
A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education (Ed D)

by

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Abstract

This study adopted an interpretive qualitative approach, using narrative inquiry to understand the experiences of early career physical education (PE) teachers who took ‘risks’ during their training year, and who had been teaching in schools. Narrative interviews were conducted with nine PE teachers who had engaged with a Risk-Taking Professional Development Programme (PDP) during their training year and who had been teaching for between two months and five years. Interviews explored the meanings, definitions and influences that participants ascribed to risk taking from their memories of the training year and once they began teaching in schools.

The focus of the study emerged because in my role as a PE teacher trainer, I designed the Risk-Taking PDP to challenge trainee PE teachers to reflect critically upon their teaching and pupil learning and, move beyond their comfortable practices. Inspiration was taken from the Office for Standards in Education outstanding descriptor at that time, to ‘Take risks when trying to make teaching interesting, be able to deal with the unexpected and grab the moment’ (Ofsted, 2008, p. 1). The Risk-Taking PDP became a core component of the PE Teacher Training course in one UK Higher Education Institution (HEI) and was delivered to over 100 PE trainee teachers.

An interpretive analysis located overlapping and interlocking themes which closely represented illuminative epiphanies (Denzin, 2001). Findings revealed that risk-taking became a central component of teachers’ practice during the training year. It encouraged critical reflection and developed trainee confidence. Epiphanic moments experienced by participants highlighted that adaptation, negotiation and resilience formed over time as crucial aspects of risk-taking. Once qualified and teaching in schools, key influences affected PE teachers’ willingness to take risks. These included; performativity measures, time, pupil behaviour and the influence of the subject community. Risk-taking was found to support personal and professional growth and, when influences in schools were positive, engagement with innovation and creativity continued. This led to further growth and learning for both teachers and pupils.
This study provides new knowledge to inform the continuation of the Risk-Taking PDP and offers new insights for PE Initial Teacher Education and Training (ITET) practices. Furthermore, this study reaffirms the views of Clandinin and Connelly (2000) who argue for narrative being a three-dimensional space where temporality, sociality and place (context) influence thinking and learning and also, those of Dewey (1938) where experience and learning is transactional and always in relation to others and the social context. This study proposes a fourth dimension to risk-taking, a visional dimension where teachers visualise an ‘ideal’ situation and, is represented through the abstract conceptualisation of risk-taking holding a four-dimensional metaphorical space. This is represented through a geometrical shape, the Tesseract. This study suggests that the Tesseract Model should be utilised in schools to support early career teacher professional development, build resilience and encourage collaborative engagement in subject communities. Likewise, insights from a methodological approach, of narrative inquiry, that has seen a limited application in the context of PE provides a different and invaluable viewpoint in positioning the researchers’ and participants’ stories centrally.
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It is to Oliver, James and Harrison that I dedicate this thesis.
# List of Abbreviations

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>afPE</td>
<td>Association for Physical Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Bachelor of Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BERA</td>
<td>British Educational Research Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continued Professional Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>DES</td>
<td>Department for Education and Science</td>
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<td>DFE</td>
<td>Department for Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>GTC</td>
<td>General Teaching Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>GTP</td>
<td>Graduate Training Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institution</td>
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<tr>
<td>ITET</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Education or Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCTET</td>
<td>National Council for Teacher Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCTL</td>
<td>National College for Teaching and Leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td>NQT</td>
<td>Newly Qualified Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>OFSTED</td>
<td>Office for Standards in Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>PE</td>
<td>Physical Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>PETE</td>
<td>Physical Education Teacher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>PGCE</td>
<td>Post Graduate Certificate in Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>QTS</td>
<td>Qualified Teacher Status</td>
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<tr>
<td>Risk-Taking PDP</td>
<td>Risk-Taking Professional Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCITT</td>
<td>School-Centred Initial Teacher Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>School Direct</td>
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<tr>
<td>SDS</td>
<td>School Direct Salaried</td>
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<td>SE</td>
<td>Sport Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>STEM</td>
<td>Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics</td>
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<tr>
<td>TDA</td>
<td>Teacher Development Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>TGfU</td>
<td>Teaching Games for Understanding</td>
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Chapter 1: Introduction

The background to this Educational Doctorate research stems from my professional context as a physical education (PE) teacher educator and my fundamental belief in the value of continual professional learning through challenging one’s practices. This chapter introduces the study and explains the context from which it evolved. A context which aimed to support training PE teachers to develop their practice by undertaking a professional development programme delivered in one Higher Education Institution (HEI). This professional development programme will be referred to here as the Risk-Taking Professional Development Programme (Risk-Taking PDP). The programme encouraged trainee teachers to reflect on their practice and take risks by trying new ideas which were beyond their usual teaching practices. The programme was introduced during the second term of a Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) teacher training programme, when training teachers were competent in their teaching as defined by this HEI’s interpretation of the Teachers’ Standards (TDA, 2007). This chapter will conclude by outlining the aims and intentions of the study and how it illuminates the emergence of personal growth and understanding through risk-taking in the fields of physical education, Physical Education Initial Teacher Education or Training (PE ITET) and professional development more generally.

1.1 Personal Context

The path of least resistance and least trouble is a mental rut already made. It requires troublesome work to undertake the alternation of old beliefs . . . Unconscious fears also drive us into purely defensive attitudes that operate like a coat of armour not only to shut out new conceptions but even to prevent us from making a new observation.


This quotation provides a starting point for this research. The notion of taking professional risks, learning through challenging oneself and seeking to develop more effective practice I now recognise as being at the heart of my own professional development, 26 years into a career teaching physical education and training PE.
teachers. I have experienced much change during this time. Experiencing the introduction of the first statutory National Curriculum in 1989, the Curriculum of 2000 which allowed more time for core subjects, the scaling down of the Curriculum in 2007 to allow teachers more flexibility and, the most recent changes of 2014 with new programmes of study and assessment requirements. A’ Level Examinations have undergone two major changes, those of 2000 with the introduction of a modular exam system and the more recent phased changes from 2015 with less coursework and some content changes. Additionally, there have been changes to the accountability requirements for Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted\(^1\)) and increasing emphasis on evidence-informed teaching (DfE, 2017a), changes to the competency-based teachers’ standards (DfE, 2012) and the introduction of Mentoring Standards for Training Teachers in 2016 (GOV.UK, 2016a).

Continual external change and professional challenge offered me choices throughout my career. I could have continued with comfortable and traditional practices, with minimal change to my own practices, or, sought new learning experiences, adapted practice and created environments of uncertain outcomes but, pursuing the best learning experiences for the children I have taught, the teachers I have trained and, equally important, myself. Throughout my career, mostly I have chosen not to take the path of least resistance, but to pursue that which has encouraged reflective experimentation of new, creative and innovative practices. I have taken risks, which often involved confronting my own fears of failure and making mistakes, generating a perceived threat to both my own confidence and professional competence. Willingness to take a risk and confront my fears, I believe, was crucial to my learning and continued professional development and, instrumental in the successes achieved. I have also experienced challenging times throughout my career. Calling into question aspects of school cultures and accepted ‘normal’ practice, balancing relationships with resistant colleagues and, striving to understand and meet the ever-changing needs of the young

\(^1\) Ofsted is the regulatory body for teaching and education, it monitors teaching, learning and pupil progress according to a regularly updated set of standards.
people I have taught. During this time there were moments of uncertainty and deteriorating confidence and in these moments, I either found the strength and perseverance to continue to meet the challenges or, upon reflection, continued with my tried and tested practices. These experiences over the years, served to challenge my thinking, enable creative approaches to solve problems and, enhance my confidence and resilience when faced with adverse situations.

It is thus fair to say that the motivation behind this study was in part about my own story as well as a journey alongside participants. It was on this premise that I have selected narrative inquiry as the most appropriate methodology by which to design my research. Narrative inquiry defined by Clandinin and Connelly (2000, p. 200) is ‘a way of understanding experience. It is the collaboration between researcher and participants, over time, in a place or series of places, and in social interaction with milieus’. Thus, my own experiences, institutional, social, and cultural are acknowledged alongside those experiences of participants. My own narrative forms part of the research process and has guided my inquiries personally, practically and socially.

1.2 Context of the Study:

This study was undertaken in settings described as uncertain (Kelly, Hickey and Tinning, 2000), with continual curriculum and policy changes (Kirk, 2004; Jess, Atencio and Thornton, 2008; Armour et al, 2017), and one where there is a call for the problematisation of knowledge to meet the ever-changing environment and needs of those children taught in schools today (Capel and Blair, 2007; Eames et al, 2011). An environment which may be more relevant to young people, enhancing learning and encouraging a value on lifelong participation in physical activity.

The continual interpretation of changing policy, reflection upon PE pedagogy and ensuring the needs of all children are met and outcomes achieved, led me, in my role of teacher trainer to consider the types of professional development and training that may support training teachers in developing their practice by being reflective, critical and adaptable. Eight years ago, I offered a bespoke professional development (PD)
programme for training PE teachers. Inspiration for the PD programme emerged from one of the Ofsted descriptors from that time for outstanding practice, where trainees ‘Take risks when trying to make teaching interesting, are able to deal with the unexpected and grab the moment’ (Ofsted, 2008, p.1).

1.2.1 The Risk-Taking Professional Development Programme

The Risk-Taking PD programme focused upon supporting trainee teachers to reflect upon problems in their teaching or professional learning and challenge their routines and practices, taking a risk when trying something new and different to develop practice further. It encouraged trainees to work at times independently, and also to engage collaboratively with peers, school mentors, and other colleagues, encouraging the sharing of ideas and discussion of problems. The outcomes for this programme were underpinned by an institution academic rationale for teacher training, to achieve the best outcomes of trainee teacher learning in relation to the Teachers’ Standards and Ofsted criteria at any given time.

The Risk-Taking PD programme was introduced to each cohort during the second term of the PGCE training year, around half way through the course. This was when most trainees had reached a point where they had well planned and organised lessons, they had developed positive relationships with pupils and had an increased knowledge and understanding of pupil learning, assessment and monitoring of pupil progress. Most trainees had met the basic requirements for their early development and were secure in meeting the Teachers’ Standards (TDA, 2007). Fellow course tutors and I found, at this point, that many trainees believed they had completed their learning journey. As a result, they would continue with comfortable, tried and tested practices and many experienced a plateau. I believed it to be important that trainee professional learning should continue and designed the Risk-Taking PD programme to support, nurture and encourage trainees to develop new knowledge, understanding and skills to move their practice forward by continually reflecting on practice, challenging routines and questioning what they did in the classroom and beyond.
The programme was introduced during a university taught session via a workshop presentation and reflection exercise. The first workshop, when the programme began, was entitled ‘Taking Risks to Develop Practice’ and during subsequent year’s aspects of the programme were adapted and developed to meet the ever-changing needs of trainee teachers. Changes were informed by tutor, mentor and trainee experiences alongside a small-scale collaborative research project that I undertook (Clarke et al, 2012). Over time, changes included the addition of trainee and mentor views on taking risks and also the potential barriers that could be faced by trainee teachers. It also included a more in-depth consideration of reflective practice (McLeod, 2013). The most recent introductory presentation ‘Teaching is a Risky Business’ can be found in Appendix 1.

During the first workshop trainees were introduced to the concept of ‘risk-taking’ and it was defined in terms of challenging personal practice beyond one’s comfort zone. Trainees were then introduced to an adapted reflective cycle based on the work of Schön (1983) (Appendix 1, slide 23) and used this to reflect upon their own practice and/or pupil learning to plan a lesson/series of lessons/aspect of professional practice with the aim to improve either pupil learning or their own practice by taking a risk. Trainees were encouraged to consider their prior learning, independently research ideas and, engage in dialogue with me as their tutor, mentors and fellow trainees during the iterative process.

After the introductory workshop and for the remainder of the PGCE course opportunities were available for trainees to engage in both evaluation and reflective dialogue around the risks they had taken. These opportunities are listed below;

- During tutor visits, trainees often planned risks that were observed by their tutor
- During observed lessons, trainees could choose to take a risk and their mentor would provide feedback based upon this
- During university based taught sessions, opportunities were available for trainees to share and discuss their best ‘risks’ enabling sharing of best practice and peer learning
- Trainees were encouraged to write about the risks they had taken within the reflective commentaries which were a requirement of this course
- Trainees engaged in informal learning conversations with their tutor, mentors and peers to discuss risk-taking.

A design of the programme included raising mentor awareness to the Risk-Taking PDP and ensuring they were able to support trainees to develop their practice in this way. Initial training took place during the second of three mentor meetings and it outlined the definitions given to risk-taking, the reflective cycle (based on the work of Schön, 1983) and examples of ways in which mentors could support trainees to take risks. These included for example; modelling practice, team teaching a ‘risk’, collaborative planning, shared reflection and providing professional development opportunities for trainees. During the third mentor meeting, mentors and I would reflect upon the programme and discuss ways to develop it further, including sharing examples of successful pupil and trainee learning.

The Risk-Taking PDP began in 2010 and became an embedded feature of this PE ITET course, being delivered to over 100 PE trainees during this time. Over the years, some trainees wrote case studies of their experiences to help both themselves as practitioners and course tutors to conceptualise the process of risk-taking. I undertook a small-scale collaborative research project (Clarke et al, 2012) which outlined some of the barriers and successes to risk-taking. Trainees also shared their experiences with tutors and peers or, reflected upon them within written evaluations of practice. Trainees who chose to take risks told stories of their successes. Examples included:

- offering pupils greater responsibility to be independent in their lessons through the use of a Sport Education approach to teaching team games. This was a new approach for the trainee and ‘resulted in the trainee experiencing an unaccustomed low profile in the management of the lesson’ (Clarke et al, 2012, p. 20) alongside greater pupil learning and enjoyment
- learning how to dissect a heart to teach a GCSE class of disaffected boys about structure and function of the heart and the impact of physical activity on the heart. This was a completely new skill for the trainee teacher and it was a risk as she was concerned that pupils may not concentrate or engage with the lesson. Pupil engagement significantly increased during this and subsequent lessons due to the practical and active approach she had taken.

- leading on wider professional responsibilities with the trainee delivering an assembly about the war in Afghanistan. The trainee engaged pupils with real life experiences from the war which may have been difficult for pupils to comprehend. The assembly was highly successful leading to raised pupil awareness of wider global issues.

- using new technologies, including Apps and performance evaluation software to enhance learning. Trainees were keen to try new technologies to enhance learning yet were unfamiliar with them as it was the first time they had used them. This posed a risk of potential technology failure or lack of pupil understanding. Many of the technologies used served to engage and motivate pupils, reflecting positively on learning outcomes.

The main aim of the programme was to challenge trainee teachers to continue to develop and challenge their practice when they became competent in their teaching. Trainees who engaged with the programme experienced positive benefits in developing professional knowledge and enhancing pupil learning (Clarke et al 2012), they completed the course gaining high outcomes and were amongst the first to secure employment.

This programme offered opportunities for training teachers to work within the realms of uncertainty whereby outcomes could not always be predicted. Secondary features which emerged from the programme encouraged trainees to problematise their own practice, to focus not only on the what and how of practice but also on the why, and, to systematically develop skills of critical and reflective practice. These are elements of practice that have been argued as lacking in both teacher training (Capel and Blair, 2007).
and, teacher professional development (Chappell, 2014; Kelly, Hickey and Tinning, 2000).

The programme sessions and risks taken during the training year appeared to support the development of practice for trainee PE teachers, having a positive impact on pupil learning and professional development. School mentors spoke of the benefits of the Risk-Taking PDP which inspired me to write publications for practitioners, to help them support early career PE teachers to take risks and further develop their practice (Barber and Whitehouse, 2017; Lawson and Whitehouse, 2017; Whitehouse, in press). However, much of the evidence was specific to the outcomes of the training year and anecdotal. Evidence stemmed from conversations, written case examples (Appendix 2; Appendix 3; Appendix 4), practice evaluations, course outcomes and course evaluations. The continuation of the programme and its underpinning intentions; to reflect upon problems in practice; to challenge routines and practices and; to take risks when trying something new and different to develop practice further, once teachers begin teaching in schools, had yet to be explored. If risk-taking during the training year was to continue and develop then evidence of its influence and longer-term relevance in schools would be both useful and necessary.

This study is therefore important because the findings will indicate the influence and longer-term relevance of the Risk-Taking PDP upon personal and professional growth for training PE teachers. Likewise, insights from a methodological approach, of narrative inquiry, that has seen a limited application in the context of PE (Schafer, 2013; Casey and Schaefer, 2016) illustrates a different and useful viewpoint placing the researchers and participants’ stories as central. This study did not seek to infer causality, rather considered factors that may be significant for individuals in their own context and circumstances. Findings illuminate aspects of the complex context of risk-taking for professional development and so consider how this may be conceptualised, not generalised, within differing environments. This position considers the depth of response to answer the research questions, exploring context and individual experiences to provide examples of the everyday reality of PE teachers in relation to their professional learning and influences on taking risks once in the workplace.
Furthermore, the study also considers implications for the future practices of ITET and schools more generally and, suggests further research opportunities related to risk-taking and professional development.

1.3 Aims and Research Questions

The aim of this study was to explore the influence and longer-term relevance of the Risk-Taking PDP undertaken by physical education trainee teachers from one HEI during their teacher-training year. The intention was to inform both the future of the programme and also my own professional understanding of risk-taking for the professional development of training PE teachers.

The key question that this study sought to answer was;

What meanings, definitions and influences do teachers ascribe to risk-taking from their memories of the training year and once they begin teaching in schools?

In answering this question, the study informs the influence and longer-term relevance of the Risk-Taking PDP and offers insights into risk-taking for the professional development of training PE teachers. It also illuminates possible wider risk-taking opportunities for teacher professional development in general.

In order to position this study, the chapter to follow reviews appropriate literature that is considered important in providing a context to teacher training. It positions the study in relation to PE policy and practice and, teacher professional development. It also defines the concepts that are relevant to understanding the context of risk-taking, those of risk, creativity, innovation and reflection.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Exploring the literature and theoretical landscape that acts as a backdrop to this study is both complex and challenging. This is because teacher training and teacher professional development exist in a time of turbulence with changes to policy and curriculum, uncertainty around accepted practice, demands for high levels of academic standards and, greater teacher accountability. In this chapter, the study is situated theoretically and politically through the literature, exploring and challenging the underpinning themes of teacher education, physical education and teacher professional development. The literature review will also situate and clarify definitions of risk and reflection and, their relevance and application within the context of this study.

This chapter is divided into four themes beginning by setting the historical, political and policy context that teacher education and PE have faced in recent times. The chapter explores competing views on teacher and PE teacher professional development, highlighting the opportunities and inadequacies of teachers continued professional development. It then explores definitions of risk-taking and clarifies understandings of risk-taking, creativity and innovation, how they are connected and the relevance of each for this study. Taking risks, as advocated through the Risk-Taking PDP would not have been possible without participants’ critical and continued reflection upon practice. Therefore, the final section to this literature review explores and defines reflective practice and situates it within the context of the Risk-Taking PDP. To summarise, literature will be explored within the following themes:

- Teacher Education 2017 in context
- Physical Education, Policy, and Pedagogy
- Professional Development for Physical Education Teachers
- Risk-Taking and Reflective Practice in context
This chapter sets in context the key emerging debates in PE teacher education and the influences on professional development for PE teachers so as to identify gaps which may be addressed, in part, by the findings of this study.

2.1 Teacher Education 2017 in Context

Over the past three decades, educational theorists agree that ITET has experienced turbulent times. The picture today is very similar to that painted by Robinson (2006) over a decade ago who argues that questions around the nature of professional development and training, those skills, knowledge and attitudes that are deemed essential and the balance between theory and practice are continually discussed by teachers, teacher educators and policy makers. Additionally, Orchard and Winch (2015), when considering philosophical perspectives on ITET policy in Great Britain, argue that there is still uncertainty around the form that teacher education may take in the future. Much of this uncertainty surrounding the priorities and developments of ITET may stem from its inextricable link to the historical context of state education and the continual change in policy and practice. Taylor (2008) supports this view, suggesting that teacher education is influenced by the decisions and actions made in the past and believes that teacher educators will face similar issues and have to make similar choices in the future. Thus, teacher training can be seen to face the same problems, choices, issues and turbulence that it has faced previously with continued uncertainty around policy and accepted practice. Continuities in teacher education are also balanced with the discontinuities of performativity, greater accountability and ‘critical scrutiny’ (O’Brien and Furlong, 2015) of teacher education alongside the globalisation of knowledge through the rapid development of technologies (Majumdar, 2011) and, the implications of this for equipping both teachers and the young people of today with the skills for tomorrow (Majumdar, 2011).

During the 1960’s, teacher shortages, pressures for greater economic output, demand for higher academic standards and the need for teachers to be prepared to work in new ways sparked government questions about teacher training (Taylor, 2008). In response to criticism and government pressure, a Government Committee of Inquiry on Teacher
Education and Training was appointed to consider the content, organisation and role of educational institutions in training teachers. This resulted in the publication of *The James Report* (DES, 1972) which recommended that teaching should become an all-graduate profession. It advised for teacher education to be administered and planned by Regional Councils for Colleges and Departments of Education and that a National Council for Teacher Education and Training (NCTET) be established, along with a national network of professional centres and opportunities for teachers to engage with curriculum development projects. Furthermore, it considered ‘the integration of ‘three cycles’, those of higher education, initial professional training and induction, and in-service development’ (Taylor, 2008, p. 304). These three cycles continue as the foundations of teacher education within England and Wales today.

