories' that are rooted in teachers' capabilities and abilities. Instead, their fluid and loose character is essential. The purpose was to provide a generalizable structure that could be used as a working tool for the representational analysis. The framework provides a particular vantage point which can be called a perception. A perception is always a partial, incomplete view of something that we cannot (ever) know fully. Actually, the word and the concept of 'theorizing' comes from the Greek word theorein meaning 'to perceive,' 'to be able to look at' (Webster, 1985).

Another way to look at the results of the representational analysis is by way of Weber's notion of 'ideal type' (Coser, 1977; van Manen, 1977). The starting point of the ideal type is that no interpretative system is ever capable of reproducing reality in its entirely, nor can any conceptual framework ever do full justice to the utmost diversity of a particular phenomena. All techniques of analysis involve selection as well as abstraction. Here, the danger lies in two directions. First, if we use very general concepts they might leave out what is most distinctive to the phenomenon in question. Second, if we prefer very narrow concepts they do not allow any room for comparison with related phenomena. Representational analysis was meant to provide an answer to this dilemma. It was created by means of a one-sided emphasis and intensification of one or more points of view and by synthesis of a great many diffuse and individual phenomena, which were then arranged into a unified construct (cf. Coser, 1977, p. 223). The framework was used as a descriptive device usable both as a tool for classification and as an instrument for understanding teachers' pedagogical knowledge.
The second way: presentational analysis - narratives in action

As Freeman (1994) states, the presentational view of language data is necessary in order to more fully understand the concealed relationships and social contexts that teacher knowledge embodies. The approach assumes that language is both the vehicle and the substance of teachers' meanings. These two dimensions are bound together and one cannot examine one without considering the other. To work with language data one must not look at only what is said but how it is said: how does the data mean? According to Freeman (1996), the stance aims to see teachers as participants in their own social systems where

[Language is a function of that participation. Words are not expressions of individuals, but rather statements of connection to and within these social systems. Language provides a map of these relationships. As research data, it offers entry into the interrelation of the individual user and the world. (p. 744).

The presentational view is based on the translinguistic view of voice (cf. Bahtin, 1981; Gee, 1990, 1996; Wertsch, 1991, 1998). It approaches language as a social system in which individuals participate and through which they are defined. Thus, the study of language data focuses on the relationships created within and through language, and the sources from which it is drawn. According to stance, voice is social, not individual. Here, it means that teachers' knowledge is constituted by the various voices available to them. Teachers' "communities of practice" (Freeman, 1999) are the places where their pedagogical knowledge comes into existence. In this social view, language is the fabric of relationships that constitutes teachers' pedagogical knowledge where

[Activities tasks, functions and understandings do not exist in isolation, they are part of broader systems of relations which they have meaning. These systems of relations arise out of and are reproduced and developed within social communities which are in part systems among persons. The person is defined by and defines these relations. Learning thus involves becoming a different person with respect to the possibilities enabled by these relations. (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 53; emphasis added)

Presentational analysis is an effort to uncover those relationships that can be found in a portion of language. In order to understand language data from this perspective, we must investigate where "the words come from, their sources, and how they are blended together" (Freeman, 1996, p. 749). Within this approach, teacher talk is examined for how it means by analyzing the relationships and the language sources from which those relationships are drawn. The aim of the analysis is that it can present long passages of data and show how teachers' thinking and reasoning occurs.
Data analysis

As the previous analysis indicated, the representational readings of the data show only the broad frames of teacher knowledge. When the same data is analyzed with a concern of contextual sensitivity of language, the resulting analysis shows how teachers' are revising and building their pedagogical knowledge. The integration of presentational analysis is a key to realizing how the utterances of the previous analysis are established through the data. The construction and development of those interpretative categories are charted through a close study of where "the words come from, their sources in the language of particular communities, [and] how those words are combined to invoke special voices, or relationships" (Freeman, 1996, p. 757).

The presentational analysis consists of three stages which have relevance for the analysis of teacher talk in institutional settings. First, the decisive feature of the presentational analysis is its activity focus. The analysis starts from a consideration of "the interactional accomplishments of particular social activities" (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 17, original emphasis). The analysis focuses on the social organization of actions that take place in some context. Thus, as Wortham (2001) argues, the understanding of representational utterances presupposes that they are viewed as "emerging within multivoiced conversations" (p. 161).

Second, this presupposes a detailed qualitative analysis of the data. According to Drew & Heritage (1992), it relies on the premise that "the sense of an utterance as an action is an interactive product of what was projected by a previous turns at talk and what the speaker actually does" (p. 18, original emphasis). The presentational analysis starts with units that a larger than the individual sentence or utterance. In the analysis, these units are conceived as sequences of activity.