The change from the mid to late 80’s became evident for teachers with the publication of *The School Curriculum* (DES, 1981), which served to devolve some control of the Curriculum from schools, teachers and local authorities to government. This outlined a broad list of Educational Aims which schools were expected to follow and was deemed ‘the recommended approach’ (DES, 1981, p. 5) from which local authority policies for school curriculum were to be framed. In 1987 a consultation document entitled *The National Curriculum 5-16* (DES, 1987) was introduced which lay down plans for the introduction of a National Curriculum and subsequent procedures for assessment. Arrangements were suggested for preparing teachers for the introduction of attainment targets, programmes of study and assessment. Likewise, there was an expectation that ‘Initial teacher training institutions should prepare students progressively for the National Curriculum and the new assessment arrangements as these are designed and introduced’ (DES, 1987, p. 28). The Education Reform Act of 1988 (DES, 1988) outlined provision for a curriculum to be taught in all maintained schools and set out the knowledge, skills and understanding that was expected of children by the end of each key stage, known as attainment targets. ‘Programmes of study’ were to be taught for each key stage and assessment arrangements outlined for the end of each key stage.

Using the term neo-liberalist society, Lawton (1993) presents his views on the politics underpinning the National Curriculum for England and Wales, arguing that its purpose
was to fulfil both the needs and wants of minimalists and privatisers, unnecessarily introducing ‘core subjects’ and emphasising that assessment would be used as a tool for identifying the best schools, thus enabling parental choice. Lawton (1993, p. 111) argued that the National Curriculum was left ‘open to distortion . . . lacked coherence and was later subject to ideological manipulation from the Right’. Control through the implementation of a National Curriculum, even though aiming for consistent standards and outcomes, began to reduce the autonomy of teachers in what and how they taught.

The Education Reform Act (DES, 1988) was presented as giving power to schools yet, in reality, the voices of schools and teachers held reduced importance and a mainly content-based curriculum was produced with little input from teachers. Gillard (2011, p. 3) argues that ‘perhaps the most damaging outcome of it [The Education Reform Act] was that it prevented teachers and schools from being curriculum innovators and demoted them to curriculum ‘deliverers’”. The movement to a more controlled way of practising for teachers within schools coincided with a parallel move towards greater government control of teacher training. This increasingly prescriptive approach stemmed from, not only the introduction of a mandatory curriculum but, also from a standards-driven mode of assessment for achieving the final award of qualified teacher status (QTS) (DfE, 2012; TDA, 2007). With teaching standards being reviewed and monitored by government agencies including the Teacher Development Agency (TDA), currently National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) and Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted).

The influences of the new Labour government in 1997 was seen to mark the end of an era for teacher education in that the concern for individual professionalism shifted to more directly controlled and governed definitions of teaching, learning and assessment and, how these were defined as effective (Furlong, 2005). This more controlled way of working was criticised by Teachers’ Unions who argued that the rigidity of the National Curriculum had disastrous effects on creativity, risk-taking and innovation within schools (Lipset, 2008). Furthermore, publications and practice related to creativity in teaching were seen to become neglected due to curriculum content being dominated by detailed
specifications and, assessment of content related to knowledge and skills (McCallum, 2012).

Further historical changes were seen in what Robinson (2006, p. 20) describes as ‘the swinging pendulum,’ whereby teacher education periodically moves between either school-based or university-based models of training. Mosbacher (2004), recalls the opinions of O’Hear in his report from 1988 ‘Who teaches teachers?’ For O’Hear teacher training institutes were considered to be ‘concentrating on modish, egalitarian theories of education’ rather than the more classroom-based skills necessary for teaching. In addition to this, teacher education was seen not to ground its training in the real world, thus igniting renewed interest in school-based models, with an increased focus on greater school partnerships to deliver training. The 1990's saw changes from a perceived university-based, over-theoretical, approach to teacher training being replaced with more government favoured approaches which placed relevance on practical classroom skills, techniques and professional values. In 1992, for example, Kenneth Clarke, the Secretary of State for Education, argued for teacher training to move 80% of training into schools. This move to relocate teacher training into schools and out of universities and colleges was heavily criticised by Gilroy (1992, p. 6) who noted a ‘dramatic and abrupt reversal’ of teacher training policy and practice from the past 100 years. Shortcomings of university-based teacher education were publicised in government papers and teacher educators had little consultation about the proposed changes to be made. Robinson (2006, p. 24) contends that:

The traditional hegemony of college and university-based provision eroded in favour of a renewed interest in school-based/centred apprenticeship models of initial professional preparation in partnership with existing and new providers.

In 2010 the Coalition Government embarked upon the initiation of educational reform for England with the Schools White Paper (DfE, 2010) ‘The importance of teaching’. For ITET, this aimed to raise the bar for entrants to teaching to have better academic qualifications and to develop and extend the routes into teaching. Such routes involving greater school-based experience and limiting focus upon academia. Arguably this sought to focus training of teachers more narrowly to practical skills and subject-specific
knowledge rather than educational theory (Orchard and Winch, 2015). Subsequently, ITET has seen a significant increase in school-based training and a decline in the numbers of entrants into the profession from provider-led training, i.e. university-based routes of BA QTS² and PGCE³ (DfE, 2015; DfE 2016a). The 2015 to 2016 and 2016 to 2017 Initial Teacher Training Censuses which demonstrate the growth of school-based training can be found in Appendix 5.

The growth of School Direct and School Centred Initial Teacher Training has been seen to have benefits of increased time for trainees to focus upon developing their practices and a positive effect on pupil achievement in schools which have a large number of training teachers (Hurd, 2008). Increased time spent training in schools can be argued to contextually orientate learning for training PE teachers yet, this has been found to lead training PE teachers to focus on more content-centred learning and teaching strategies (Capel, 2007). More recent research around pre-service PE teachers’ development of subject knowledge (Herold and Waring, 2011) has, however, suggested that during the later stages of training, the focus moves from a content-centred approach to more pupil-centred strategies with the PE department culture and communities of practice having an impact on these practices. Herold and Waring (2011, p. 74) suggest that the progress made by pre-service teachers is contextually situated and ‘reliant on models and practices provided by respective schools and . . . PE departments’. This may suggest that with increased time spent in schools, pre-service teachers may experience limited access to the variety of teaching and pedagogic strategies and interpretations of curriculum arrangements, possibly leading to an acceptance rather than critical approach to curriculum models and teaching strategies. In this context, the concept of risk-taking as outlined in the Risk-Taking PDP may offer one way to address the advice given by Herold and Waring (2011, p. 74) for all teacher

² Bachelor of Arts (BA) Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) are usually four-year degrees which focus upon specialist subject knowledge with an additional element focusing upon teaching to gain QTS.

³ Post Graduate Certificate in Education is usually a one-year qualification that can be achieved during teacher training. It is an additional qualification that can be gained alongside QTS and is part of all university-led post graduate training programmes and most school-led routes. (GOV.UK, 2018).
training programmes to ‘address the fundamental relationships and processes at play, along with the potential to manage them in a differentiated fashion’.

In 2015, The Carter Review of Initial Teacher Training (GOV.UK, 2015) further emerged as a powerful platform from which the landscape of ITET was viewed and subsequently affected. Even though the review concluded that ITET should be delivered in partnerships between universities and School-Centred Initial Teacher Training providers (SCITTs) and all routes have their strengths, messages were contradictory in that it also highlighted:

The findings from the Good Teacher Training Guide (Smithers and Robinson, 2013), the 2014 NQT survey (NCTL, 2014) and a report by the Institute for Fiscal Studies (Allen and others, 2014) suggest that the move towards school-led ITT has had benefits.

(GOV.UK, 2015, p. 6).

This suggested that a possible higher value was being placed on school-led as opposed to HEI led training. Following the Carter Review, the Department of Education White Paper (DfE, 2016b) entitled ‘Educational Excellence Everywhere’, set out the government’s vision for educational excellence in England and Wales. Seven main elements informed this vision:

‘Great teachers’; ‘Great leaders’; ‘A school-led system’ (every school an academy); ‘Preventing underperformance’ (from good to great); ‘High expectations’ (curriculum, assessment, character and resilience); ‘Fair, stretching accountability’ and ‘The right resources in the right hands’.

(DfE, 2016b, pp. 11-12).

The impact of this upon teacher training serving to move it more fully into schools and to gradually increase the training offered by the best schools along with those HEI providers who offer the best training and highest levels of recruitment. The White Paper (DfE, 2016b) highlights that new accreditation for teachers will be more challenging and based upon teacher’s effectiveness in the classroom, which is to be judged by those schools that are also achieving the best. The key areas recognised in this document include ‘advanced subject knowledge and pedagogy that is rooted in up-to-date evidence’ alongside the most valued skills being ‘sufficient subject knowledge, practical
behaviour management skills, understanding of special educational needs, and a greater understanding of the most up-to-date research on how pupils learn’ (DfE, 2016b, p. 12). Furthermore, the focus on continued professional development (CPD) is seen as essential in achieving educational excellence everywhere. The aim being to provide greater access to and availability of high-quality CPD, and the introduction of Standards for Teachers’ Professional Development (DfE, 2016c) which will help schools improve the quality of CPD provision and also incentivize schools to publish high-quality research and CPD materials on an ‘open access’ forum (DfE 2016b). This focus upon enhanced professional development, improving classroom practices and increased understanding of how pupils learn may open up opportunities in schools and teacher training for the creation of a pedagogical climate amiable to risk-taking.

Still in its infancy, The White Paper ‘Educational Excellence Everywhere’ (DfE, 2016b) with its impact as yet unknown has attracted media opinion. The Guardian Editorial (2016) poses the opinion that the education system, alongside teacher training, is in a continuing state of uncertainty, particularly for teachers, parents and local authority. Likewise, Stone’s (2016) blog questions the government’s focus upon teachers utilising evidence-based practice, arguing that their evidence for this is not grounded in teachers as reflective practitioners able to apply and adapt their practices to the complexities of individual pupils and their school environment. It is however based within research where ‘schools/groups of learners [are] being subjected to interventions under study, usually resulting in quantitative data ‘which shows limited consideration of the individual complexities, running the risk of oversimplifying complex educational processes and practices’ (Stone, 2016, p.1). Thus, suggesting a need for teachers entering the profession to be increasingly reflective and able to apply and adapt their practices to the environment and individual contexts in which they find themselves. Again, there appears to be a prevalent rationale here for such programmes as the Risk-Taking PDP which advocates reflective practice and considers the complexities of pupil needs within school contexts.

To date, ‘Education Excellence Everywhere’ (2016b) and The Carter Review (GOV.UK, 2015) have generated reports and policies that are having an impact on ITET and
teaching within school. The first of these aims to address the increasing concerns regarding the effectiveness of teacher behaviour management strategies and is entitled ‘Developing behaviour management content for initial teacher training (ITT)’ (Bennett, 2016). This seeks to better prepare teachers in classroom behaviour management strategies and more particularly focuses on low-level disruption. The second is the introduction of National standards for school-based ITT mentoring (GOV.UK, 2016a). These standards aim to generate greater consistency and to raise the profile of mentoring and build a culture of mentoring and coaching in schools, particularly in light of the stronger accreditation processes to come (GOV.UK, 2016a). In addition to this, and in response to The Carter Review (GOV.UK, 2015), a framework of core content for initial teacher training (ITT) has been introduced, which aims to help ensure that all trainee teachers receive ‘a sound grounding in the right elements of good classroom practice.’ (GOV UK, 2016b, p. 1). Initial Teacher Education and Training has now become increasingly regulated by standards and frameworks to adhere to thus, reducing the autonomy of teacher educators, in the same way that the autonomy of teachers was reduced with standards and curriculum frameworks. Mutton, Burn and Menter (2017, p. 18) argue that the Carter Review (GOV.UK, 2015) fails to effectively address the challenges and complexities that teacher education faces as it ‘is ultimately reduced to mandating national standards rather than paying attention to the processes of professional learning’.

The final policy paper to warrant mention here is ‘Reducing teacher workload’ (GOV.UK, 2017). Actions taken since the workload challenge of 2014 include advice to schools and teachers on reducing workload for; marking (GOV.UK, 2016c); planning and teaching resources (GOV.UK, 2016d) and, data management (GOV.UK, 2016e). The standards and frameworks described are still in their infancy with their impact as yet not visible. Even though there is a positive move to recognise and advise schools regarding the issues surrounding workload, the challenge here is for schools to effectively implement the advice under the constraints of continued increased accountability measures that are imposed upon them. Policy and framework documents have begun to and will influence and affect ITET practices over time and so become relevant to the professional development and experiences of early teachers generally and PE teachers.
Teacher practices cannot be seen in isolation and separate from the extraneous expectations of curriculum reform, subject and teaching expectations, national and global developments in an ever-changing world. For over three decades the UK has seen a top-down government approach to education with an education system based upon accountability and performance measures (Furlong, 2005; Gillard 2011; Robinson, 2006). Biesta (2013) argues that these have moved education towards a more standardised and accountable education system and calls for a change to the risk aversion that permeates education today. He considers that if risk is taken fully out of education, leaving it ‘strong, secure, predictable and risk-free’ (Biesta, 2013, p. 2) then the whole point of education and learning is missed. The point being that education should not be fixed, it should be where teachers are able to exercise judgments, engage with ‘real human beings,’ and ‘have an orientation toward the freedom and independence of those being educated’ (Biesta, 2013, p. 2). Even though the White Paper (DfE, 2016b) ‘Educational Excellence Everywhere’ seeks to offer supported autonomy and the National Curriculum (DfE, 2013) is more ambitious, offering ‘teachers professional autonomy over how to teach’ (DfE, 2016b, p. 89), this continues to be data-driven and underpinned by accountability for the standards achieved by pupils and teachers, arguably leading to continued dependence and lack of freedom to explore new practices.

2.2 Physical Education Policy and Pedagogy

The impact of changes to government policy and curriculum have manifest themselves within the teaching of PE, with prescribed curricula being seen to stifle innovation and the exploration of new practices (Jess, Atencio and Thornton, 2008; Kirk 2004), resulting in PE teaching undergoing very little change (Capel, 2007; Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017; Kirk and Haerens, 2014; Penney and Chandler, 2000). In 1988, when a National Curriculum was introduced to England and Wales, the Conservative Government push for a more traditional agenda (Evans, Penney and Bryant, 1993), whereby traditional games such as football, rugby, hockey, netball and basketball were taught as single and focused activities, promised to put competitive team games as central to school life. This resulted in a curriculum focused on a traditional multi-activity approach which valued
During this time, it has been argued that the government saw PE as sport within a school context and so valued competition for the physical education of children (Capel and Pitrowski, 2000). The subsequent PE curriculum (DfES, 1999) even though requiring a breadth of activities ensured that competitive games were a compulsory focus of the curriculum. Further curriculum reforms of 2007 suggested that ‘A high-quality PE curriculum enables all pupils to enjoy and succeed in many kinds of physical activity’ (QCA, 2007, p. 189) and the current curriculum, which aims to ‘ensure that all pupils:

- develop competence to excel in a broad range of physical activities
- are physically active for sustained periods of time
- engage in competitive sports and activities
- lead healthy, active lives.


Prescribed curricula have been argued to produce a pattern of teaching in PE which is preoccupied with knowledge related to physical movement which is fixed rather than fluid and developing (Jess, Atencio and Thornton, 2008) thus PE practices have tended to remain the same over the years, rather than meet the changing needs of the young people they are intended for. This, alongside social and institutional influences, has been found to detract from PE teachers’ engagement with creative, new or innovative practices (Goodyear and Casey, 2015; Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017), which has been described as ‘schooling for docility-utility’ (Kirk 2004, p. 201). This view considers that a behaviourist learning approach has produced physically educated pupils who reproduce knowledge which has tended to be ‘decontextualised and abstracted elements from sport’ (Kirk 2004, p. 202) rather than experiment and adapt with new movement and physical activity. Furthermore, when PE teachers have engaged with innovative practice, this has been found to rarely move beyond the initial implementation stages (Casey, 2014; Goodyear and Casey, 2015) leading to the continuance of teacher-led approaches prioritising skills in the physical learning domain and skills for sport rather than the consideration of learning being positioned in ‘multiple domains (physical, cognitive, social and affective)’ (Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017, p. 242). The continuance of such
teacher-led approaches has been argued to neither meet the aims of PE nor meet the needs of the young people engaging in it (Kirk, 2004).

Further significant influences on the teaching practices in PE have been; Ofsted criteria for teachers and trainee teachers; Ofsted (GOV.UK, 2014) subject guidance from PE survey visits and, guidance from the national body for physical education Association for Physical Education (AfPE, 2014). These have influenced PE practice in relation to pupil outcomes, achievement and progress in lessons with what has generally been considered ‘best practice’ by the teaching profession. Even though such guidance is considered by the government as necessary and important to ensure rigour and consistency in standards, such information is often taken at face value and not always considered and critiqued on its merits and shortcomings or applied to the social and school context in which PE practitioners find themselves. Press articles (Flanagan, 2014; Exley, 2014) highlight the lack of reliability and validity of Ofsted lesson observations and there is further suggestion that inspectors hold a preference for certain teaching methods which has led to an unwillingness for schools and teachers to change their practices (Flanagan, 2014). Such regulations could be seen as unconducive to risk-taking and exploring new and creative practice. They may lead to either standards being accepted without application to context or the needs of young people or, teachers ensuring their teaching practices closely align with the regulations and frameworks, so as to appease Ofsted examination.

Over the years, policy changes; AfPE guidance; Inspectorate expectations; the development of theoretical and pedagogical knowledge and, a desire by teachers and academics to ensure PE remains relevant and engaging, have prompted many initiatives, innovations and developments in PE teaching and pedagogy in a move away from what has been termed the ‘Traditional style’ of teaching PE (Pritchard et al, 2008, p. 219). Styles of teaching or pedagogies have developed in a bid to help pupils become more proficient in physical, sport and games skills and to encourage life-long and continued activity beyond school. Practitioners of the ‘Traditional style’ hold the belief that pupils would not achieve competence within game situations until they had mastered the skills of the game. This became the sole focus of many PE practitioners and informed teaching
where, for example, full games would not be played until the end of a unit of work (Siedentop et al, 1994; Tannehill, 2013). This type of approach goes beyond teaching solely games, to all PE activities and is characterised by being very much a teacher centred, behaviourist approach (Kirk, 2004, 2010, 2012) with generally the sole responsibility for lesson management, accountability and pupil learning being in the hands of the teacher (Tannerhill, 2013). Practices which have been used by PE teachers for many years, and so could be classed as ‘traditional,’ with a teacher-centred focus have included; multiactivity programmes (Siedentop, Mand, and Taggart, 1986); skill-based programmes and competitive sport-based programmes (Metzler, 2005). More recent models or innovations in the PE curriculum have attempted to take more authentic and pupil-centred approaches (Metzler, Lund and Gurvitch, 2008). Practices which put greater focus on collaborative learning and greater responsibility for learning in the hands of pupils themselves have, sought to offer more relevant curricula to engage a wider range of pupils in physical activity and lifelong participation, in a bid to ensure PE continues to hold a place in educational curricula. When considering the future of PE in light of what Kirk (2010) considers the only two conceptions of physical education, those of gymnastics and, sport-related skills, he sees three possible potential futures for physical education. More of the same, with the continuation of the current sport-related skills approach. Radical reform, with a clear shift in paradigm for PE, or extinction, whereby PE will no longer exist in the context of schooling and educational curricula. I would agree with this but would consider that these are arguably the options open to any conceptualisation of a curriculum subject yet, what I believe to be most important is where Kirk (2010) and Tinning (2012, p. 123) argue that physical education needs to be “fit’ for the contemporary environment’ and compatible with contemporary culture or it will fail to hold relevance within the curriculum. Based upon this idea, for any form of change or radical reform then there may be a greater need for teachers to take risks within their practice in order to engage with such change and visualise creative and innovative ways forward for PE within the curriculum. The understanding of risk within the Risk-Taking PDP from this study may therefore offer valuable insights to support a future for PE in the curriculum.
Those current approaches of the sport-related skills conceptualisation of PE and which are seen as more pupil-centred include; tactical and model-based approaches like Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982) and Sport Education (Siedentop, 1994), alongside Health-Related Fitness Models (Cale, Harris and Chen, 2012; Houston and Kulinna, 2014) and Cooperative Learning (Dyson and Casey, 2012) offering alternatives. Whilst it is beyond the scope of this literature review to provide an in-depth discussion of each approach, it is recognised that some of these approaches were taught during the training year and featured in the stories of participants, particularly Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982) and, Sport Education (Siedentop 1994).

2.2.1 Towards an Acceptance of Uncertainty and Contingency

When considering the knowledge and pedagogy that may be useful for ensuring PE remains relevant and purposeful, the influential work of Shulman (1986, 1987) may offer some insight. Thirty years on, his work particularly related to the importance of content knowledge is still influential in debates on what forms good PE ITET and good teaching in PE (Herold and Waring, 2017). With Kirk (2010, p. 30) holding the view that PE teachers having significantly less knowledge of their subject now than over twenty years ago, is one reason for the ‘resistance to change and perpetuation of . . . decontextualized sports techniques’ in PE.

Shulman (1987, p. 4), when considering the ‘content, character and sources for a knowledge base of teaching’, suggests that a variety of types of knowledge exist. There is not the scope within this literature review to define each fully, a series of brief definitions will be provided to aid understanding. First, content knowledge is how the knowledge is organised within a teacher’s mind, it extends beyond the facts or concepts to an understanding of how all of the knowledge fits together. ‘It is a set of rules for determining what is legitimate to say in a disciplinary domain’ (Shulman, 1986, p. 6). Secondly, pedagogical content knowledge enables teachers to be able to explain the knowledge of that discipline and why it is important. It refers to knowledge on how the discipline is taught and is the way in which the subject is represented to learners,
including an understanding of the conceptions, preconceptions and misconceptions that learners are likely to have, and how to respond to these. It includes ‘the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations and demonstrations’ (Shulman, 1986, p. 6). Thirdly, curriculum knowledge, as it suggests is the knowledge outlined within the curriculum to ensure the content of a subject, course or examination is consistent for others undertaking those lessons and will be consistent to those who have previously or will take the course in the future. Shulman (1987) also refers to teachers having a knowledge of learners and their characteristics, a knowledge of educational contents and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, values and philosophical and historical influences to the competency-based models of the professional standards. Shulman (1987) argues that an understanding of both the content and the processes are important when teaching.

The writings of Trowler (2014, p. 1720), concur that the competency-based model of teaching as having identifying characteristics, yet, is one which ‘floats in the ether’ and does not consider the social structures or complexities of practice and individual experiences. Furthermore, Trowler (2014) argues that the complexities of teaching cannot exist without the processes of institutionalisation. ‘Disciplines become apparent in their playing out in the world, in the process of institutionalisation and in the discursive and other practices which give them substance’ (Trowler 2014, p. 1721). I would agree that a competency-based model of teaching, if not considered within the wider institutional context could be deemed futile. The participants of this study, however, were trained and taught within a competency-based model of teaching, and this was part of their everyday professional practice. The views of Shulman and Trowler however are important and inform the approach to this study, one which considers that social structures and institutional contexts and constraints affect teachers and teacher training programmes and would have influenced participants’ experiences of risk-taking.

The current system of benchmarking all teachers’ achievement of the National Teachers’ Standards (GOV.UK, 2011) arguably leads to competence-based approaches which seek to measure the progress of young people alongside the competence of teachers. The Teachers’ Standards form the minimum requirement for teaching in general and assume
that what constitutes knowledge is a known quantity. My own views are that teachers, particularly those who are training, benefit from having a baseline of standards to work towards. For me, of most importance is that teachers understand and are able to draw upon examples of what good and effective practice is in relation to such standards approaches. The known quantity thus should provide the initial starting point from which a more flexible and contextually aligned approach is taken, with pupil learning and progress taking priority. Dickson (2007, p. 1) contends that ‘literature about professional knowledge in teacher education illustrates that the term can be used by those holding competing ideologies’. Following Dickson (2007) the definitions thus held by policy makers may differ to others who look for broader definitions of what education and learning may constitute. Furthermore, the Teachers’ Standards also fail to take into account individual relationships between teacher and pupil and tend to prioritise some aspects of knowledge whilst reducing the importance of others. Thus, influencing professional and teacher training programmes. Whilst I accept this, I also believe that a starting point and defined expectations are necessary. Indeed, the inspiration for the Risk-Taking PDP came from Ofsted criteria, which was competency based. Yet, an approach was taken in this study which sought to bring this judgement criteria to life by applying it to practice for the benefit of both teacher and pupil learning.

Within physical education, Capel and Blair (2007, p. 21) align their opinion with Shulman (1987) and argue, ‘each different conceptualisation of knowledge prioritises some knowledge over another knowledge’. This is seen to limit early teacher’s in their exploration of the more problematic nature of teaching PE (Capel and Blair, 2007; Eames et al, 2011) and gives limited recognition to ‘why aspects are being taught, focusing more on the ‘what’ and ‘how’’ (Williams, 2012, p. 47). Furthermore, Kelly, Hickey and Tinning (2000, p. 293) contend that developing PE pedagogy has ‘no choice but to recognise the uncertain nature of truth-telling that characterises processes of reflexive modernization’. They argue that, rather than call for an acceptance of difference, an acceptance of uncertainty and contingency is needed as this is more representative of how PE teachers:
Experience and interpret their existence in a contemporary world of increasing dislocation and uncertainty, a world that inherently problematizes all forms of truth-telling in physical education.

(Kelly, Hickey and Tinning, 2000, p. 294).

Teaching PE within such uncertain times, experiencing changes to curriculum and policy alongside a continual drive to focus upon ‘the best’ pedagogies and models of practice can be considered complex. Such a dynamic context, invariably entails frequent changes to the professional development knowledge, continuing needs of training PE teachers and PE teachers more generally. Additionally, it is argued that teachers, both training and once established, would be best placed to apply such models to their own context and be encouraged to take a problematic approach to teaching and learning in PE (Capel and Blair, 2007; Jess, Atencio and Thornton, 2008). By being critically reflective and problematising knowledge, teachers are enabled to ‘challenge traditional content and teaching approaches so that physical education becomes more relevant to young people’ (Capel and Blair, 2007, p. 28) thus reducing alienation and encouraging the underpinning value of lifelong participation in physical activity. The Risk-Taking PDP had many of the positive aspects outlined by literature, for example, application of teaching models to practice, critical reflection and challenge of practice, even if unintended at its inception. Findings from this study may thus highlight the benefits of aspects of risk-taking as professional development for PE teachers and the influences on this once teachers begin applying pedagogies and new practices within their own context, once teaching in schools.

The conclusions that Shulman (1987), draws regarding policy makers’ visions for developing teacher knowledge, continue to apply, even three decades on, to today’s systems of teacher training, teaching and professional learning. Reforms continue in an attempt to raise standards, organise more complex programmes of professional development and mentoring for training and new teachers (Shulman, 1987; DfE 2016b), thus deeming ‘the most important learning and socialization can occur only in the workplace’ (Shulman, 1987, p. 19). Shulman (1987, p. 19) further contends that raising standards to improve knowledge for teaching should avoid ‘ridged orthodoxies’ with a more flexible understanding of the knowledge base for teaching and its sources and ‘the
complexities of the pedagogical process’. Recent research (Herold and Waring, 2017) which considers the importance of content knowledge for training PE teachers, suggest that the move to school-led teacher training has reconfigured training teachers’ experiences of pedagogical knowledge, simplifying and minimizing it. This is consistent with the theoretically opinion of Brown, Rowley and Smith (2015). Teacher educators thus face the challenge of ensuring trainees have a ‘well-rounded subject knowledge profile’ (Herold and Waring, 2017, p. 243), whilst also facilitating pedagogical experiences which promote an understanding of the integration of theory and practice, within varied school contexts.

2.3 Professional Development for Physical Education Teachers

Professional learning for teachers has received much attention, with ‘a growing awareness that improvements in the quality and standards of pupils’ learning are, to some extent at least, reliant upon improvements in the quality of teachers’ career-long professional learning’ (Armour and Yelling 2007, p. 177). Research identifies types of professional development which may result in enhanced teacher and pupil learning (Armour and Yelling, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Avalos, 2011), with some consensus being reached that a rich variety of learning experiences is preferred over singular approaches (Armour and Yelling, 2007). However, there remains limited evidence on what is considered effective professional development (Hill, Beisiegel and Jacob, 2013). Furthermore, Armour et al (2017), argue that for professional development providers, their intended goals are rarely met and the numerous models of CPD have been questioned with suggestions that the impact of professional development on professional learning has been inconclusive or inadequate (Armour and Yelling, 2007; Capel and Blair, 2007; Keay, 2009).

The professional development of teachers is studied and presented through relevant literature in varied ways. Avalos (2011, p. 10) reviewed publications in one journal over a period of ten years and found that at the heart of teachers’ professional development is ‘teachers learning, learning how to learn, and transforming their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students’ growth’. Darling-Hammond (2006) bases her
opinions upon literature and research to conclude that there are three components which are critical to creating stronger and more effective teacher training programmes. These include a tighter coherence between coursework and work in schools, extensive supervised work which is underpinned with pedagogic understanding and links theory to practice and, proactive relationships within school’s which value diversity and models the best practices. Armour and Yelling (2007) report on their findings of a two-year investigation suggesting that training teachers highly value informal learning with and from others and so recommend changes to CPD provision which encompasses professional learning communities and networking as central features. Such thoughts are echoed by Goodyear and Casey (2015) where their participatory action research study found communities of practice to be a professional learning strategy that supports pedagogic innovation and the beginnings of sustained change.

There is a general consensus that teacher professional development programmes, both generally and for PE teachers are limited in their impact and often seen as ineffective (Armour and Yelling, 2007; Keay, 2009; Green 1998). Capel and Blair (2007, p. 23) contend that initial teacher training programmes remain a ‘low impact’ enterprise for the continued development of PE teachers, arguing that there is limited opportunity for training PE teachers to reflect upon their own beliefs, values and practices surrounding PE or view what and how they are teaching problematically. This appears not to have changed in subsequent years with the research of Chappell (2014) finding that more recently in a climate of higher work intensity, increased expectations and recent government policy, there is limited opportunity for new teachers to develop the capacity for reflection upon their practice or defining and interpreting professional knowledge.

In their research exploring successful professional development for PE teachers, Patton and Parker (2014) contend that few teachers experience effective and high quality PD programmes, specifically those involving peer conversations, communities of practice or active learning opportunities. Furthermore, when exploring the impact of research on PE practices and policy Kirk and Haerens (2014) believe, that there has been a lack of practice-referenced, evidence base to the development of PE teacher training programmes, which is the starting point for effective professional development. This has
led to very few changes, since the 1960’s in the day-to-day practices of PE teachers and so the experiences of children (Capel, 2007; Kirk and Haerens, 2014; Penney and Chandler, 2000). Many children and young people continue to reject much of what is offered in physical education (Armour, 2014; Kirk 2005) and ‘school physical education fails to realise its raison d’etre for inclusion in the school curriculum, which is lifelong participation in physically active lifestyles’ (Kirk and Haerens, 2014, p. 903). Furthermore, Armour (2014, p. 853) argues that ‘the career-long education available to teachers and coaches is inadequate to the task of solving the problems existing in physical education’. This does however assume that there is ‘buy in’ and engagement with such professional development opportunities on offer and that teachers have the time and inclination to engage with meaningful CPD opportunities to continually learn.

Upon addressing the shortcomings of teacher professional development, many suggestions have been made. Patton and Parker (2014), when considering CPD facilitators views of successful professional development for PE teachers, found that building teacher capacity was important to move beyond simple acquisition of knowledge and skill. They concluded that ‘teachers should view themselves as learners, transforming from recipients of information to active seekers of knowledge’ who are empowered to take ownership of their own self-improvement and professional development, and student learning being ‘the ultimate measure of successful professional development’ (Patton and Parker 2014, p. 60). Additionally, Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002, p. 965) who present the Interconnected model of professional growth, offer a non-linear structure which enables professional development and growth to be an amalgamation of the individuals ‘practice, meanings and context’, thus arguing that such a model offers teachers the opportunity to develop according to their own preferences for learning. It also considers how professional learning is embedded in professional lives and working conditions and argues professional learning is at its best when it is contextually situated (Clarke and Hollingsworth, 2002). Furthermore, Opfer and Pedder (2011, p. 376), in their review of literature on teachers’ professional development practices conclude by suggesting that much of the writings on the topic ‘continue to focus on specific activities, processes, or programs in isolation from the complex teaching and learning environments in which teachers live’. The Risk-Taking
PDP offered a contextually situated professional learning programme which aimed to empower training teachers to consider their practice critically and make choices on how to develop their own learning further. This study may therefore offer further insights to the debates outlined in relation to early career teacher professional learning and development.

2.4 Risk-Taking and Reflective Practice in Context

Whilst considering the limitations of teacher professional development and, the continually changing landscape of PE, the Risk-Taking PDP encouraged trainee teachers to critically reflect and take risks to enhance and develop their practice. The Risk-Taking PDP was specifically designed to encourage trainee teachers to engage with critical reflection upon their practice and problematisation of practice, both ‘in the job’ when teaching lessons and, ‘of the job’ when undertaking professional responsibilities and, to challenge themselves by taking risks. The concepts of risk-taking and reflection can be defined in different ways depending upon the context in which they are used. The next section defines both of these terms through literature so as to illuminate their meanings and application within the context of this study. It will consider the varying definitions given to risk-taking along with those constructs which are believed to underpin it. For example, the scientific construct of risk-taking which balances the probability of unfavourable outcomes, the subjective nature of risk-taking, the impact of institutionalisation and the benefits of ‘manufactured risk’ will be explored to offer a definition of risk-taking relevant to this study. It will then consider how the terms risk, creativity and innovation may be connected and how they may be related to this study. Finally, definitions of reflection will be explored in terms of their relevance to the Risk-Taking PDP and the overall context of this study.

2.4.1 Defining Risk-Taking

The notion of risk-taking has many definitions and is referred to in a variety of contexts. There is a general recognition that risk-taking would involve considering an action and assessing the potential probability of negative consequences and the likelihood of this
occurring (Hansson, 2009; Kapadia 2010). Alternatively, risk-taking is also viewed as an opportunity to explore and experiment in order to gain rewards (Rolfe, 2010). Rewards leading to new ideas (Beck, 2009), personal learning (Atkinson, 2014) and pupil learning within schools (Rolfe, 2010). Albeit a starting point, further consideration is needed in relation to the variations and degrees of risk, subjective viewpoints of what may constitute a risk in the eyes of the risk taker or the topic with which the risk is associated.

Risk-taking is an important form of human behaviour and has been the subject of much research and scholarly debate. Health based medical research considers the association between risky behaviours and health problems, particularly amongst teenagers (DiClemente, Hanson and Ponton, 1996). Sociologists have attempted to understand the nature of youth behaviour and taking risks (France, 2000), and psychologists consider the perspective that ‘risk taking is purposive behaviour that is enacted with the goal of achieving a particular outcome’ towards a desired goal (Siegel, 2011, p. 720). Within the context of sport and physical activity, literature often focuses upon risk management and the balance between involvements in risk associated activities whilst avoiding the potential of injury (Brymer, 2010; Coelho, 2001) alongside this, research suggests that risk-taking can be a performance predictor in sport, more particularly in martial arts (Ghotnia, Tojari and Ganjoyi, 2013). The constructs of goals, values, opinions and outcomes are often referred to when defining risk, with some undesirable and even dangerous outcomes (Byrnes, 2011). A more open definition to risk has been called for which implies a wide range of qualifying behaviours (Byrnes 2011), some of these will be explored below.

There are many blogs, Internet news and magazine pages relating to risk, learning and teaching (Dreger, 2011; Laskey, 2008; Reid, 2010; Warrell, 2013), however, many of the theoretically underpinned definitions of risk in teaching link to teaching risk and probability in science, mathematics and economics or are concerned with risk and safety in technology (Hansson 2009).

Kapadia (2010) argues that the confusion about the nature of risk lies when it is directly expressed as in terms of likelihood being equal to probability, as these can be equated
in different ways. For example, if there is the same probability of an aeroplane crashing 1 in 1000 to catching measles 1 in 1000 then the risk would be viewed differently to the probability as the impact of the events is totally different. The standard concept of risk for statistical decision theory is that ‘risk is always a simple arithmetic product of the likelihood and utility values’ (Kapadia et al, 2010, p. 122). Even though this objective approach considers the emphasis on subjective values, it fails to consider risk not having an ‘established and agreed epistemology’ (Kapadia et al, 2010, p. 122). Referring to risk management, Taleb and Pilpel (2007, p. 2) consider that epistemologically the notion of consequence when taking risks is an essential consideration ‘What matters in life is the equation probability × consequence’. Thus, even if the probability of an event happening were low; it may not be taken if the consequence were to be highly negative. Conversely, if the consequence were positive reward and the probability of a negative event low, then the risk is likely to be taken. In agreement with this, Seale, Nind, and Simmons (2013), whose risk-taking involves enabling people with learning disabilities to gain independence and greater well-being, advocate that the conceptualisation and implementation of positive risk-taking involves negotiating and making decisions which involve weighing the risks against the benefits. Their work proposes positive risk taking when the benefits and rewards outweigh potential harm.

These opinions in isolation, however, are limited in their recognition of other important factors like subjectivity and the influence of institutions on such practices. When considering the impact of real life mathematical probability scenarios on learners through case studies, Walensky (1997, p. 172) found that the uncertainty could cause ‘epistemological anxiety,’ this potentially inhibiting learning or affecting how a risk is perceived. Brazeau (2005) similarly considers that embarking upon risk-taking processes necessitates time and emotional commitment and as such may result in disappointment. Campbell (2006, p. 226) further contends that risk is weighted by probability and so;

The basic and central use of risk is in relation to actions or activities: (R) In doing A, P runs the risk of x, where A is an action or activity, P is a person (or a group), and x is a possible consequence of A that is harmful in some way.
This does, however, open up the argument of whether risk is subjective, objective, or a combination of both. Campbell (2006) contends that it is both, in that the level of risk is dependent upon a person’s preferences and so once the preferences are known then the risk becomes objective to the person whose risk it is. Notwithstanding that a person may change his or her mind and therefore the risk may change depending upon the individual’s subjectivity. ‘So, while P may have risked x in doing A in 2003, in doing A in 2004 P may not be risking x at all, even though the chances of x resulting from A in 2004 are exactly the same, because of P’s changed preference’s’ (Campbell 2006, p. 229). In addition to this, the opinions of Beck (2009, p. 292) add to the debate the concept of ‘manufactured risk’ or ‘manufactured uncertainties’. Beck (2009, p. 292) argues that risks are not ‘real’ but are ‘becoming real’ and as such require visualization within context. To take a risk is not thus a simple calculation regarding the probability of a negative consequence, but also considers how the risk is socially constructed and its different forms in relation to institutional factors. Such negotiations with others in the subject community like mentors and fellow teachers, pupils and other training teachers formed the experiences of training teachers and thus taking risks was considered through the Risk-Taking PDP as socially constructed, where the balance of probability was aligned with potential relational influences.

In the context of this study, much can be taken from the above definitions of risk, even though they focus in the most part on negative effects. Definitions may remain the same in terms of probability, likelihood, consequences and epistemology however in the context of developing learning and professional development, a definition which considers the rewards gained from risk taking and learning in the realms of uncertainty is one which is considered here. Rolfe (2010, p. 10) suggests that the aim of risk taking is to ‘maximise reward and to avoid failure’. Her definition suggests that reward can take many forms, including ‘a product or service or idea that offers something new, beneficial or desirable’. When teaching this may be for example; greater pupil learning, increased engagement in lessons or pupil motivation towards physical activity. A model taken from business provides an additional and relevant viewpoint of risk as moving beyond one’s comfort zone, into a courage zone where growth and opportunity prevail (Warrell, 2013). In today’s increasingly competitive, cautious and fast-moving world, it is within
the challenge zone that Warrell (2013) argues the best rewards are gained, such as moving out of one’s comfort zone and into the discomfort of uncertainty. This can be linked to the perspective outlined by Siegel (2011, p. 720) where ‘risk taking is purposive behaviour that is enacted with the goal of achieving a particular outcome’. In the context of the Risk-Taking PDP a perspective which focuses upon rewards such as better pupil learning and higher levels of pupil engagement were intended. In much the same way that Rolfe (2010) promotes embedding risk and reward into the curriculum to help children learn, so the Risk-Taking PDP saw risk and reward as an important part of progression and learning for training teachers. Risk-taking was seen as accepting of the need for change and so taking the behavioural steps that would lead to positive change. This is further explored by Dreger (2011, p. 1) whose opinion considers risk-taking in relation to teaching, implying that it involves one of two things; ‘Employing teaching strategies with which teachers are not familiar and employing behaviours that in some way break down traditional class structures, hierarchies, etc. in order to promote better student learning’. Reid (2010, p. 1), likewise, considers risk-taking behavior in terms of asking questions and dwelling in uncertainty, trying new things or ‘advancing untried hypotheses’.

To add to the definition, Beck’s (2009, p. 291) concept of manufactured risk considers the potential benefits to life experiences occurring within the realms of uncertainty, arguing ‘incalculable uncertainty can also be a source of creativity, the reason for permitting the unexpected and experimenting with the new’. Manufacturing risks, or uncertainty thus may lead to uncertain outcomes and ones which allow for new concepts and new ideas to transpire. Davies (1999), in his article about risk-taking for design and technology teachers, aligns risk as a means of creativity, arguing that despite the limited freedom schools are given to augment creative work, through taking risks, teaching can have positive effects on pupils. His definition of risk derives from the outcomes showing a potential benefit or reward to the individual through ‘identifiable gains’. He also notes that there is ‘an emotional exposure and adrenalin flow’ that is created when taking risks which can ‘reflect the general capacities and tendencies of the individuals to face and cope rationally with stress’ (Davies, 1999, p. 102). Coping rationally with stress, negotiating and making decisions are often seen when teachers
are training and learning how to teach. The Risk-Taking PDP placed importance on such processes and enabled training teachers to become familiar with these conditions and enabled them to practice new ideas and take risks within the safe learning context of their training programme. Rolfe (2010, p. 9) supports the notion that successfully managing risk in safe and simulating environments can help prepare ‘young people deal with problems they may face in other contexts’.

The definitions of risk outlined above are wide ranging and varied yet the Risk-Taking PDP necessitated a definition that was easy to understand applicable to context and one which offered those training teachers who engaged with it a starting point from which to develop practice by taking risks. Insights which guided the formulation of this definition began with the blog of Warrell (2013) who considered weighing up the probability of positive reward or negative outcomes and moving out of ones’ comfort zone. The reflective cycle outlined by Schön (1983) was utilised to consider problems in teaching and planning a risk to overcome these. The definition was as follows;

Risk taking is defined as an action or activity taken by choice in which a trainee takes risks in their practice to achieve a learning benefit. It considers the idea that trainees reflect upon an element of their professional development to challenge their own practices and routines by moving out of their comfort zone, assessing the potential negative consequences and having an idea of the probability of this occurring.