Third, the interactional framework of the representational analysis provides an analytical tool for the presentational analysis. Within this framework, utterances and actions are context shaped. Their contributions to "an ongoing sequence of actions cannot be adequately understood except by reference to the context they participate" (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 18). Here, context refers both to the immediately local settings but also to the larger environments within which the activities are recognized to occur and make sense. This contextual aspect of the utterances is important at least for two reasons: first, speakers routinely draw upon their contexts as a resource in their utterances; second, hearers must also rely on those contexts in order to make sense of what is said in the utterances. Table 2. shows a short example of the presentational analysis of the data:
Table 2. An excerpt of the presentational analysis of the narrative interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NARRATIVE TEXT: the words</th>
<th>INTERPRETATION: where do the words come from?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer: Tell me about your work is this school?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01 Teacher: In this school</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02 I have a feeling that</td>
<td>Professional self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03 I am going somewhere.</td>
<td>Teacher: teaching &amp; professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04 Here we are constantly developing</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05 our curriculum and updating our aims and projects.</td>
<td>Teacher: teaching &amp; professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06 So far, I can say from my own experience that</td>
<td>Professional self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07 as a teacher you have many ways to do things, and there's not just “the one and only way” to do them.</td>
<td>Teacher: teaching &amp; professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08 I have found that very inspiring. This has given me a kind of a boost</td>
<td>Professional self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09 to try out some new things in my work</td>
<td>Teacher: teaching &amp; professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 that I have learned from my colleagues. For example, they have encouraged me</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to base my teaching more on constructivistic principles</td>
<td>Teacher: teaching &amp; professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 and student initiatives</td>
<td>Students: studying and learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 and less on textbook-based routines.</td>
<td>Teacher: teaching &amp; professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 I am also eager</td>
<td>Professional self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 to participate in some of my colleagues’ teaching projects and get the chance to learn new ways of teaching.</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Teacher: teaching &amp; professional learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it emerged, the basic forms of mundane teacher talk constitute a kind of target against which more formal and institutionalized types of teacher knowledge can be recognized. Thus, the study of teacher talk can offer a justified approach to
determine what is distinctive in their pedagogical knowledge. The high priority given to language and the co-construction of knowledge means that teacher learning takes place in situations when it is provided with opportunities to collaborate. As the two analyses show, the representational and presentational approaches are not mutually exclusive - rather, they inclusive nature is evident. Both acknowledge that there are important social dimensions in the process and development of teacher knowledge.

However, the nuances embedded within the presentational analysis revealed certain tensions inherent in the development and use of teacher knowledge. Five stand out: first, teachers' pedagogical knowledge is interactional and is shaped by the social, cultural, and historical contexts in which their work is done. Second, teacher knowledge is not a monolithic entity but is always in the process of emerging. Pedagogical knowing does not occur in a linear fashion and through distinctly defined stages. Third, professional knowledge and professional development are recursive; they can happen jointly or one can happen in advance of the other. Fourth, the school context is responsible for providing supportive interactions for the teachers in their processes of learning and development. Fifth, within this development, teachers use all those who interact socially with them in other contexts through which they move as resources. (cf. Miller Marsh, 2002) In sum, the presentational analysis permits us to look more carefully at every individual teacher and see how her/his knowledge shifts as s/he is positioned within her/his practical settings.

DISCUSSION: PEDAGOGICAL ACTION AS JOINTACTION

The integration of representational and presentational analyses gives us a possibility to trace how teachers are constructing their pedagogical knowledge. Together, as Freeman (1996, p. 758) argues, these two analyses can move us beyond simply documenting teachers 'mental lives' to mapping out how their knowledge evolves and what influences the development of that knowledge. We can also investigate more closely what creates changes in teachers' knowledge and the processes by which such changes are happening.

This opens new possibilities to study the development and changes in teachers' professional learning. These twin analyses can be used as tools for interpreting and understanding the construction of teachers' pedagogical knowledge. Shotter (1993, p. 18) speaks about "the knowing of the third kind", which directs attention from a focus upon how teachers understand and apply educational theories and principles to how they understand themselves and others in their practical settings. The stance focuses upon teachers' use of certain ways of talking to construct their knowledge. Within this
flow of responsive and relational knowing, socially significant dimensions of interaction originate and are formed. Teachers’ responsive understanding of each other is the important issue. This kind of rhetorical-responsive view (Shotter, 1993) between teachers in their socially constituted situations, not just the teachers themselves, structures what teachers do and know. Attention to these processes reveals a complex and uncertain process of testing and checking teacher knowledge issues.

As presented, the social context of teaching is not teachers’ personal property. Rather, it is “out there” as an interpersonal domain that vastly constitutes both teachers’ professional practice and their knowledge of that practice. Buchmann (1987b) has used the phrase “the knowledge teachers live by” to indicate the lack of clarity about much of what teachers know as professionally-special to them. This situation is special in the sense that the knowledge teachers employ cannot be considered highly different by character or degree from ordinary knowledge or common sense. Simply, teachers acquire much knowledge by their participation in various pervasive cultural patterns of education and schooling. Sociological studies of the teaching profession have illuminated this “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975), the social adaptation of professional practices and beliefs.

This does not mean to belittle teachers’ professional knowledge. Rather, it suggests that the knowledge teachers use cannot be placed on either side of the divide between specialized knowledge which particular individuals need in their occupational roles and common knowledge which all adult individuals need as members of the community. In this sense Shotter (1993, p. 39) speaks about “joint action.” It occurs in a “zone of uncertainty” and it has two major features, which he states in the following way:

1) [a]s people coordinate their activity with the activities of others, and ‘respond’ to them in what they do, what they as individuals desire and what actually results in their exchanges are often two very different things. In short, their joint action produces unintended and unpredicted outcomes. These generate a ‘situation,’ or an ‘organized practical-moral setting’ existing between all the participants.

2) Although such a setting is unintended by any of the individuals within it, it nonetheless has an intentional quality to it: it seems both to have a ‘content,’ as well as to ‘indicate’ or to be ‘related to something other than beyond itself;’ that is, participants find themselves immersed ‘in’ an already given situation, but one with a horizon to it, that makes it ‘open’ to their actions. (ibid., original emphasis)
In sum, the study of teacher knowledge aims to understand teachers’ thought processes and relate them to the practical contexts in which they are formed and expressed. From this perspective, it gives both credence and importance to the teachers’ personal commitments, meanings and positions they take up. As presented, teachers operate with the meanings available to them in their practical settings and they organize their behavior in the light of those meanings. Therefore, we need to see teacher knowledge as a dynamic activity, as knowing. Within this process, teachers are positioned in a range of interacting discourses. From those possibilities teachers make available, they attempt to fashion relatively integrated and coherent knowledge base for their pedagogical practices.

References


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