(Whitehouse, 2012)

For trainees, this summed up concisely the intentions of the programme and guided them in the risks they planned and ultimately took in order to achieve such rewards as higher levels of pupil learning, engagement and motivation.

Taking risks is not without its challenges. Dreger (2011) argues that even though such practices may lead to uncomfortable processes; this is where true teacher learning occurs. Concurring with this, Atkinson (2008, p. 9) suggests that real learning arises through an event which involves a movement into a new or changed ontological state, ‘a pedagogy which I call pedagogy against the state, . . . in order to expand our grasp of what it is to learn’ (Atkinson, 2008 p. 3). This model for learning considers the ‘notion of the not known and the idea of subjects-yet-to-come,’ much like Becks (2009, p. 292)
notion of risks ‘becoming real’. Thus, when taking risks, individuals are working with the uncertainty of unknown outcomes, which can lead to new learning (Atkinson, 2008) and creativity leading to new ideas (Beck, 2009). Atkinson (2014) argues that such pedagogy cannot help but to exist as part of the surroundings and ongoing interactions with others. It is in ‘such risk-taking in the process of pedagogical intra-relating that has the potential for an expanded comprehension of learning and teaching’ (Atkinson, 2014, p. 11). Essentially, risk-taking is seen to expand learning, develop creativity and move learners into the spaces of the not yet known in order for them to know and gain knowledge and reward. Such pedagogy could appear to be at odds with the learning of teachers, who consistently measure their own effectiveness and pupil learning against a constructed norm such as The National Teachers’ Standards (GOV.UK, 2011), Ofsted (2017) or the National Curriculum (DfE, 2013).

2.4.2 The Interconnectivity between Risk, Creativity and Innovation

The relationship between risk-taking, innovation and creativity has long been debated, particularly in the business world (Auernhammer and Hall, 2014; Baregheh, Rowley and Sambrook 2009; García-Granero et al, 2013) and to a lesser extent explored and researched within teaching (Ellis and Meneely, 2015; Hulse and Owens, 2017; Rolfe, 2010). The purpose of this section is to define and contextualise the interconnectivity between risk, creativity and innovation and their relevance to this study. Definitions will be explored alongside how literature and research view these connections, concluding with an overview of how the terms risk, creativity and innovation will be utilised within and inform the purposes of this study.

Generally, the accepted definition for creativity is that ‘Creativity requires both originality and effectiveness’ (Runco and Jaeger, 2012, p. 92) with innovation being seen as the creation and implementation of new ideas, or new knowledge (Van de Ven, 1986) which often leads to change (Baregheh, Rowley and Sambrook, 2009). One of the biggest challenges is seen to lie with defining the terms ‘creativity’ and ‘innovation’ as they are often used interchangeably when describing ‘(1) processes that result in something novel and valuable, and (2) the outcomes of such processes that are novel and valuable
in themselves’ (Auernhammer and Hall, 2014, p. 156). Whilst it is important to have a general understanding of the terms creativity and innovation, it is beyond the scope of this study to explore further the debates in defining these terms. The standard definitions outlined above will thus be used here when considering how risk, creativity and innovation interact, with an acceptance that definitions are varied and can be contextual or discipline related.

The relationship between risk-taking, creativity, and innovation has been explored by numerous scholars. Byrd and Brown (2007) for instance, designed an equation which directly links creativity, risk-taking and innovation deeming them inseparable. Their theoretical model for driving innovation suggests that innovation occurs where risk-taking and creativity intersect, hence the equation ‘creativity x risk taking = innovation’.

Thus, the outcomes or the innovation are as a result of original ideas being put into play under conditions of uncertainty and with the consideration of probability between a positive or negative outcome. García-Granero et al (2013) see developing creative ideas as the first stages to innovation and consider risk-taking as crucial for innovation, putting this to the test with a quantitative model which looks at the impact of a manager’s risk-taking propensity on innovation by considering the risk-taking climate within the organisation. Their findings show a positive link between managerial risk-taking and the organizational risk-taking climate. They suggest that the risk-taking climate of an organisation matters to enhance innovative performance and, ‘a risk-taking climate plays a pivotal role in ultimately explaining the effect of managers’ tendency toward taking risks on innovation outputs’ (García-Granero et al, 2013, p. 1101). Ellis and Meneely (2015) on the other hand term such practices which lead to innovation and new creative ideas as creative risk-taking. Whilst Rolfe (2010) suggests that risk-taking is essential to innovation and is becoming a core skill required by those young people entering the workforce. Rolfe (2010, p. 10) argues that when developing new ideas or innovating there is always the risk that they may not work. Risk-taking is therefore considered an essential feature of innovation (Rolfe, 2010).

For the purpose of this study, it is accepted that risk-taking, creativity and innovation are interconnected but not mutually exclusive. In addition to this, creativity and
innovation are seen here as generally involving taking some form of risk or engaging with uncertainty of outcomes. To serve as a reminder, inspiration for the Risk-Taking PDP was taken from one of the ‘outstanding’ Ofsted descriptors from that time; Trainees ‘take risks when trying to make teaching interesting, are able to deal with the unexpected and grab the moment’ (Ofsted, 2008, p. 1). The main focus of this study was about risk-taking for reward and benefits in learning either for pupils or the professional development of training teachers. Therefore, this concept takes priority as the main point for inquiry and discussion, even though creativity and innovation may form part of participants’ experiences.

2.4.3 Reflection on Practice and the Risk-Taking PDP

Definitions of risk, whether related to statistical probability (Campbell, 2006, Radakovic, 2015), the achievement of goals (Siegel, 2011), trying new things (Davies, 1999) or embracing the unknown (Dregere, 2011; Atkinson, 2014) all involve reflection upon present classroom practices, personal professional development or the outcomes of learners. This section aims to consider what is meant by reflection and how it relates to risk-taking and the Risk-Taking PDP. Definitions of reflection and reflective practice will be explored from the early writings of Dewey (1910) to more contemporary works of Schön (1987) and finally application of reflective practice to teaching through 9 R’s of Reflection (McLeod, 2013).

Reflection on practice by teachers has been a long-held concern and is considered almost crucial for present-day teacher and teacher training professional development (Edwards, Gilroy, and Hartley, 2002; McLeod, 2013; Moon, 2004; Rushton and Suiter, 2012). It enables teachers to take responsibility for continual development in their own learning and the learning of the pupils they teach (Rushton and Suiter, 2012; Moon, 2004). There have been a number of key writers who have conceptualised reflection and what it may mean for learning and teacher development (Brookfield, 1995; Dewey, 1910, 2008; Schön, 1987). The writings of Dewey (1910, 2008) introduced the concept of reflective thinking by considering the importance of lived experience and how we learn through our reflections on such experience. Reflection for Dewey begins when...
learners are faced with new or unfamiliar situations which create feelings of powerlessness. It is in such situations where greater learning occurs. For Dewey, feelings of powerlessness and the inability to solve problems ‘are key moments for learning; we can reflect on these problems to solve the perplexity and learn from it’ (Scales, 2008, p. 11). Dewey (1910) suggested that reflection involved thinking and giving serious consideration to the subject on ones’ mind. Rodgers (2002, p. 845) identified four criteria that she feels characterised Dewey’s concept of reflection. Firstly, that reflection is a process of meaning-making that deepens an individual’s understanding of each experience they have and, makes connections between these experiences. Secondly, reflection is deemed a ‘systematic, rigorous, disciplined way of thinking’. Thirdly, it involves interaction with other people, so reflection happens within communities of people and, fourthly that reflection necessitates the valuing of ‘personal and intellectual growth’ of both self and others.

Schön (1987) further conceptualised reflection and linked this to professional thinking. Seeing the failings of what he termed ‘technical rationality’ or, the application of reason to problems faced by professionals, Schön (1987) believed that considering alternatives and further possibilities, i.e. reflecting upon practice, to solve problems would improve the ability to deal with uncertainty. Schön (1987) referred to knowledge gained from the practitioner’s own experience and makes a distinction between two types of reflection. Reflection on action which is post-experience reflection that can inform future planning and, reflection in action which occurs during the experience and leads to changes being made whilst teaching. It considers the modification of practice during the experience and so advocates preparation for modification or developing the ability to ‘deal with the unexpected’ (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2015, p.236). Schön (1987) further discusses the notion that professionals have ‘tacit,’ ‘implicit’ knowing and this enables them to act instinctively in situations they are not familiar with. This is considered ‘knowing in action’ and enables practitioners to think and react to unplanned situations with reference to their existing knowledge, which leads to reflection in action. Attar, Shahabi and Amlashi (2016) revisited Schön’s writings on reflection considering how this work could inform practitioners and management professionals to better cope with uncertainty. They argue that when reflecting upon uncertainty in one’s practice, then the literal
application of theories or the simple calculation of probability or, applying technical rationality, does not go far enough to answer questions and resolve problems. Attar, Shahabi and Amlashi (2016, p. 594) utilise Schön’s work to suggest ‘a framework for handling uncertainty’ which consists of ‘a process in which practitioners strive to convert problem situations into packages of manageable problems’. They suggest that the process involves generic activities which include:

I. making sense of problematic situations, creatively recalling and reflecting on the ability of one’s established theories to bear on the phenomena,

II. metaphorically exploring the puzzling situation and establishing symbolic relations, and,

III. seeking to formulate and frame solvable problems while (iv) handling the anxiety this creates, with the result that there is no such thing as a final best formulation.


Elements of the framework presented by Attar, Shahabi and Amlashi (2016) are consistent with the reflective practices undertaken when risk-taking by considering not only the sense-making of problems, exploration of the factors associated with the problem and consideration of solutions but, also recognising the anxiety and troublesome processes that those taking risks face. In the same way, Moon (2005) also considers the importance of emotions when reflecting to gain a better understanding of our own practice. Moon (2005, p. 1) aligns reflection with the ‘mental processing’ of our ‘complicated or unstructured ideas,’ and emotions, to achieve the desired outcome.

The literature on reflection for teacher training is plentiful, with Rushton and Suiter (2012, p. 2) arguing that ‘reflective practice has enjoyed a privileged position in Initial Teacher Education since the mid-1990’s’. The abundance of information, research and redefinition of reflection has however been criticised in that definitions of reflection are often unclear or assumed and that teachers are unclear as to what they should reflect upon (Maynard and Furlong, 1995) with Jarvis (2005, p. 8) suggesting that ‘the term reflective practice had become so widely and inconsistently used that it had become devalued’. Furthermore, when considering reflective practice in teacher education, Capel and Blair (2007) argue that even though many teacher training programmes claim
to develop reflective practitioners, it is more the case that reflection is captured in a disorderly manner within the limited time frame of the training programme due to the prioritisation of competency-based ITET structures, rather than developed systematically over time. It could be argued that such criticisms could be addressed through clarification of definitions, clarity of that which teachers should reflect upon and a focus on developing specific aspects of practice and pedagogy. These were aspects found and defined once training teachers began to engage with the Risk-Taking PDP.

The research of McLeod (2013) offered clarity in its exploration of the process of critical reflection to enhance professional development for teachers engaging in participatory approaches to teaching with young children. McLeod (2013) found that within a process of critical reflection, participants became empowered and felt they had ownership of their knowledge and learning which inspired their confidence to take risks. Reflecting on practice in this way is argued (McLeod, 2013) as having an underpinning epistemology that aims for collaboration between tutors, mentors, training and early teachers to create a safe yet critically reflective environment. Such conditions enable positive conditions for risk-taking, ‘Creating . . . an open and trusting safe environment so that uncertainty and willingness to take personal risks are embraced’ (McLeod, 2013, p.16). McLeod’s research resulted in the design of the ‘9 R’s of Reflection,’ (see Figure 2.3) a practical framework to support teacher’s critical reflection on their day-to-day practice and was used to inform aspects of the Risk-Taking PDP.
Within the Risk-Taking PDP use of this model enabled trainees to understand aspects of reflection that could support their risk-taking practices. It embraced reciprocal relationships and collaboration between university tutors’ mentors and early teachers to create safe yet critically reflective spaces within which they could take risks to move the teacher into a new or changed ontological state of learning (Atkinson, 2008).
2.5 Chapter Summary

This review of literature aimed to set the study in context by outlining the historical and contemporary situations for teacher training, curriculum development, PE pedagogy and the challenges surrounding professional development for PE teachers and teachers generally. In addition, it has defined terms that are considered relevant to the study.

Initial Teacher Education and Training exists in a time of turbulence and uncertainty. Issues have been highlighted which arguably impact teacher practice and professional development and stem from the suggested neo-liberalist marketisation of the education system. For example; frequent change to policy, uncertainty surrounding accepted practices and, a higher demand for academic standards with an increased workload has been argued to reduce teacher autonomy and marginalise the processes of professional learning. Additionally, the ‘swinging pendulum’ (Robinson, 2006) between school-based and university-based models of training has characterised teacher education in the hope of training better equipped teachers to meet the needs and demands of the children they teach within today’s increasingly complex and continually changing society. The impact of curriculum reform, higher expectations, greater regulation, standardisation and accountability has been argued to reduce teachers’ professional autonomy, limiting freedom to explore new practices and engage with creativity and innovation. Wilkins (2011, p. 391) refers to a ‘risk-averse and target chasing’ culture that is infiltrating current education practice and in a similar manner, Biesta (2013) calls for a change to the risk aversion which permeates education today.

The impact of government policy and curriculum change to education more generally has manifested itself within the teaching of PE those practices undertaken by PE teachers and, the practices of those training PE teachers. Yet, notwithstanding contextual shifts, PE has undergone very little change over time, despite a number of pedagogic innovations. Furthermore, those pedagogic innovations which have proved successful rarely move beyond the initial implementation stages and fail to become embedded institutionalised practices. Physical education is caught up in a time of ‘innovation without change’ (Goodyear and Casey, 2015, p.187) where there is continual
challenge to justify the place of PE within the curriculum, many young people continuing
to reject much of that which is offered and, it is argued that PE has failed to realise its
purpose of lifelong participation in physically active lifestyles. Additionally, teacher
professional development, having experienced a range of models and diverse practices
over the years, is still regarded as ineffective, with teacher training courses considered
‘low impact’ (Capel and Blair, 2007, p. 23).

The motivations and drivers behind the Risk-Taking PDP were not to answer the bigger
problems faced by PE as explored through the literature. Neither was the Risk-Taking
PDP designed consciously to address the inadequacies of professional development for
training or teaching PE teachers. In its initial stages, it was simply a programme designed
to meet the needs of a group of training teachers who understood the basics of teaching,
had plateaued and needed further inspiration and challenge to move beyond their
comfortable practices in the contexts within which they found themselves. There is a
certain irony that inspiration for the Risk-Taking PDP was taken from the regulated and
standards-driven approach to teacher training offered by Ofsted and that the descriptor
used at the time; trainees ‘Take risks when trying to make teaching interesting, are able
to deal with the unexpected and grab the moment’ (Ofsted, 2008, p. 1), should
encourage teachers to challenge and question the norm and, work within the realms of
uncertainty and contingency when standardisation, uniformity and accountability tend
to characterise the current education system.

As I explored the literature, it became apparent that there was an unexplored gap
relating to risk-taking for PE teachers and how they navigate their way, developing
professionally within the context of the institutions in which they find themselves.
Innovation and creativity in PE practice and pedagogy have had increasing presence
within the literature (Goodyear and Casey, 2015; Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017).
However, there remains scope for research within PE and education to explore the
concept of risk-taking, how this may interact with innovation and creativity and its
usefulness to ITET programmes, teacher training and teacher professional development
more generally. Characteristics of the Risk-Taking PDP appear to align with
recommendations for effective professional development made through research and
literature. Those of critical reflection, challenging normal routines and practices, engaging collaboratively with others and problematising knowledge and thereby may offer useful insights into these areas. Furthermore, it is argued that there has been limited application of narrative inquiry approaches to physical education (Schafer, 2013, Casey and Schaefer, 2016), ones which explore in depth the context and circumstances experienced within the everyday reality of PE teachers. Through taking a narrative inquiry approach to the exploration of risk-taking experiences undertaken by training PE teachers, what started out as a study seeking to gain understanding to inform the longer-term relevance of the Risk-Taking PDP and offer new insights to PE ITET practices, may also illuminate possible wider risk-taking opportunities, for PE and teacher professional development more generally.
Chapter 3. Methodology

Introduction

This chapter outlines the complex and interconnected decisions that were made during the research process and how these threads have been woven at each stage of the research journey. The chapter begins with discussion of my philosophical and personal stance and justification of the research design of narrative inquiry. I also consider the necessity for researcher reflexivity for this approach and in doing so discuss the interwoven pasts between myself and the participants. Following this, the research design, data collection and process of analysis is presented along with, participant selection and recruitment and, related ethical implications. The chapter concludes by documenting the options taken in an attempt to ensure that this study is considered ‘quality’ qualitative research through its credibility, authenticity and trustworthiness.

3.1 Philosophical Stance

Methodology is considered to be the choice, justification, evaluation and reflection upon the methods that are used within a research study (Wellington, 2010). Contrary to this being an easy and straightforward process, the decisions made to form this final study have been interconnected and messy (Clandinin, 2013; Savin-Baden, 2004). In summarising such a process, the words of Wellington (2010, p. 131) aptly describe this as ‘threads to be woven by the doctoral researcher’. This study adopted an interpretive qualitative approach whereby knowledge and reality are seen to be socially constructed by human beings (Polkinghorne, 1988). This aligns with my beliefs and how I understand human lives and experiences (Clandinin, 2013), and is positioned within a social constructionist stance (Berger and Luckman, 1990 [1966]). Social constructionism, extending from social constructivism (Piaget, 1951) places emphasis on holism, considers understanding of phenomena in context, and prioritises the subjective meaning that humans associate with such phenomena and experience (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Thus, knowledge is not external to the individual, it is constructed with
others in a shared culture and with shared artefacts, language and meanings. Furthermore, it places emphasis upon knowledge construction which is active rather than passive, assuming that people create their own reality (Charmaz, 2014; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). And, where ‘knowledge lies in the minds of individuals who construct what they know on the basis of their own experiences’ (Savin-Baden and Major, 2013, p. 29). Advantages to this approach enable the exploration of contexts, finding out about the meanings that individuals give to their experiences and the co-construction of knowledge between the participant and researcher.

Focusing upon this ‘cultural collective activity that shapes individual actions’ (Grenier, 2007, p. 304) aims to demonstrate the lived experiences of participants who took risks during their training year and the influences on this risk-taking once teaching in schools. Pivotal to this research is the focus upon dialogue and negotiation (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Savin-Baden and Major, 2013) between me (as the researcher) and the research participants, holding concern with the way that PE teachers early in their careers constructed meanings and definitions in relation to risk-taking and the influences on this once they began teaching in schools. Furthermore, my philosophical stance aligns with the view that people’s lives are storied (Clandinin, 2013) and that individuals learn through experience, reflection and interaction with others (Dewey, 1910). Accordingly, this research valued the depth of information gained from taking a narrative inquiry approach, where meaning was sought from participant’s stories of experience; in this study, specifically, to understand the lived experience as constructed by those PE teachers who engaged in risk-taking during their training year.

3.2 Framing the Research: Weaving a Personal Stance with the Research Approach

This study adopted narrative inquiry, in order to recognise the understanding of human lives, experiences and meaning, as important knowledge (Clandinin, 2013; Polkinghorne, 1988; Squire, Andrews and Tamboukou, 2013). Narrative inquiry ‘records human experiences through the construction and reconstruction of personal stories’ (Mertova and Webster, 2009, p. 16) and explores the social, cultural, familial and
institutional narratives within which individual’s experiences are shaped (Clandinin, 2013). Furthermore, importance was placed upon situating both the researchers’ and participants’ meanings and experiences centrally and acknowledging that the stories of each had an impact on the other (Mertova and Webster, 2009; Clandinin, 2013). As a consequence, my own intentions for this study were to become immersed in the research, to consider the stories as experienced (Connelly and Clandinin, 1990) by a particular group of PE teachers early in their careers and discover the meanings that they gave to their experiences of risk-taking and its influence upon them once teaching in schools.

As a researcher, when considering research questions and methodology, my own position on the nature of knowledge (epistemology) and reality (ontology) shaped both my research and the way in which I approached it. My epistemological belief is that knowledge is constructed from multiple perspectives and experiences, and that reality is individually constructed, may have differing realities and is continually changing based on experience. Furthermore, my own beliefs and thus the beliefs underpinning this research were inspired by the pragmatic ontology of Dewey (1910, 1938) and his notion of learning through experience, reflection and interaction with others. Dewey believed that learning was both personal and social and these influences on learning are always present. Using narrative inquiry as a conceptual framework builds upon Dewey’s notion of learning through experience, reflection and interaction with others (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000; Schaefer and Clandinin, 2011; Casey and Schaefer, 2016). Following Clandinin and Connelly (2000, p. 2), to understand the experiences of individuals from a Deweyan perspective is to, therefore, see them as ‘always in relation, always in a social context’. Learning is thus seen as transactional, with a continual exchange and interaction occurring between individuals and the environment or social context. My beliefs underpinning this study are such that through experience and human context, physical and social events are transformed so changing and developing individuals through their interactions with what has previously been external to them (Dewey, 1910).
In utilising narrative inquiry, I wanted to centralise the notion of individual experience, more particularly, the stories of how individuals learn through experience, reflection and interaction with others (Dewey, 1910, 1938) when taking risks. Such an approach has the benefits of considering fully the contexts and meanings attributed to individual experiences and enables the co-construction of knowledge between participant and researcher. By engaging this approach, I offer a different perspective about the nature of professional development for PE teachers to that which has dominated the field by taking an ‘overly simplistic and static view of teachers as learners’ (Armour et al, 2017, p. 10). Dowling et al (2015, p. 6) talk of the growing dissatisfaction in PE research ‘with an overreliance on the empirical-analytical paradigm, which had rendered teachers to statistics in large-scale surveys, and interactionist and anthropological studies’. Craig, You and Oh (2012) outline how narrative inquiry can be a fundamental way of understanding PE within classroom settings. The purpose of this inquiry, therefore, did not intend to represent the world independently of the human being but to understand new relationships between human beings and their environment through the interactions and experiences within which they engaged, so capturing a more holistic understanding. Dialogue and negotiation already characterised the relationship between myself and the participants, our stories relating to risk-taking had already become interconnected during the training year through shared experience, reflection and interaction with each other. Thus, to continue the dialogue through narrative inquiry seemed the most appropriate and relevant approach to take to explore risk-taking and illuminate further knowledge in this area.

3.2.1 My Journey with Narrative Inquiry: Methodological Unfolding

My journey with narrative inquiry is a complex one and will now be explored. I considered a number of perspectives in order to analyse and retell participants’ stories in meaningful ways so that readers could understand and learn from them. My understanding of narrative inquiry is presented here and draws upon not only the work of Connelly and Clandinin (1990), who pioneered Narrative Inquiry for curriculum studies in Higher Education, but also the work that has grown in this area since their seminal approach. This chapter therefore draws on a variety of types narrative inquiry
alongside those narrative inquiry approaches in physical education which have influenced this study.

Narrative inquiry has, over the past three decades gained an increasingly high profile in social research (Clandinin, 2013; Polkinghorne, 1988; Squire, Andrews and Tamboukou, 2013), with qualitative research seeking to challenge the positivist empirical approaches towards knowledge and move towards a greater emphasis on holistic humanist approaches which consider human subjectivity (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Polkinghorne, 1988). Narrative inquiry provides an alternative view of knowledge to the more prominent positivist theories, methods and practices (Pinnegar and Daynes, 2007), one which focused upon an understanding and interpretation of human action, an approach where stories, narratives or descriptions of a series of events are fundamental to understanding human experience (Pinnegar and Daynes, 2007). Since the late 1980’s and through the 1990’s, qualitative educational research has undertaken what Clandinin (2013, p. 10) describes as ‘a sharp turn to narrative’; whereby narrative has become a reference for almost anything using for example, stories of representation, narratives as data and narrative as content analysis (Clandinin and Rosiek, 2007). Mertova and Webster’s (2009 p. 16) views align with this but suggest that no single narrative inquiry method predominates most likely because ‘the individual narrative inquiry approaches have been impacted by other theoretical underpinnings of the various disciplines’.

Savin-Baden and Major (2013) explore the varying purposes of using narrative inquiry, considering it as a way of understanding human experience, narratives as data, narrative as a research approach and narrative as a research product and, believe that what is most important for narrative research is that ‘researchers need to position themselves so that stories can be analysed effectively in the context of the given approach’ (Savin-Baden and Major 2013, p. 232). In positioning myself in this study, I intended to consider and explore the experiences of participants in order to find connections between events and thus offer understanding about risk-taking once teaching in schools. I examined the types of narrative outlined by Jeong-Hee (2016) and considered that this study aligned with the definition of a biographical life history or oral history but, related only to the overarching context of the study, that of risk-taking. Biographical life histories tell stories
about others who have common shared interests by exploring their lived experiences in daily life, and how they make sense of its meaning (Jeong-Hee, 2016). Furthermore, this approach usually focuses on people’s stories as insiders within a particular setting, and where the researcher tries to explain situations and ‘see the world through the eyes of people involved in particular events’ (Savin-Baden and Major, 2013, p 233). This type of inquiry analyses the stories of participants, rather than produces stories and would be considered explanatory rather than descriptive narrative (Polkinghorne, 1988).

In addition to this, the approach considered here aligns with the understanding of narrative inquiry according to Clandinin and Connelly (2000), which builds upon Dewey’s notion that experience is seen as continuous and interactive and if purposely reflected upon can be learned from. Clandinin and Connelly (2000) also consider narrative inquiry as holding a three-dimensional metaphorical space where temporality (the continuity between past present and future); sociality (personal and social interaction) and place (situation) all influence our thinking, learning and experience. Therefore, the experiences as told through stories are located within these three dimensions. In understanding the risk-taking experiences of the participants in this study, the term coined by Casey and Schaefer (2016, p. 118) ‘methodological unfolding’ illustrates the process that emerged, one which considers the concepts outlined by Clandinin and Connelly (2000) of living, telling, re-telling and re-living. Living involves each of us living stories and living within stories. Those stories we live in include institutional, cultural and other stories that shape the way we live. Those participants within this study would have lived their stories of risk-taking during the training year and once teaching in schools would have continued to either live their stories of risk (or without risk) within the institutions where they worked. Telling refers to how each of us tell stories, those of ourselves, others, the institutions in which we work and the cultures in which we live. Drafting of an event timeline and the interviews in which participants engaged (discussed in further detail later in this chapter), form their telling of the stories related to risk-taking including the institutional, cultural or personal influences that may have occurred. Re-telling involves the opportunity for participants to reflect upon and think deeply about their stories of risk as they become re-told by the researcher through transcripts and then through analysis and the generation of themes from their stories.
Finally, re-living demonstrates the ‘transactional nature of narrative inquiry’ (Casey and Schaefer, 2016, p. 119) in relation to their sociality, temporality and place. It is here where the stories re-told become transactional in that ‘this leaves the reader the opportunity to take up these findings in ways that are meaningful for them on their own knowledge landscapes and contexts’ (Casey and Schaefer, 2016, p. 119).

Narrative inquiry in PE has helped to develop understanding of issues and concerns ranging from capturing the teachers’ voice (Sparkes, 1993), learning from teacher reflection (Casey and Schafer, 2016), understanding PE teacher education (Armour, 1997; Legge, 2011) and school based practices (Craig, You and Oh, 2012). In response to gaining a more in-depth exploration of the experiences and insights into PE teaching and teacher education, Armour (1997) and Legge (2011) engaged with narrative inquiry so as to gain a greater subjective understanding through ‘insider perspectives and thick description of social realities’ of how and ‘why individuals in PE Teacher Education act in particular ways’ (Dowling et al, 2015, p.4). Similarly, within this study value is placed upon insider perspectives and thick description. Thick description originating through the writings of Ryle, became popular through the ethnographic works of Geertz (1973), which involved the observation of social life through intense and in-depth descriptions. Thick description is not a simple reporting of specific details, but considers meanings, motivations and shaped behaviour (Geertz, 1973; Savin-Baden and Major, 2013), it ‘presents detail, context, emotion, and the webs of social relationships that join persons to one another’ (Denzin, 2001, p. 100). Thick description enables generalisation and interpretation of the observed social life (Geertz, 1973). Following Geertz (1973, p. 5) my philosophical position aligns with the view that within cultures are the:

Webs of significance that man has himself spun and the analysis of it to be therefore not an experimental science in search of law but an interpretive one in search of meaning.

Insider perspective considers that the researcher investigates the contexts in which they work with the advantage of already having extensive knowledge of the context (Savin-Baden and Major, 2013). Conversely, this may lead to bias, making false assumptions or misinterpretation by the researcher, thus requiring reflexive consideration of the
researcher in relation to the research (Salzman, 2002; Savin-Baden 2004). My own reflexive stance will be discussed in more depth later on in this chapter.

In order to gain a depth of description interviews have focused on participants telling their individual stories and experiences through open questions. Furthermore, for the reader to experience the depth of description, this study provides relevant participant quotations within the analysis chapter to inform analysis themes. Use of such thick description allows the reader to ‘naturally generalize his or her experiences to those that have been captured . . . it creates verisimilitude, a space for the reader to imagine his or her way into the life experiences of another’ (Denzin, 2001, p. 99). Even though this study does not seek to make generalisations to other contexts, a value is seen for readers to relate to and imagine those experiences of participants.

In further support of narrative inquiry, the position paper of Craig, You and Oh (2012) considers it a valuable research method which can make a positive contribution to knowledge when studying the experiences of PE teachers. Following Craig, You and Oh (2012) it is my belief that researchers using school based narrative inquiry are uniquely placed to gain insights into the educational challenges facing PE teachers today, how they interact with other individuals and department members to co-construct curriculum and policy so as to gain a more enriched and advanced understanding of these aspects. In doing so, this study focuses on an enriched and deep understanding of how teachers define and experience risk-taking when training and once teaching in schools.

Narrative inquiry has also informed the notion of identity and its complexities for both teachers early in their careers (Schaefer and Clandidnin, 2011) and educators of PE teachers (Schaefer, 2013, Casey and Schaefer, 2016). Much like Casey and Schaefer’s (2016) descriptions, in considering my own stories alongside those of early PE teachers, there have been experiences which have affected my own professional learning; these have served to provide me with a greater depth of knowledge regarding teacher education. Narrative inquiry has considered impact from both the perspectives of the
researched and the researcher. The impact was significant on, for example, Schaefer (2013, p. 22) who describes:

These early career teachers’ stories helped me see that future physical education teachers I work alongside are also in the midst of negotiating who they are as people who live on both personal and professional landscapes.

Additionally, Casey and Schaefer (2016) retell the stories of one of the authors, Ashley, where it became evident that Ashley’s ‘stories to live by’ had changed. He began to view his PE students as co-creators of knowledge, ‘it seems that Ashley’s autobiographical revisions included a shift away from him as curriculum implementer/interventionist, to the students and himself as curriculum planners’ (Casey and Schaefer, 2016, p. 127), and began to consider the stories of others who had affected his professional and personal self through his PE career. In conclusion, Casey and Schaefer (2016) question the way that ITET is designed to meet the professional needs of teachers as they enter the complex professional landscape of PE teaching with its dominant storylines and, call for a greater understanding of how we support PE teachers as they move through their first years of teaching. Even though the two research papers described above are distinct from this study, in that they take single case biographical and autobiographical stories, they do offer a similarity where the use of narrative seeks to be explanatory (Polkinghorne, 1988). Furthermore, the benefits described by Casey and Schaefer (2016) and Schaefer (2013) of narrative inquiry, seeing teachers as individuals, ‘in the midst of negotiating future stories’ (Schaefer, 2013, p. 24) and utilising stories to reconsider how ITET is designed to meet the needs of these individuals resonate with the intentions of this study. Through hearing the stories of those early PE teachers who took risks during their training year, their experiences once teaching in schools will be explored, to illuminate how teacher educators, including myself as the researcher, may support early PE teachers professionally as they move into the complex professional landscapes in their first years of teaching.

Narrative inquiry is a relevant and contributory method to gain an in-depth understanding and insight into the experiences of risk-taking for PE teachers, early in their teaching careers. Such an approach enables the voices of both the training teacher and the teacher educator to be captured (Casey and Schafer, 2016; Dowling et al, 2015)
and provides a ‘democratic and inclusive approach to knowledge production’ (Dowling et al. 2015, p. 13) and one which may offer reflexive insights into the future of risk-taking for PE ITET.

Whilst narrative inquiry has much to offer, there are some challenges that should be considered. Savin-Baden and Major (2013) remind us that stories can be difficult to interpret, particularly when reinterpreting stories, when moving from **telling** to **retelling** stories (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000). The interpretation and reinterpretation of participants’ stories is considered by Gergen and Gergen (2003) who refer to the ‘crisis of validity’ and ‘rights of representation’. If it is accepted that narrative inquiry holds no single truth and that narrative forms through a co-construction between the researcher and participant within historically and socially situated communities then this raises issues about the validity of the research findings and also whether the researcher is able to ‘legitimately represent the research participants’ (Hunter, 2010, p.44) without their own views influencing the meanings relayed. This leads to questions of whether the findings are a valid representation of the truth or a product of the stories that people learn to tell and which are embedded in the situational contexts from which sense is made of the world (Gergen and Gergen, 2003). The social constructionist stance does, however, consider that narratives are dependent upon the context of both the teller and the listener and do not intend to represent the ‘truth’ (Hunter, 2010). In aiming for a valid representation of participants’ stories, it is important that I take a reflexive approach, situating myself and my own context within the research process throughout this study. One further consideration when undertaking narrative inquiry is that the researcher must be prepared to protect their participants (Savin-Baden and Major, 2013), sometimes from themselves and through careful consideration of the stories told. I already had established relationships with participants and at the outset of this study sought to ensure that participants were kept safe from harm, their experiences voiced and that they were comfortable within the **telling** and **retelling** of their stories. This alongside consideration of my own reflexive position enabled me to have a conscious awareness throughout the study.
3.2.2 Threads of Self through Reflexivity

It is important here to situate myself in relation to both the research and the personal stances of those participants involved in the research so that I am able to demonstrate a conscious awareness of the biases that I may bring to this study and the interpretations presented. I will do this by considering the notion of reflexivity (Salzman, 2002, Savin-Baden, 2004) and the ‘the turning-back of the experience of the individual upon himself’ (Salzman, 2002, p.805).

To begin with my own story, I dedicated my early professional life, (16 years), to enhancing the learning and life experiences of children, particularly secondary aged children in the discipline of PE. Very much like the participants of my research, I once had aspirations to be a PE teacher and strived to achieve this goal. Subsequently, my professional career moved into Higher Education, specifically as a PE teacher educator. This ensured a sustained focus upon enhancing the learning and life experiences of children through training those who would go on to become PE teachers. My shift from a practitioner in school teaching children, to a more critical and research informed practitioner in Higher Education teaching teachers, challenged me to consider knowledge in the context of my own identity. I began to realise that all elements of my own learning at school and subsequent interactions within my professional life had shaped and influenced my personal and professional identity. Epistemological questions emerged that I considered and attempted to answer, one aspect, in particular, being the influence of other professionals whom I engaged with during my years of teaching in schools. I questioned where the knowledge came from which informed me on how to be and behave as a teacher. I believed this came from my early childhood experiences in school encouraged by the characteristics and values of the teachers I held in high esteem and saw as role models, I aspired to be like them and modelled my own professional values on these individuals. My own story, motivations to teach PE and influences, I came to realise mirrored that reflected within much PE related research (Capel and Blair, 2007; Gurvitch, Lund and Metzler, 2008; Lawson, 1988).
Until my move to Higher Education, I had simply accepted who I was and the core values I held without questioning or problematising them. From my own experiences of recruiting PE teachers and engaging in dialogue with trainee teachers, very little seems to have changed between today’s experience of becoming a PE teacher and that which I experienced twenty-six years ago. During this time there have been developments in pedagogic knowledge and models of practice (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982; Casey, 2014; Goodyear and Casey, 2015; Metzler, 2005; Siedentop, 1994), changes to curriculum and policy that is having an impact on PE (Armour et al, 2017; Jess, Atencio and Thornton, 2008; Kirk, 2004), challenges to recruitment for PE teacher training places with government imposed caps of 2015 (Scott, 2015) and, the subsequent U-turn (NCTL, 2016) and, consistent recruitment over target for PE teacher training (DfE, 2016a) leading to greater competition to enter the profession. Despite these changes over time, the motivation behind and passion to become a PE teacher for those that I have trained appears to remain consistent with my own motivations. My own dreams, aspirations and stories resonate with those of the teachers I trained and, the participants of my research, connecting myself (as the researcher) with the researched through our professional journeys and stories.

Having such connections and shared similar experiences of the dominant discourses in PE can arguably hold contradictions whereby such dominant discourses are confirmed rather than challenged by PE teacher educators (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Capel, 2005). More recent research strengthens the view that PE teacher educationalists, ‘who share a common background’ (Mordal-Moen and Green, 2014, p. 430) with those recruits they train continue to perpetuate the same curriculum models and are unwilling to consider alternative views. In their case study approach Mordal-Moen and Green (2014) examine the place of reflexivity in the philosophies and practices of PE teacher educators concluding that their findings add weight to already strong literature suggesting that ‘Teacher education tends to confirm rather than challenge student teachers’ beliefs about PE as well as their anticipated practices’ (Mordal-Moen and Green, 2014, p.430). Even though reflection on practice has seen increased prominence in teacher education, including PE teacher education (Capel, 2005; Tinning, 2006; Zwozdiak-Myers, 2015), the practice of reflexivity, which Mordal-Moen and Green (2014, p. 416) refer to as:
A process often called ‘self-referencing’, whereby individuals come to recognize the way(s) in which their situations serve, in effect, to socialize them into ways of thinking and doing that they largely take-for-granted even viewing them as ‘natural’ is scarce. Furthermore, they argue that reflexive practice is more of ‘an ideal than a reality’ (Mordal-Moen and Green 2014, p. 431) in teacher education and subsequently teachers. These findings would advocate that within this study there is a greater need for me to take a reflexive approach. Throughout the subsequent analysis, discussions and conclusions of this study, I intend to demonstrate a reflexive and conscious awareness of the contexts in which I have worked and lived so as to situate myself in relation to the participants’ stories from within the research (Savin-Baden, 2004).

My interest in risk-taking likewise stemmed from my own personal experiences, whereby I have continually sought opportunities to move out of my comfort zone, take professional risks in my teaching and professional life and, continually reflect upon my own practice in order to enhance learning. The risks that I have taken have, in the main, been successful and have had a significant impact on my own personal and professional development. Such risks in school have involved engaging pupils with real-life experiences, enabling, for example learning outside the classroom in the outside environment and setting learning within authentic contexts of the local community. I have also taken risks when interpreting curriculum policy as a Head of PE department, offering alternative activities to a traditional curriculum in an attempt to engage and motivate young and disabled people in physical activity. As a practitioner, holding such an awareness of risk-taking and what it constitutes within the profession could be seen as holding importance for reflective and reflexive practice. Such awareness and understanding, held by myself as a PE teacher and teacher educator appears to be at variance with the conclusions drawn by Mordal-Moen and Green (2014) of teacher educators perpetuating the dominant discourses of PE. In addition to examples from my time as a PE teacher there are examples from within my current role and context as a teacher educator. When presenting elements of this research at conferences, I have taken risks, by using music and video imagery to portray my own emotional perception of risk-taking and have engaged the conference audience with PE related tasks. My own risk-taking has often been planned with a purpose to enhance or improve a learning
experience and has ignited emotional feelings of apprehension, nervous excitement and pride. I believe that my own desire to reflect, try new and innovative things and engage with risk-taking to continually develop both myself professionally and, the people I teach, has led to what I would consider my own professional learning. Within this research I am mindful that these successes have been in part the driving force behind both my passion for the Risk-Taking PDP and also this research and, during delivery of the sessions have stepped back to considered that others, i.e. trainee teachers, may consider this in a different light to me, not wishing to engage with risk-taking or indeed they may see little value in it.

It was with an understanding of my own historical context, with the varied experiences which were aligned with those of my research participants and, a passion to take risks to enhance learning and develop practice, that I approached this research. It was with the ‘messiness, self-critique and pain’ of qualitative research, as described by Savin-Baden (2004, p. 367) that I wished to engage when interpreting the stories and lived experiences of those participating in the research. Furthermore, ensuring a reflexive recognition of my own story and experiences and how these come together to form an illuminative understanding of what may constitute one aspect of professional learning i.e. risk-taking, for PE teachers early in their career. This stance openly recognises my own place in the research and provides a platform to interrogate my own beliefs, biases and perspectives.

3.2.3 Interwoven Pasts

The practical considerations outlined by Wellington (2010) were considerations when deciding upon the purpose of this study and the choice of participants. He argues that time constraints, gaining access to participants and sampling are all considerations which need to be made when designing doctoral research. Wellington (2010) further contends that the research questions should be formulated before the methods, with research questions reviewed in light of the complexities of the research. This study, alongside the choice of participants and their relationship with the researcher, offered justification to the research approach and one which supported my choice of narrative
inquiry to shape and inform this study. This approach sought to find the depth of meaning and experience for those teachers who took risks during their training year and the influences on this once teaching in schools.

For all participants in this research, I was their tutor during their training year and so responsible for supporting their progress and achievements. Hence, it was for this one year for each of the participants, that our lives, our experiences and our stories were first interconnected. It was within these interconnected experiences, as I saw changes in trainee reflection, changes in practice and growth in professional knowledge, that I became most interested. Goodyear and Casey (2013), Casey, Dyson and Campbell (2009) and Armour and Yelling (2007) remind us of how such collaboration with others, sharing, and collective experience can support meaning making and learning between individuals. It was from these interconnected experiences that my interest in the personally constructed and reconstructed stories of my trainee teachers emerged. Drawing upon the notion that human lives are storied lives (Clandinin, 2013; Connelly and Clandinin, 1990; Polkinghorne, 1988) and seeing narratives as a way of understanding how individuals experience the world, this approach sought to gain a deep understanding of the complexities, emotional and human centred nature of risk-taking. It valued personal descriptions and experiences of the PE teachers I trained and who were teaching in schools, as forms of evidence to illuminate the knowledge base related to risk-taking and PE teacher training.

3.3 Research Design

This section will outline the design of the study, highlighting and justifying processes and practicalities associated with selection of participants, ethical considerations, data collection and analysis.

3.3.1 Research Participants

This section will begin by providing a rationale for the sample of participants whose stories were heard for this research. Flick (2014) asserts that qualitative researchers may select participants if their views are meaningful and they have the necessary knowledge
and experience for answering the questions posed during the interview. For the purpose of this study, this was the case. Participants comprised nine secondary school PE teachers who were early in their careers and had been teaching for between two months and five years in secondary schools. More specifically, the participants comprised a purposive sample (Flick, 2014) of teachers, from one Higher Education Institution, who engaged with the Risk-Taking PDP during their training year. A purposive sample (Flick, 2014) was adopted because of the researcher’s interest in exploring the experiences of a particular group of people, i.e. those who elected to engage with the Risk-Taking PDP and were tutored by the researcher. To explore participants’ memories of risk-taking during the training year and the influences upon this once teaching in schools, participants needed to have undertaken the programme to have the understanding necessary to engage with the research. The sample aimed to reflect, as far as possible, a range of contexts in relation to gender, type of school and training routes, including Post Graduate Certificate in Education, Professional Graduate Certificate in Education, Graduate Training Programme and School Direct. Research findings intended to provide understanding which may illuminate the different influences on risk-taking, between settings in which teachers took risks, and between individuals who took risks. This was so as to achieve what Creswell (2002) terms representativeness of the context.

4 The Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) is a one or two-year academic qualification that can be achieved during a teacher training course. It is part of all university-led postgraduate teacher training programmes and most school led routes. A PGCE is an internationally recognised qualification and can carry Masters-level credits. (DfE, 2017b).

5 The Professional Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) is an award that is achieved during a teacher training course and leads to Qualified Teacher Status but does not carry credits towards a master’s degree.

6 The Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) was a programme where graduates could gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) whilst working in a school as an unqualified teacher (Gov.uk, 2016/2017). The length of time in training could vary, however at the institute where participants trained, this was always one year and followed a similar programme to the PGCE at this institute.

7 School Direct (SD) or School Direct Salaried (SDS) are courses which usually last one year and result in Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). They replaced the GTP programme in 2012. Schools recruit trainees with a job in mind on completion of the course. Trainees train in a network of schools who are in partnership with a university or a school-centred initial teacher training (SCITT) provider.
and the diversity of training teachers’ and the school environments in which they find themselves.

Around 100 male and female trainee PE teachers engaged with the Risk-Taking PDP during the academic years from 2011/2012 to 2015/2016, trainees were from the variety of training routes, PGCE, GTP and School Direct. The initial intention of the research was to recruit participants who reflected, as far as possible, a broad range of contexts. This was attempted, and of the thirty past trainees contacted, nine agreed to be research participants, however, not all of the contexts initially aimed for were achieved. Not all cohort years were represented and those who had more recently completed the training year seemed more willing to participate in the research. The reality of recruiting participants was that some past trainees who were contacted either did not respond or were too busy in their teaching jobs to afford the time and commitment to being a participant for the purposes of this in-depth research. This was disappointing at first; however, as a busy professional, I empathised with the situations of those contacted. Even though the sample of participants was purposive and the researcher attempted to recruit from a variety of contexts, the stories told within this research are from willing and available PE teachers who may have had different experiences of risk-taking to those who did not wish to be participants or may value risk-taking in a different way. However, it should be recognised that the eventual participants were those who wished to engage with the research and had the time to do so. Further reference to this will be made to this limitation in the discussion and concluding chapters of this study.

Narrative inquiry, due to its aim to gather in-depth and detailed information has had varied, yet a small number of participants. Guetterman (2015), in his analysis of qualitative research sample size, found that for narrative inquiry, the mean sample size was 15 with a range from 1 to 24. Jeong-Hee (2016) highlights the difficulties that are faced when considering an optimal sample size for narrative inquiry, making similar suggestions to Gutterman (2015) that more importantly the sample size should be justified and sufficiently meaningful for the purposes of the study, not be repetitive or lose its depth for qualitative analysis. Narrative inquiry exploring teacher and teacher
educator stories using in-depth analysis of single case narratives have been popular (Vanassche and Kelchtermans, 2016; Casey and Shafer, 2016; Schafer, 2013). These have taken similar forms whereby narratives are analysed for depth of meaning; however, these have been self-study research and biographical or autobiographical approaches respectively. Chappell’s (2014) doctoral research takes a narrative approach and explores the way in which professional learning is experienced by three PE teachers using a collaborative multi-stage analysis of three research conversations leading to co-constructed narratives. This multi-stage approach gathering appropriate in-depth detail to justify findings of the study involving hearing participants’ stories and collaborative analysis. The approach taken for this study differs from those outlined above in that it explores the stories of teachers who had engaged with the Risk-Taking PDP with a purpose of gaining an in-depth understanding of the definitions attributed to risk-taking and the influences once teaching in schools through one narrative interview with each participant followed by a series of member checks.

This study wished to explore a range of contexts, lengths of service in schools and also variations in training and school context. Based on this, a larger sample than those already described was believed necessary, however, not one too large it may become unmanageable or may lead to repetitive data losing the depth of detail from the individual stories to be reported upon. The research of Hwang (2009, p. 697) utilises ‘narrative inquiry as a methodology for understanding and examining teachers’ interpretations of their environment-related teaching experiences’. In much the same way as this study, Hwang (2009) utilised narrative inquiry to generate teachers’ stories and analyse them by ‘exploring meanings, values, identities or models of action’ (Hwang, p. 701) with eleven secondary school teachers. In a similar vein to the research of Hwang (2009), for the purpose and scope of this study, nine narrative interviews were felt to provide sufficient meaningful data for understanding teachers experiences of risk-taking and to claim credibility of the findings and recommendations (Wells, 2011). Interviews were followed up with verification of transcripts and member checking of themes relevant to each participant. The study participants comprised five male and four female participants, with teaching experience ranging from two months to five years and the
3.3.2 Introducing the Research Participants

The following section begins with my own story as researcher and participant and follows with a brief summary of each participants’ narrative account. Pseudonyms have been used so as to protect their identity and their description appears according to the year they did their teacher training, beginning with those who had been teaching the longest. The full and more detailed biographical accounts of participants can be found in Appendix 8.

Kerry: My role as participant and researcher

In inquiring into my own experience as a narrative inquirer the questions I considered were borne out of the suggestions made by Clandinin (2013); ‘Who am I in this narrative inquiry?’ ‘How have my knowledge landscapes informed and, how do they continue to inform the inquiry?’ and, ‘Who am I becoming as a result of my narrative inquiries with participants?’ My own narrative account builds upon earlier discussion around the context of my professional and reflexive storyline (Chapter 3.2.2, p. 57 – 60) and, provides a starting point from which subsequent personal reflections are based.

I am a former PE teacher and had been a PE teacher educator for four years before embarking upon this research journey of a professional doctorate. My move to Higher Education saw a welcome increased level of autonomy for me to engage with my own new and creative ideas to transform the learning experiences of those I taught. Hence developing the Risk-Taking PDP alongside a number of other initiatives. Maybe there was a certain naivety as to the reality of true autonomy within HE, yet my drive and passion to continually learn, develop and explore new ideas did not and has not yet faded.

I was in my mid 40’s when I began to study the professional doctorate course that would lead me to engage as a researcher with narrative inquiry and disrupt my own experience
and storyline. As a secondary PE teacher educator my motivations were two-fold. Primarily to enhance the learning and teaching practices of those early teachers that I trained and, prepare them for teaching in schools and, secondly, to enhance my own learning and professional practice. The pragmatic ontology of Dewey (1910, 2008), his theory of experience and the influence of past, present and future on learning, already formed an important part of my own way of thinking. Whilst considering my approach to this study, the interconnected relationships and experiences were already formed with participants and I wanted to continue to hear their stories as I began to explore my research inquiry. I saw narrative inquiry as a way of understanding both participants and my own past, present and future experiences. I wanted to understand the complex, emotional and human centred nature of risk-taking and I wanted to learn with and from the individuals I had come to know well and ‘bumped alongside’ during their training year.

My journey began before the first interview with Jonathan yet this experience helped to shape the process which followed. To recall, I felt very nervous as this was my first experience of narrative interviewing and I was acutely aware that I wanted my first interview to be successful. The burden of responsibility I felt was towards the people involved in this journey, first and foremost to Jonathan (and later other participants), secondly to my supervisors who had guided and supported me through troubled times to get to this stage and, thirdly to myself, my own professional identity. I recall throughout my life and career as a teacher, how I always strived to do better things, to learn more and feel a level of exploration and progress in both my work and personal life. This first interview I somehow saw as a test to see if I had the skills and knowledge to really be an academic within the context of my professional setting, higher education. I continually questioned whether I was ‘good enough’ and felt at times a crisis of confidence, the first interview with Jonathan was such a time.

I had not seen Jonathan since he had completed his training course and wondered how I would feel when I heard his stories. My worries were unwarranted as we chatted about family and personal changes in circumstance. The ice had been broken and the interview continued productively and in the main comfortably. I did however become aware that
Jonathan seemed a little uneasy at first. He seemed to hold my opinion of him, as a professional, in high esteem and maybe wished for me to see him in the positive and successful light that I had seen him as a training teacher. I now realise that to overcome this I consciously smiled, used positive language and used a range of voice tones to reassure Jonathan that his stories were important and relevant to the inquiry. I felt a shift back into my role as his tutor and even though not able to adjust how Jonathan was feeling, I wanted our conversation and exploration of his professional journey of risk-taking to be on an equal level. This experience set the context for the other participants I would subsequently meet and led me to consider how I could ensure they felt at ease and confident to tell their stories.

Throughout the interview and research process I learned not only about the experiences of participants but also about my own approach to this inquiry and my own professional context more generally. My views on my professional role shifted and subsequently I questioned how I could continue to support my training teachers and prepare them for the landscapes they would experience once they moved into schools. These personal reflections are explored in later chapters.

Practically, I saw this study as a way to reflect upon one aspect of my practice, ‘The Risk-Taking PDP,’ to consider its value and longer-term relevance for those future teachers I would train. I wanted to explore my own practices in a structured way and hoped that the findings may provide resonance for other training teachers and teacher educators. Socially or theoretically I considered this work to add a little to the existing work in PE, albeit limited, using a narrative inquiry approach to support the professional development of early career PE teachers.

Jonathan

Jonathan was 25 when he embarked upon his teacher training course through the Graduate Teaching Programme (GTP). Jonathan always challenged himself during the training year and was keen to take risks, try new ideas and continually challenge his practice, even when at times this was hard. Jonathan was offered his first teaching post
at the school in which he trained as his main placement and taught PE and Geography there for just over two years. He then successfully applied for an Assistant Head Teacher post in a Key Stage 3 Pupil Referral School, where he had been working for five months before circumstances led to him becoming an acting Head teacher of the school. Jonathan had been in this role for eight months and was aged thirty when he was interviewed for this study.

James

James was twenty-two when he began the teacher training course. He had taken his degree after completing A Levels and had been an undergraduate at the university in which he completed his PGCE course. James was one of the trainees who actively took risks during his second placement and wrote two of these up as case studies, as part of a previous research venture, and to share with others. James completed his teacher training year successfully and went on to gain employment in an 11 – 16 High School. James had worked in this school for four years as a teacher of PE and just prior to my contacting him about the research had made a conscious decision to leave this school without having gained alternative employment so that he could have the flexibility to follow alternative careers working with children, possibly teaching rugby.

Lizzie

Like James, Lizzie had also completed her training year at the university where she had completed her undergraduate degree. During the training year Lizzie aimed for the highest standards in her academic work, lesson planning and teaching. At times Lizzie found aspects of teaching challenging, not least because she set high expectations for herself. She was always motivated to provide the best learning experience for the children she taught and took risks within her teaching as one way to do this. When I interviewed Lizzie at her school in May of 2016, she was twenty-three and it was her second year of teaching. She described to me a large department that comprised colleagues who had been teaching PE at her school for many years. Despite few staff changes and promotion being rare internally to the school, when we met, Lizzie had aspirations to apply for a promotion in the next year or so.
Helena

Helena was twenty-two when she completed her training year following the School Direct route. After completing her Physical Education and Coaching Science degree, securing a 2:1 classification, Helena took one year out before applying to teacher training to travel and work as a swim school co-ordinator. During the training year, Helena was keen to take risks to develop her practice and most valued learning in collaboration with other colleagues. Upon successful completion of the training year, Helena was appointed at the school where she trained and had been teaching there for two years when interviewed at the age of twenty-five.

Jennifer

Jennifer completed her degree at the University in which she subsequently trained to teach on the PGCE Core route at the age of twenty-two. Her first degree was in Physical Education and Sports Studies and she had a significant amount of experience teaching and coaching children before she joined the course. Throughout the training year Jennifer was rigorous in her approach to teaching and being highly personable she engaged well with the children she taught. She always strived to develop her practice and had a willingness to try new ideas and take risks. When interviewed Jennifer had just completed her NQT year in a co-educational 11-18 maintained selective grammar school.

Joe

Joe began the PGCE Core route at the age of twenty-three having achieved a 2:1 degree in Sport and Physical Education, he had previous experience teaching and coaching children and had worked for a year as a teaching assistant. During the training year, Joe took risks particularly through using technology to enhance learning in his lessons. Joe went on to gain employment in a 13-18 Co-educational academy High School and Sixth Form Centre and had completed his NQT year at this school before securing a new post in an 11 – 16 Co-educational High School. Joe was twenty-five when he was interviewed during the summer holidays before he started his new job. Joe was very excited and looking forward to the prospect of teaching in a different school.
Sarah

Sarah completed her degree at the university in which she subsequently trained to teach on the PGCE core route. Sarah was twenty-four when she trained to teach and she had worked for 4 years as a Teaching Assistant within a PE department at a secondary school local to the university in which she trained. Sarah actively explored new ideas to enhance her teaching and the learning of pupils and willingly took risks to develop these further. Upon completing the training year, Sarah secured employment in a partnership 13 – 18 Co-educational High School where she had just completed a highly successful NQT year. Sarah was twenty-seven when she was interviewed for this research.

Luke

Luke began the PGCE core training year at the age of twenty-two. He had achieved a 2:1 degree in Sport, Physical Education and Coaching Science and entered the course with high levels of critical self-reflection upon his teaching experiences and practices. Luke’s subject knowledge and understanding of teaching early on during the course indicated that he would become an outstanding teacher and that he would rise to any challenges that presented themselves. He regularly challenged his practice and frequently took risks to develop his teaching and the learning of pupils. Following a highly successful NQT and first year of teaching, Luke had gained promotion and held responsibility for A‘ Level PE development within his employing school. Luke was twenty-four when he interviewed.

Nathan

Nathan was twenty-eight when he embarked on the School Direct route to teacher training having gained a degree in Sport and Exercise Science. He was one of the more mature trainees on the course. Nathan completed his degree at the institution in which he did his teacher training year but prior to this spent time working as a personal trainer at a Health and Fitness club, and as an athletics coach. Nathan completed the training year having become a highly successful and independently thinking teacher. He continually challenged his practice taking risks to develop his teaching knowledge further. Nathan secured a teaching post towards the latter stages of the course in an 11
– 16 Mixed Academy School and had been in position for two months when he was interviewed at the age of twenty-nine.

3.3.3 Data Collection

Following Clandinin (2013) and Savin-Baden (2004), narrative inquiry seeks to develop understanding through exploring and interpreting stories of experience and thus a narrative interview should ask questions which enable participants to tell their stories. My choice of methods was guided by engagement with the literature and in keeping with the nature of the qualitative design of the research. Data were collected in three phases; completion of a timeline which provided examples of risks taken and was administered prior to interview; a narrative interview which lasted between forty-five minutes to one-hour which was transcribed (See Appendix 9 for an example transcript), participant verification of transcripts and member checking of themes relevant to the experiences of each participant. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

During the first phase, participants were asked to record demographic information and a timeline of memories of risk-taking (Appendix 6). Collecting demographic information aimed to ensure the accuracy of specific details, for example; age, degree title and classification, name and type of employing school, current position and promotional status. The memory timeline intended to serve as an aide memoir from which the starting point of the narrative interview could be framed. It had been up to five years since some participants had engaged with the Risk-Taking PDP and I was aware of entering the research relationship ‘in the midst’ (Clandinin, 2013, p. 43). My own life and those of the participants, the teachers I had trained, had been reshaped through those ‘unfolding social, cultural, institutional, linguistic and familial narratives’ (Clandinin, 2013, p. 43) of the past, present and future. The timeline asked participants to recollect their memories of risk-taking and map any particular times which were most prominent. They were asked to recollect their rationale behind taking the risk, other people who may have been involved and the outcome for either themselves or the pupils they taught. In much the same way as Clandinin and Connelly (2000, p. xiv) describe field texts, the timelines requested from participants served as ‘memory enhancers that fill
the spaces of forgotten occurrences (outward experience) and feelings (inward experience). I requested the demographic information and timeline from participants prior to the interview and this at times served as a starting point from which a greater depth of information related to definitions and influences on risk-taking could be gleaned. Timelines generally helped participants to remember and focus on examples of times they had taken risks in the past. Some participants had engaged more fully in detailing memories of risk-taking than others so there was variance in content and detail. For some they offered a solid basis from which interviews began and for others limited reference was made. Even though the timeline was not utilised consistently between all participants, it did serve as an aide memoire and starting point for interviews, as was intended.

During the second phase and in order to gain depth of information sought for this study, narrative interviews were conducted. Narrative interviews are intended to encourage participants to tell a story about significant times or events in their lives and the social context (Jovchelovitch and Bauer, 2000; Savin-Baden and Major, 2013). Following Flick (2014, p. 265) they were asked to ‘remember and recount their experiences’ of risk-taking. Using the technique of Reimann and Schütze, Flick (2014, p.266) suggests that narrative interviews are begun with a ‘generative narrative question,’ which encourages the interviewee to recount their story. My first question was to ask participants to recall their experiences of risk-taking from the training year. Interviews then proceeded according to the story told by the participant. Further questions were asked (Appendix 7) during the interview which related to the aims of the study and these were drawn upon where necessary as a guide. Savin-Baden and Van Niekerk (2007, p. 462) in their adaptation of Holloway and Jefferson’s work suggest four principles which enable the participants meaning to be at the forefront of the interview.

These are;

1. Use open-ended questions
2. Elicit stories
(3) Avoid ‘why’ questions

(4) Follow up using respondents’ ordering and phrasing.

Throughout the interviews, I endeavoured to adhere to these principles, and in the main, elicited participants’ narratives of risk-taking. Flick (2014) however, draws our attention to the problematic nature of conducting narrative interviews in assuming that interviewees are capable of narrating their lives and experiences. In considering this, I found at times that some participants were brief when eliciting their stories and would pause, wait for a follow-up question rather than continue to tell their stories. Considering my own inexperience with narrative interviewing and being aware of the relational nature of the interview and shared past experience, I did not wish for participants to feel uncomfortable and found it difficult to pause and wait for further telling of their stories. This led to times when I was aware of continuing with a response or question when I maybe should have paused a little longer to allow the narrative to flow. Being aware of this and in trying to overcome it, I would follow up by repeating respondents phrasing, nodding in agreement, empathising or asking participants to expand upon an aspect of the story they were telling. Prior to interviews, in trying to overcome some of the potential issues for narrative interviewing, I detailed the purpose of a narrative interview and the open-ended nature of questions (Flick, 2014) to participants. The narrative interviews of this study tended to elicit stories of risk, however, these tended to move between narrative followed by my further questioning to probe for greater ‘description and augmentation’ (Flick, 2014, p. 267). Flick (2014) refers to this as the ‘balancing phase’ where further explanation from the narrative is gleaned. Thus, the narrative interviews from this study tended to follow cycles of narrative phase, balancing phase rather than one iteration of each. Savin-Baden and Major (2013) remind us that flexibility is required when using narrative approaches as stories and meanings change as they are told and that the researcher should maintain a reflexive approach throughout the phases of narrative inquiry. I attempted to do this through regular consideration of my own position in relation to participants and the influences that my own experiences may bring to the research.
The third phase of data collection involved the use of member checking as an opportunity for participants to feedback and verify or approve transcripts and researcher interpretation in a bid to add to the quality and credibility of the research (Carlson, 2010; Savin-Baden and Major, 2013). In the first instance, participants were asked to consider the short narrative account I had written as a description providing their context. These included participants’ backgrounds, experiences from the training year and context of the school(s) they were teaching in or had taught in. These biographical accounts appear in full in Appendix 8. At the same time as sending the draft narrative account, full transcripts were also emailed to participants for them to check for accuracy. They were asked to edit, clarify or elaborate (Carlson, 2010) on the transcripts as they felt necessary. All transcripts bar one were returned without amendment, the amended one clarified one paragraph by adding further information. Data analysis began once all transcripts had been returned and agreed. Data analysis involved transcribing interviews verbatim, drafting a narrative account for each participant, reading and re-reading transcripts for similarities and patterns which most closely represented illuminative epiphanies, categorising these patterns and converting them into themes. Four themes were revealed when defining risk-taking, those of: challenging pedagogies, managing control, comfort zones and uncertainty, and careers and change. Those themes which highlighted the influences upon risk-taking once teaching in schools included performativity, pupil behaviour and the subject community. The resulting writeup of themes, outlining influences on risk-taking, contained a number of quotations from participants and sections referring to their stories. The four defining themes along with each participant’s analysed story of the influences on risk-taking were emailed for verification. In addition to this, a follow-up telephone conversation was offered to discuss themes further if participants wished to make any amendments or further comment. Six of the participants emailed me by return. All were happy to verify the themes and agreed that at the time of interview the analysis reflected their experiences. None of the participants requested a phone call conversation. Three participants did not respond to the first or subsequent emails. For these, I placed trust in the research process, that they had verified their original transcripts and that they were informed of the nature of the research prior to participation though informed consent. For those responding to the member checking process, all themes were verified.
and I was content that the themes I had written were a true reflection of participants’ experiences at the time of interview. Data collection through narrative interviews was conducted between May 2016 and November 2016 transcribed scripts were verified (all participants) by March 2017 to allow for immersion with the data and, member checking (six from nine participants) was completed by November 2017.

3.3.4 Analysis and Interpretation

Polkinghorne (1988) suggests that there are two ways in which narratives can be analysed, firstly narrative analysis whereby analysing the events of the data produce stories and secondly analysis of narratives whereby the narrative data is analysed to produce themes and categories. The intentions of this research were to analyse the narrative data provided by participants to find connections between events and experiences and produce a depth of understanding of risk-taking during the training year and once teaching in schools. Following Jovchelovitch and Bauer (2000, p.9), who contend that although transcription of interviews may be boring, it ‘is useful for getting a good grasp of the material, and … it opens up a flow of ideas for interpreting the text’.

Transcripts were typed up verbatim and I included each aspect of the questions and stories as they were told. This offered for me what I would consider the second rather than first phase of analysis. The first phase happened when hearing participants stories during the interview, the emotions, feelings and body language all formed part of the communication of participants’ narratives. Following each interview, I collected my own thoughts and reflections, at times taking notes or using a voice recorder. These served to aid my own reflections once immersed in the analysis of transcripts.

**Biographical Accounts**

Once interviews were transcribed, I struggled to comprehend how I would make sense of each participants’ experience yet maintain coherence within the research holistically, and also draw meaning in relation to the prevailing literature on risk and also wider research on issues within teacher training. Savin-Baden and Van Niekerk (2007) highlight such difficulties when beginning to interpret narratives and I followed their suggestion
of writing a biographical account or personal summary of each story. This strategy is further supported by Clandinin (2013) who suggests writing a narrative account of each participant and their stories within the context that they found themselves in at the time of interview. Described by Savin-Baden and Van Niekerk (2007, p. 466) ‘This process demands that we locate the person in a context and community, describe what she/he does and how she/he sees her/himself’. Each biographical account outlined aspects of demographic information including: age, training course, and type of school the participant taught at. It also gave an overview of their experiences during the training year and my own recollections of their risk-taking. In addition to this, it included a brief outline of the context of the school or PE department in which they taught at the time of interview. Participants were invited to add to or amend their biographical accounts in order to check my interpretations and verify their accounts. This process was in harmony with my epistemological inclinations as a researcher and sought to facilitate reflexivity, consider my own biases and judgements made upon participants and, to provide greater transparency to the analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

**Searching for similarities and patterns**

Transcripts and biographical accounts provided a starting point from which to explore specific patterns or overlapping issues to participants’ stories of taking risks. I considered each account in relation to the others and searched for similarities and patterns (Clandinin, 2013), overlapping and interlocking stories (Savin-Baden and Niekerk, 2007) which resonated between them in order to give a deeper and broader analysis. Following the interpretive understanding Denzin (2001) provides us with for analysing narratives, participant narratives were considered for themes which most closely represented illuminative or minor epiphanies.

Epiphanies are interactional moments and experiences which leave marks on people’s lives. In them, personal character is manifested. They are often moments of crisis. They alter the fundamental meaning structures in a person’s life.

(Denzin 1989, p.70).
Building upon this definition, Denzin (2001) proposed four different types of epiphany; cumulative, illuminative, major and relived epiphanies. Cumulative epiphanies signify an event that has profoundly changed a person’s life or a turning point in their life caused by a build-up of related experiences. Whereas a major epiphany is a change based on one event or experience that is highly traumatic and has an immediate effect. A relived epiphany is, as it suggests, an event that has to be relived to be understood. Unlike cumulative, major or relived epiphanies, illuminative epiphanies consider particular experiences or events that ‘bring to the surface and illuminates what has been’ (Denzin, 2001, p.146) and holds most relevance here. Stories were analysed through illuminative epiphanies in order to find themes and make connections which may offer insights into risk-taking. Illuminative epiphanies are considered ‘a point in time or particular experience that reveals insights; or an event that raises issues that are problematic’ (Savin-Baden and Van Niekerk, p. 456).

**Categorising and Converting into Themes**

When I engaged with participant transcripts, I examined the stories told and identified epiphanies which stood out from each story. I highlighted transcripts by hand using coloured pens and made notes on the transcripts in order to make sense of the different categories that emerged from the data. In much the same way as Clandinin (2013, p. 132) described the process of analysis ‘to inquire into resonant threads or patterns’ I engaged in this process for a deep and broad awareness of the definitions of risk taking offered by participants and the influences they had experienced. Those similarities and patterns drawn from participant epiphanies which resonated between participants’ stories were then categorised and organised into themes. Savin-Baden and Howell (2013) describe themes as ‘unifying or dominant ideas in data’ which are at the heart of the process of data analysis. This process was a lengthy one where I considered each highlighted transcript alongside the others and re-visited the epiphanies of each participant searching for what Clandinin (2013, p. 132) describes as ‘resonances or echoes that reverberated across accounts’. I considered the epiphanies and themes that transpired alongside my own notes and thoughts from interviews in order to position myself as researcher alongside the stories of participants at that moment in time.
By *retelling* and analysing participants’ stories of risk-taking through illuminative epiphanies at particular moments in time, insights were intended to be revealed that may inform an understanding of risk-taking and the influences upon this for early career PE teachers, once in a school setting. Additionally, the open sharing of my own thoughts when re-presenting stories was considered important. Following Webster and Mertova (2007, p. 88):

In the telling of researcher’s stories, the stories of the participants merge with the researchers to form new stories that are collaborative in nature. These become the collaborative document that is written in the research.

Likewise, the complexity of the collaborative nature of such research held importance whereby the questions offered by Clandinin (2013, p. 167) were prominent throughout this study. ‘How do we continue to be alongside these teachers as their storylines bump up against the dominant plotline of today’s professional knowledge landscapes?’ As a researcher I positioned myself alongside the teachers and their stories, to take a reflexive approach and continually question my responsibilities to the participants, as a past tutor, researcher and ‘collaborator’ (Clandinin, 2013, p. 167).

### 3.4 Threads of Conscience: Ethical Considerations

Narrative inquiry is dialogic, it involves a relationship and two-way conversation between researcher and participant involving emotions (Riessman, 2005). Furthermore, it delves deep into participants’ thoughts, feelings and identity; which places importance on creating a situation of trust, and one which inevitably includes the researcher’s stories (Webster and Mertova, 2007). Ethical concerns have permeated narrative inquiry (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000) with the words of Clandinin (2000, p. 52) offering a summary of the ethical considerations held within this study:

> For those of us wanting to learn to engage in narrative inquiry, we need to imagine ethics as being about negotiation, respect, mutuality and openness to multiple voices.

Prior to and during interviews, I considered that participants re-telling experiences of risk-taking may have necessitated potentially uncomfortable situations whereby,
successes and failures of practice or negotiation of difficult relationships within school may have been recalled (Cohen et al, 2010). When considering narrative inquiry, Riessman (2005, p. 476) reminds us that ‘all parties in the dialogue have subjectivities and emotional lives that they bring to research relationships’ suggesting that researchers should interrogate their own beliefs and practices to ensure relations are equal with participants. With this in mind, prior to the interview, I made participants aware of the possibilities of recalling difficult experiences and during interviews, I showed empathy and understanding when troublesome stories were told. During the training year, I had already engaged in dialogue with participants about the successes and disappointments of taking risks within an already established relationship built upon trust and support. I, therefore considered that participants may remember the supportive and sensitive approach I applied during that time, one which valued their opinions and experiences, which I hoped would alleviate feelings of uncertainty or emotional discomfort whilst being interviewed. Additionally, the relationship and rapport I had already developed with participants were thought to increase the authenticity of response from participants as a shared understanding was already part of our experience.

3.4.1 Recruitment of Participants

Prior to the start of this research, ethical approval was sought in line with University policy and gained via the University Ethics Committee (University of Worcester Ethics Policy, 2014) (See Appendix 10). I understood the importance of this in terms of my legal obligation to protect participants and their data, a duty of care towards all of those involved and for the research to be honest and open. A further consideration for me, however, was, having tutored participants during the teacher training year I felt there were added responsibilities to shoulder. Following Savin-Baden and Major (2013, p. 237) who suggest that the ethics of narrative ‘place particular emphasis on respect of individuals and transparency of process’ it was important that I ensured participants did not feel pressurised to participate in the research and, that the research process and intentions were transparent throughout and so I sought informed consent, asked participants to verify transcripts and member check themes.
3.4.2 Informed consent

Cohen et al (2010) argue three main ethical considerations for interviewing: informed consent, confidentiality and the consequences of the interviews. These were considered and all participants were given the opportunity to make an informed decision on whether they wished to take part in the research. As I already knew the participants, I contacted them directly via email in the first instance with a brief outline of the research and to see if they were willing to receive the full participant information. If they agreed, detailed information about the research was provided and participants were given the opportunity to ask questions about the research. The participant information outlined the purpose of the research, assurance of confidentiality, secure storage and disposal, anonymity, confirmation that participation was voluntary and that the research would be published, along with expectations of the participants including the benefits of the research and also the potential risks or discomfort. I made it clear from the first communication that participation was voluntary, so as to prevent perceptions of obligation to participate (Clarke and Braun, 2013). If teachers agreed to participate they signed the consent form and were aware that if they chose at a later date (before findings were analysed and written up) not to participate they were free to withdraw their interview information by communicating this to me as the researcher (BERA, 2011; Burton, Brundrett and Jones, 2010). Their transcripts and information would then be withdrawn from the analysis stage.

3.4.3 Data protection

Data protection is seen as an essential consideration when undertaking qualitative research (Williams, 2010) and I wanted to ensure that the anonymity of participants was secured and they trusted me to do this. An identification number was allocated to each participant so the participants and I were the only people who were able to identify interview transcripts. It was equally important within the write up that no link was made to participants or the name of the school in which they trained or were teaching at the time of the research. However, it is acknowledged that participants would be able to identify their own stories and experiences within the research write up. To ensure anonymity and in keeping with University of Worcester Ethics Policy (2014), data were
checked to ensure that transcripts of interviews did not identify individuals and pseudonyms were used. All data and transcripts were securely stored and retained in line with University of Worcester policy.

As all participants were teachers who were trained on the same teacher training course where I had been their primary tutor, responsible for assessments and judgements against the teachers’ standards during that year, I wanted to ensure that there was not an imbalance of power and that participants felt that they could be open and honest during interviews (Burton, Brundrett and Jones, 2014; Moore 2012). Even though I was no longer responsible for any assessment judgments, I felt it to be imperative that transparent relations existed between myself and participants, whereby their stories and experiences were valued and heard. Such experiences formed a co-constructed understanding between participant and researcher, one which led to acknowledging the importance of reflexivity in relation to my own personal stance, analysis, interpretation and presentation of findings.

3.4.4 Interview Venue

Due to the personal nature of narrative inquiry, I felt it was important that participants chose where they felt most comfortable to be interviewed, either at the institution where they trained, in their own school environment, or an alternative venue in which they were comfortable and familiar. Five of the participants were interviewed in a quiet room at the institution where they trained. Four participants wished to be interviewed at the school where they worked. In each case the Head teacher of the school was approached and permission requested to conduct interviews on the school site. Fully detailed information was provided to the Head teacher outlining the aims, objectives and risks of the research (Appendix 10) and the Head teacher permission requested to conduct research interviews on the school premises. For those wishing to be interviewed in school, this was usually due to time constraints on these participants who were all interviewed during non-teaching periods and break times. When interviewing, I believed there to be integrity and honesty in participant responses regardless of the research venue. All interviews were conducted in rooms where only the researcher and
participant were present and only the participant and Head teacher were aware of the nature of the research unless the participant had chosen to inform colleagues. For some participants, their regular sharing of risk-taking with school colleagues meant that many of the stories told during the interview had already been shared with others. Participants, regardless of venue, were willing to share their stories and experiences and once interviews were transcribed, all participants verified the transcripts.

3.5 Credibility, Authenticity and Trustworthiness

In taking an interpretive approach, as a researcher, I considered the difficulties of demonstrating the credibility of my interpretations (Schwandt, Lincoln and Guba, 2007) and in doing so, turned to the criteria suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) as analogues to the ‘scientific’ conventions for employing rigor and trustworthiness to research, those of credibility and transferability. The first aspect here was to consider the research holistically (Lincoln and Guba, 1986), and how the constructed realities, context and researchers reality were all interrelated and influential. In order to ensure credibility, prolonged engagement with participants occurred, with ‘lengthy and intensive’ (Lincoln and Guba, 1986) contact during narrative interviews. This intended to gain the required depth of information from participants. Upon aiming for a depth of experience from the sample of participants rather than a breadth of experience this study was more concerned with the honesty and authenticity of the findings. I did not intend to determine hard and transferrable facts but sought to explore the experiences of participants and how they constructed these. It is my belief that participants’ stories of experience were true to their own thoughts and experiences at that moment in time and an environment was created whereby participants were comfortable to tell their stories of risk-taking. Further to this, reflexivity and the acceptance of my own voice and position in the stories and findings of this study added to its trustworthiness. Credibility was sought through not only researcher reflexivity but also participant validation of transcripts and through open negotiation with participants by asking participants to member check their stories and my own interpretations of these (Lincoln and Guba, 1986). I wanted to ensure that the language I had used and my own interpretations were a true and fair reflection of the experiences of the participants. In addition to this,
member checking of participant biographies, verbatim transcripts, defining themes and themes associated with each participant’s story were believed to add to the quality and credibility of the study’s findings (Carlson, 2010; Savin-Baden and Major, 2013).

Carlson (2010, p. 1105) shares her opinion of the traps that can befall researchers when following the process of member checking noting that trustworthiness should be considered at the ‘level of three lenses: of the self (the researcher), of the participants, and of the external readers of the final research report’. Those problems experienced by Carlson (2010), related to participant embarrassment, physical limitations, clarity of expectation and placing higher importance on processes of member checking rather than participant dignity and voice, were not experienced within this study. I believe the relationships and rapport built up through past interactions during the training year alongside researcher reflexivity and thorough explanation of requirements and expectations, prevented some of these issues. I do however recognise that constraints on participants’ time may have prevented participants from adding further information or correcting misrepresentations in both the transcripts and the themes provided. It is therefore prudent to be cautious about the veracity and worth of the member checking process where participants are lacking in time. Faith has therefore been placed in the consent process and the trust gained as part of the rapport built with participants during the training year. Through communications related to the research process and during interviews, I believe credible, authentic and trustworthy data has been generated.

3.6 Chapter Summary

Within the context of qualitative research, Savin-Baden and Major (2013, p. 134) define the framework for such research as ‘a structure that is intended as a guide for thinking about the research subject and as an interpretive lens through which to view data’. This chapter has outlined how I have framed the separate pieces of the puzzle, demonstrating how they come together, in light of my own experience and literature, to make clear the assumptions I have made which have guided this study. In the next chapter, I will map out an exploration of the defining themes that emerged from participants’ stories of risk-taking.
Chapter 4. Illuminative Epiphanies of Risk-Taking

Introduction

This chapter begins by outlining the context from which participants’ stories and experiences have been represented and reminds us that both defining themes and influences are considered illuminative epiphanies (Denzin, 2001). Those moments and experiences in time which bring to the surface meaningful and significant insights and information. Past shared experience, between the researcher and participants, has led to a co-constructed representation, one which reflects the voices and connections between both researcher and participant. To begin, this chapter outlines the context of the training year from which participants’ definitions may have been based and to follow identifies the four themes that emerged from those stories told by participants’ for defining risk-taking. These themes are; challenging pedagogies, managing control, comfort and uncertainty, careers and change. Each theme draws upon participants’ epiphanies and considers the themes emerging as collective epiphanies gained through shared and individual definitions of risk-taking.

4.1 Re-presentation in Context

In beginning to represent the stories of those PE teachers who were participants in this study, Savin-Baden and Major (2013) remind us of the challenges associated with the re-telling of stories. As time passes, so stories may change and grow which in turn may lead to the shifting of perspectives. Clandinin (2013, p.43) refers to the temporality of narrative inquiry, whereby the researcher enters the lives of participants at a particular time where both participants and researcher’s lives are continually being shaped by other narratives. Clandinin (2013, p.43) refers to both researcher and participant being ‘in the midst,’ where ‘their lives and ours are ... shaped by attending to the past, present, and future unfolding social, cultural, institutional, linguistic, and familial narratives’. It is recognised within this study that the stories told related to a particular time, place and space for each participant and myself as the researcher. Thus, experience or changes in
other narrative influence, may lead to a change in the perspectives of participants over time. Through identifying the challenges of ‘being in the midst,’ the re-told representations to follow, where possible, show an awareness of the continual shift in focus and evolving realities that narratives present in the lives of participants, myself as the researcher and the institutions in which we work. When considering the relationship between participant and researcher, Clandinin (2013, p.43) notes that it is usual for researchers not to know their participants which in turn may lead to ‘imagined participants’. The opposite is true for this study, where participants were well known to me as the researcher. This presented its own challenges in that a shared past meant that I had associated memories and narrative that informed our past shared experience. My own interpretations of participants, who they were and how I imagined them to be when we re-met stemmed from my own memories. Additionally, when listening to and interpreting participants’ stories, I recognised a shift back into my role as their tutor and often felt a need to advise, nurture and support the participants as I would have as their tutor. These were critical points for my own reflexive positioning when I became increasingly conscious and reflexive of my inherent role in the interpretation of these stories. This led to a need for me to ensure that in the retelling of stories my interpretation and representation (re-telling) of those stories told was credible, authentic and a fair reflection of participants’ experiences. Recognition of these factors and my reflexive positioning through the retelling of participants’ stories to follow, is thus co-constructed. It seeks not only to capture the experiences and associated meanings of participants but also considers the importance of my own experiences, interpretations, and meanings that may be of influence. The dialogue aims for a transparency which seeks to recognise such factors and their influence upon the interpretations and analysis provided. The definitions to follow were borne out of the illuminative epiphanies (Denzin, 2001) that presented themselves through the analysis of participants’ stories. To serve as a reminder, illuminative epiphanies are the experiences or events that reveal insights (Denzin, 2001) or raise issues that are believed to be problematic (Savin-Baden and Van Niekerk, 2007). They are moments in time that reveal insights which may inform, for the purpose of this study, our everyday teaching, learning and classroom practices (Cole and Throssell, 2008). They demonstrate the similarities and patterns (Clandinin, 2013) overlapping and interlocking moments (Savin-
Baden and Niekerk, 2007) that came to light through the narrative interviews. Cole and Throssell (2008, p. 176) refer to Denzin’s notions of epiphanies as ‘epiphanic moments’ when experiences occur which provide insights to teaching, learning and pedagogic practice. Epiphanic moments are those experiences which have heightened significance, ‘where reality is created, and the congested levels of experience in education may be understood, enjoyed and brought together’ (Cole and Throssell, 2008, p. 177). Participants’ experiences of heightened significance which reveal insights into risk-taking and the Risk-Taking PDP will be referred to as epiphanic moments and the overall insights revealed will be referred to as illuminative epiphanies within the chapters to follow.

4.2 Redefining Risk-Taking

For those training teachers who engaged with the Risk-Taking PDP a definition of risk-taking was provided to offer an introduction and to enable them to gain an understanding of its meaning. This definition, which also appears in the literature review section, was the same for all trainees and is shown below;

Risk taking is defined as an action or activity taken by choice in which a trainee takes risks in their practice to achieve a learning benefit. It considers the idea that trainees reflect upon an element of their professional development and challenges their own practices and routines by moving out of their comfort zone, assessing the potential negative consequences and having an idea of the probability of this occurring.

(Whitehouse, 2012)

This definition offered a starting point for training teachers to understand the notion of risk-taking. Once they had taken risks and found their own evidence for its usefulness, or otherwise, personal and individual definitions were expected to change or differ. As participants moved into schools, over time, their definitions changed, becoming personalised and contextualised depending on the experiences they encountered. As it had been between one and five years since participants had seen or heard this definition, it was interesting to see that some aspects of the definition had remained and some had changed. Participants had, over time, expanded their experience and knowledge. They had experienced differing contexts, different types of schools,
different pedagogic approaches to teaching PE, pupils with different learning needs and pupils with diverse social backgrounds. Participants had held greater responsibility when they moved from being training teachers to newly qualified teachers and had interacted with fellow colleagues, some more experienced than themselves.

Factors associated with how participants experienced risk included school contexts, school policies, coherence to the contexts in which they found themselves, change in job role or career path and relationships with colleagues and pupils. Participants’ stories of risk-taking included many examples of when participants had taken risks, the reasoning behind them and the benefits or challenges associated with them. It soon became evident that risk-taking was highly complex, subjective to individual experience and dependent upon the contexts in which participants found themselves. Drawing upon the experiences of three participants, Jennifer still saw risk-taking as moving out of her comfort zone in relation to the way she taught her lessons. Luke, on the other hand, was more concerned with himself not being in full control of the lesson and Helena, who had been teaching for longer than Luke and Jennifer, found delivering CPD to more experienced colleagues a risk. In addition to this, risk-taking fell into two distinct categories of; risk-taking ‘of the job’ and risk-taking ‘in the job.’ Risks ‘of the job’ tended to focus upon such things as; a change in role and responsibility, leading professional development for other colleagues or changing career. Whereas risks ‘in the job’ focused on the classroom approaches and practices when teaching within lessons and, providing learning opportunities for pupils.

Central to these definitions and experiences were the more general concepts of relationality (Atkinson, 2013; Mead, 1934) and temporality (Atkinson 2013, Luhmann 1993). Mead (1934) offers a theory of relationality that considers the social influences upon self, taking into account that a person’s actions and responses occur in relation to both the ‘I’ (the self that enables actions beyond social expectations and habits) and the ‘we’ (which constitutes a person’s image of self when they view it through the eyes of others). With Atkinson (2013, p. 3) suggesting that ‘learners and teachers emerge from pedagogical intra-actions’ which constitute entangled relationalities with others rather than separate or individual experiences. These social influences were evident within
participants’ stories, the definitions they ascribed to risk-taking and also the influences upon it. Further to this, the temporal nature of risk-taking became evident. Drawing upon Luhmann’s (1993) social theory of risk, individuals continually monitor and navigate potential events in the present, with the uncertainty of risk showing itself in the future and being a consequence of the present action. Thus, once the uncertainty is minimised, through experience and positive outcomes, so the event becomes less of a risk as the consequences are known. Participants’ stories highlighted that risk-taking was both relational and temporal. Experience and time changed participants perceptions of risk so one person’s risk was another person’s comfort and, that which was considered a risk today, once experienced, became less of a risk tomorrow. These concepts are evident within the definitions that participants continued to ascribe to risk-taking.

4.3 Participants’ Definitions of Risk-Taking

The personal and subjective meanings and definitions that participants assigned to risk-taking will be considered here. Four themes emerged following analysis of the interview transcripts, literature synthesis and subsequent storying of participants’ experiences. These themes illuminate understanding of what risk-taking meant to individuals and will be represented as holding equal priority, frequently intermingling.
Figure 4.1 shows the themed meanings and definitions that participants ascribed to risk-taking. These will be summarised initially, with extended examples taken from participants’ stories to follow.

**Challenging Pedagogies;** teachers trying new ideas in place of older and well-practised methods of teaching or challenging dominant pedagogies.

**Managing Control;** teachers allowing pupils to be more independent and self-directed. A changing of mind-set from the teacher as controller of learning to the leader of learning.

**Comfort Zones and Uncertainty;** teachers moving out of their comfort zone and into the realms of uncertainty.

**Careers and Change;** teachers changing their career or moving to new jobs.
4.3.1 Challenging Pedagogies

This theme captures the idea of teachers trying new ideas in place of older and well-practised methods of teaching or questioning dominant pedagogies. The notion of challenging pedagogies when taking risks involved two distinct illuminative epiphanies for participants, the challenge of self and, challenging known and traditional practices within schools. Each of these could stand alone, however often the moments were overlapping. To expand, firstly, many participants defined taking risks as trying something new to them in relation to the ways in which they planned, or taught or, enabled learning. They were questioning themselves and their own pedagogic practice or subject knowledge. Often, they challenged practice which they identified as constraining pupil learning or to address limitations in their own knowledge. Secondly, participants defined risk-taking as calling into question historically traditional pedagogic approaches to teaching PE which they had either experienced in their own school days or were embedded in the practices of other teachers within their departments. Participants would call into question conventional approaches to teaching, challenging traditional pedagogies often based upon newer or alternative pedagogic approaches they had experienced during the training year, pedagogies they had read about or, seen taught by fellow colleagues. Participants became willing to try something new that did not necessarily conform to the norm or their own regular practices and at such times epiphanic moments related to their own or pupils learning were evident.

Almost all participants defined risk-taking as doing something new, something that they had not tried out before or, something that pupils had not experienced before, thus posing a challenge. James described this newness as ‘giving a different edge to the lesson’ for either the teacher or the pupil. Helena described it as an ‘opportunity to learn something new and teach something new’. In addition to this, risk-taking was seen as trying previously unexplored practices and at times new ‘to them’ methods or styles of teaching. This was also referred to in terms of teaching a new activity where subject knowledge was limited, including teaching a second subject which was unfamiliar to them. Participants were thus challenging their own pedagogies. Jennifer recalled when she first taught gymnastics and felt that teaching basic movements and skills was a risk...
and challenge to her, whereas when she taught netball, which was familiar to her, the basic skills were second nature and the risk would be ‘doing a more challenging tactical lesson which involved more resources’. James, Jonathan, and Helena had been teaching longer than other participants, they were in their fourth and third years of teaching respectively and had been required to teach second subjects. Even though teaching different subjects, they all felt it was a risk when they started teaching a second subject as they needed to learn new knowledge, both content and pedagogical in order to teach effectively. The epiphanies here illuminating the challenges that early career teachers face when teaching new subjects and knowledge that isn’t normal and familiar to them. These feelings resonate with other PE practitioners, for example, Casey’s (2011) blog refers to feelings of teaching a second subject:

I often felt nervous when preparing and teaching lessons since they were not my area of expertise . . . I used closed questions and sometimes death by PowerPoint. My fear was I didn’t want to be asked a question that I couldn’t answer or that I wouldn’t be able to facilitate an on-going discussion.

Hashweh (2005) draws upon literature and research to remind us of the challenges for teachers of developing new knowledge, both content and pedagogic content knowledge, due to the constructivist processes, it involves. Whether new pedagogies for teaching a familiar subject or, learning new knowledge and pedagogy for a second subject Hashweh (2005) contends that this is a complex process. It involves teacher pedagogic and professional constructs where teachers define their practice, clarify it in relation to other knowledge and beliefs and then speculate regarding its future development and usefulness to future practices. During interviews, I recalled times when James, Jonathan and Helena had engaged with this complex process of learning new knowledge and pedagogy related to PE during the training year and, whilst they told their stories of teaching second subjects, this resonated with the risks they had taken during the training year and the new practises they had tried. I began to consider that maybe when trainees had limited experience and practises were new to them, the complex process of future speculation, or weighing up the probability of the potential effectiveness of such practices and new knowledge may have been what participants considered to be a risk.
Participants also considered risk-taking as moving away from the traditional approaches of teaching PE (Pritchard et al, 2008) and trying new pedagogic approaches. Almost all participants referred to Teaching Games for Understanding (TGFU)\(^8\) and Sport Education\(^9\) (SE) at times as a risk. This did not surprise me as these approaches had been a feature of the training year and during lectures we had explored the benefits and challenges of such approaches compared to those approaches participants, as trainees, had experienced in placement schools. I became interested in their subsequent experiences since teaching in schools and the reasons why they considered these approaches risky. When asked, Lizzie talked of how she was an advocate of TGFU but found it at times a risk when it was a new way of working for pupils. She also found resistance to TGFU from departmental colleagues who were unfamiliar with the approach and found this to be risky as she wanted to ‘fit in’ with other members of the department. Jonathan talked of his approach to teaching football through SE which was risky when pupils experienced new roles for learning. Whilst Nathan found SE a risk because pupils ‘never experienced that sort of independence before.’ Participants talked about trying out different teaching methods that were not within their own traditional experiences of PE. Helena’s comment is an example of this:

> Instead of just practising some individual skills and putting them into a game, it was doing something a little bit more modern and with the times, like TGfU or Sport Education. As a new teacher, this felt more risky as it was less controlled by me.

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\(^8\) Teaching Games for Understanding (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982) is a problem-based approach to games teaching. Its approach is based upon situated skill development that is taught within the game and allows learners to develop knowledge and understanding, whilst recognising the learning benefits of social development and working with others.

\(^9\) The Sport Education (Siedentop 1994) approach to teaching Physical Education aims to develop pupils who are competent, literature and enthusiastic sportspeople. Its principals mirror the sport in real life and so; it is taught over a ‘season;’ pupils remain in the same ‘team;’ play relevant roles (performer, coach, manager, official) and; engage in competitions or festivals representative of that sport.
Helena explained how she felt the outcomes of such approaches were more ‘open-ended’ and therefore control of the lesson shifted to outcomes being more pupil focused rather than teacher led. Similar epiphanic moments were recognised by other participants. Participants talked of teaching activities or tasks that were out of the ordinary and more challenging for teachers and pupils than the standard three-part lesson of a starter, main activity and plenary or, skills, drills and game play. I began to consider that it would have been likely that participants had experienced such traditional methods of PE teaching in their own school days and so considered such pedagogies as SE and TGfU, as new and risky ideas where epiphanic moments related to pupil learning through pupil focused lessons. I looked to literature (Green, 1998; Keay, 2009; Mawer, 1999; Ofsted 1995) which concurred with my own thoughts, suggesting that experiences of traditional PE teaching could have been commonplace for these participants, highlighting how traditional teaching of PE predominated in the late 1990’s. In response to this, Penney and Chandler (2000), when considering the future of PE curricula, argue for a new orientation to the design of curriculum planning, one taking a more critical pedagogy to deconstruct established practices. It is likely that the participants in this study, thus experienced PE in their own school days, during a time when teaching was based upon acquisition and performance of skills, particularly in team games. This is particularly prominent with PE teachers as many are motivated to enter the profession based upon their own school experiences (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Green, 1998; Mawer, 1999) and success in sport and, usually hold an orientation towards reinforcing a traditional curriculum and teaching approaches (Lawson, 1988). Participant past experiences, including their own PE lessons as children, thus may have influenced their choices to become PE teachers (Hemphill et al, 2015) which has affected their own approaches to PE teaching.

TGfU and SE were pedagogies taught and explored during university led subject sessions for training teachers to trial and experience during their placements in schools. From participants’ stories, I began to think that the active encouragement to take risks through the Risk-Taking PDP encouraged a willingness and openness to try such new and different approaches to teaching. It may be that if the participants of this study had not been exposed to the idea of problematising their own practice, through critical
reflection and risk-taking, they may have continued with the practices they had experienced in their own school days, those of traditional teaching, based upon the acquisition and performance of skills rather than the broader aspects of learning. Taking risks seemed to inspire new approaches and creative ideas towards teaching PE.

The notion of risk-taking and trying something new for many participants illuminated epiphanies related to their professional growth and changes in practice over time through experience. Risk-taking was found to be temporally related through practice and experience. This was evident in James epiphany, where he said that he would try new ideas but very quickly they would become the ‘norm’ of his teaching if they were successful. He described ‘when you have done it [taken a risk] for a few sessions then it is no longer a risk, then it becomes one of your normal lessons’. Similarly, Helena spoke of how using technology in her training year was uncomfortable and a risk yet, two years on she found this to be her normal practice. When asked about using technology in lessons Helena replied:

I guess initially it was a risk, like in my training year I did my research project on incorporating technology into lessons. It was a risk, but now I am used to doing it, as long as I set my expectations [with pupils] … it reduces the risk of that and I am quite comfortable doing that [using technology] now.

Thus, it seemed that over time, those practices that were first considered risks became normal and embedded practice if successful and once meeting expected or positive outcomes of the risk.

For participants, the new ideas and unknown practices they tried were varied and multifaceted comprising such aspects as pedagogical practices, subject knowledge, technology, behaviour management techniques and pupil engagement strategies. Stories illuminated that when engaging with risks as new ideas this appeared to support professional development, growth in confidence and learning from experience. Here, at times the risk became the norm and the experience of risk-taking enabled participants to better meet the learning needs of the pupils they taught. Often this involved a shift from the teacher’s role of controlling learning to a role of facilitating or leading learning.
4.3.2 Managing Control

The illuminating theme of managing control reflects the idea of teachers allowing pupils to be more independent and self-directed, in particular, a changing of mind-set from the teacher as controller of learning to the leader of learning. When taking risks, participants reported experiencing a shift in their perception towards being in charge or in control of the lesson. This theme was prominent when participants talked about taking risks ‘in the job,’ when teaching lessons and trying new approaches to teaching rather than ‘of the job’. When they were not taking risks and teaching familiar, well-practiced lessons, participants felt that they were in direct control of the lesson and its outcomes, their practices appeared more teacher led. Thus, participants were in charge of the lesson and were able to regulate and structure it accordingly. When taking risks, however, participants recounted epiphanic moments of letting go of control and allowing pupils to take charge of their own learning. They experienced an increase in confidence over time and became more willing to take risks which gave over control to pupils. Epiphanic moments described centred around pupils being more independent, participants engaging with pupil-centred learning strategies and allowing pupils to take more responsibility for their own learning and that of their peers.

One such epiphanic moment is taken from James story where he talked of taking a risk as ‘something that you do that takes away the power of the teacher’. I recalled the lesson James described as it was one that I observed him teach during the training year and he had informed me prior to the lesson that it was a risk for him. I remember thinking that the risk must be higher for him as I was also observing his lesson. I also remember how engaged the learners were during this lesson and felt that James had made great progress in his teaching and impact on pupil learning form this lesson. James lesson had involved teaching a group of year eight girls athletics. Generally, the girls did not like PE and showed little motivation to participate. James had tried for a few weeks to engage the girls with an athletics unit of work and found that the traditional methods he used had limited success. Following one of the Risk-Taking PD sessions, James decided to try something new and allow the girls to have more responsibility within the lesson and be more independent with their learning. He had already taught them the
skills and techniques for a variety of athletics events and wanted them to now show more responsibility towards their learning and improving their skills in three events. James created a series of resource cards for the girls to use at each of the three event stations; Shot putt, sprint, and long jump. He intended the girls to work through the resources peer teaching (coaching), performing and measuring performance. He also expected them to work within the safety requirements of each event and so had to provide clear explanations at the start of the lesson.

The area in which the girls were working was described by James as ‘quite a big area and so there was an element of trust for the ones that were normally trouble makers’. James had to place his trust in the girls to follow his instructions and also work through the learning resources to develop their skills and understanding of the three athletic events. James’s role was to facilitate the learning, to ensure safety procedures were adhered to within the shot putt activity and to provide feedback to pupils on their progress and learning. James described the outcomes of the lesson:

They managed themselves really well for the whole hour. I think that was when the best learning was for that group as they could relate to what I was trying to talk to them about. They were quite a bossy bunch of girls and they enjoyed just having the chance to prove they were grown up, more than I had given them credit for at the start.

James felt that by giving his group clear responsibilities, they rose to the challenge. However, it also meant that the teaching points and instructions he gave had to be clear and succinct and he had to allow pupils to have a voice in their own learning. This took some of the power away from James and allowed the pupils to take ownership of their learning. Thus, James was managing control of the learning within the lesson, enabling greater pupil independence through his teaching approaches. Allowing greater pupil independence and responsibility are considered beneficial for enhancing student learning and developing positive attitudes towards PE (Morgan, Kingston and Sproule, 2005; Oliver et al, 2013) whilst empowering them as learners (Patton and Griffin’s, 2008) and encouraging active participation (Oliver et al, 2015).
Sarah also encountered epiphanic moments of giving pupils more control in lessons through risk-taking. She commented that taking risks was ‘allowing pupils to take more responsibility for their learning’. At first, however, particularly during the first phase of her training year Sarah found ‘I was trying to control things too much to minimise the risks really, of poor behaviour, or not much learning’. This changed, and as she grew in confidence, she was more willing to allow pupils more control and responsibility in her lessons during second placement and when she began her first teaching job. Sarah began to experience greater pupil motivation and engagement when she took risks by giving pupils more responsibility for their learning. As time passed, Sarah’s teaching developed, and she became more open and willing to allow pupils greater freedom for learning in the classroom. I came to realise that maybe enabling trainee teachers to engage with the reflective practice and the problematising process of risk-taking, as with Sarah, this enabled them to teach in ways which encouraged pupils to be more responsible and independent within lessons. I began to see that as they gained experience and continued to learn from situations they found themselves in, so this made them more confident to take risks, helped them become better teachers, adapt their practices and so, better meet the needs of the pupils they taught.

Luke, very much like James and Sarah, felt during his training year that taking risks at times meant having limited ‘control of the learning pathway and so there may be opportunities for learners to go off task’. Part of the risk he described related to the fact that there would be someone watching his lesson, either his mentor or me, his university tutor. Much the same as Joe recalled, his mentor would offer advice during the training year and this would influence his practice.

Luke felt very lucky that the school in which he gained his first teaching job prioritised new learning, new ideas, and collaboration between colleagues. I could see how the supportive context in which he worked and networked with colleagues was valuable to his own development. This context also gave him the confidence to take risks and allow pupils to have more control of their own learning, hence Luke handed over some of his control of the lesson. In giving over this control, Luke experienced epiphanic moments that can be drawn upon. He used a strategy he called ‘Freeze frame’ and explained how
he would begin a lesson with, for example, three challenging learning objectives. He would set the first task and allow pupils time to practice and meet the outcome. Upon reviewing learning Luke described how:

[One] group have got that spot on and the other group hasn't so that group would go one way and the other group goes a different way but what I have done here is allow them [pupils] to be reflective and to choose the next stage of the lesson.

Here, Luke is referring to the diverse learning that occurs within a lesson, where pupils make progress at different rates. Upon reviewing learning, Luke felt that usually, he would move on to the next objective for all pupils. During ‘Freeze frame’ however, he would ask the pupils to reflect upon their learning and they would then choose or develop their own way of improving learning against the outcome:

It is as simple as; [to the pupils] ‘here is a resource you might have, here is a wipe board if you want to design a resource [or task] for the next part of your lesson’. So that is the option for that group and for this group here [a different group] it may be more of a scaffold of their ability task. They are in control of what they do and I would consider that a risk, in that, that group would go off and design something that could be towards achieving that objective . . . and that group [a different group] would do something different whereas traditionally, formative assessment would be used and everybody knows what they would be doing next. Whereas taking risks [for example freeze framing] this is going here and this is going there and it is almost down to them, with pupil led active phases of the lesson.

Luke described how this informed his practices:

I know the outcome, I just don’t know how they are going to get to the outcome because that’s on them and it could be going so many different ways that it is risky. I could let them control that learning process and it could be in the wrong direction. So, it’s really down to the practitioner to reflect in action on what is happening and if you do see a misconception as a result of the activity you have to address it. Which is risky because if you miss a trick or focus on this part and they are doing something different trying to get to that outcome, when are they going to get there [to the desired outcome]? Which is the big question? You would hope that they would do what you have put into place. But, potentially if they are going in their own direction, if they have not understood the task well then, it’s about your clarity of instruction so are they going to get what they should out of that part of the lesson?
What Luke seemed to be describing here is a shift from teacher centred to pupil or student-centred learning. Brandes and Ginnis (1986, p. 3) consider Carl Rogers to have founded the term student-centred learning and their definition acknowledges that ‘students are encouraged to participate fully in, and take responsibility for, their own leaning; each individual is valued and trusted’. In the example above, Luke felt that for him a more student-centred approach was a risk, however, he was willing to take the risk by balancing the expected probability of the positive impact outweighing what may be a negative impact on outcomes. For Luke, he was giving pupils more autonomy and choice over the activities for learning and the pace of their development. From the description, it appears that he was willing to take the risk as he had the confidence to adapt during the lesson if tasks and learning didn’t go to plan. His description of this aligns with the work of Schön (1987), where Luke ‘reflected in action’ and over time in the supportive environment in which he found himself. His confidence to adapt during his teaching gave him the confidence to provide pupils with autonomy in their learning.

Many of the storied definitions related to risk-taking spoke of epiphanic moments when pupils were given greater control and responsibility for their own learning, when there was a shift from a teacher-centred to a more pupil-centred approach. Providing pupils with increased responsibility and independence to control their own learning has been widely discussed in literature generally and in PE literature. Patton and Griffin’s (2008) research into patterns of change experienced by PE teachers demonstrates the impact of empowering learners and providing a shared responsibility for assessment, finding that pupils demonstrated a higher level of maturity and responsibility, leading to independence and improved learning. Further research shows that pupil centred experiences (Oliver et al, 2015), increased pupil responsibility (Morgan, Kingston and Sproule, 2005), pupil autonomy (Ommundsen and Kval, 2007) and teaching structured around the pupil voice (Oliver and Oesterreich, 2013; O’Sullivan and MacPhail, 2010) have all been argued to engage learners, develop a more positive attitude towards PE, actively encourage participation in education and increase pupil responsibility towards their own and others learning (Morgan, Kingston and Sproule, 2005; Oliver et al 2015). These were outcomes also found by participants who took risks which involved greater pupil autonomy and responsibility.
When applying a student-centred approach to PE, Washburn, Richards, and Sinelnikov (2016, p. 38) concur that there is heightened pupil motivation towards PE due to the ‘basic psychological needs for autonomy (i.e., choice), competence (i.e., mastery) and relatedness (i.e., connectedness)’ being met. Washburn, Richards, and Sinelnikov (2016) apply Haerens et al’s Need-supportive Teaching Behaviours instrument to describe examples from PE which support or frustrate the psychological needs outlined above. Such behaviours align with those stories told by participants when taking risks which required greater student independence. These are seen in the stories of James and Luke where, for example, James, in providing his group opportunities to organise their tasks, freed some time for him to provide more detailed feedback to learners and so enable them to gain greater competence in the skills being taught. For Luke, he allowed pupils greater choice and autonomy to direct the learning of the lesson. Likewise, the shift from teacher centred to student-centred learning is illuminated from participants’ stories and aligns to the student-centred and teacher-centred continuum offered by O’Neill and McMahon (2005, p.29) in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2 Student–centred and teacher–centred continuum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher–centred Learning</th>
<th>Student–centred Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low level of student choice</td>
<td>High level of student choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student passive</td>
<td>Student active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power is primarily with teacher</td>
<td>Power primarily with the student</td>
</tr>
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</table>

(O’Neill and McMahon 2005, p. 29).

I became aware that taking risks during the training year appeared to provide training teachers with the confidence to take a more student-centred approach, giving learners autonomy and choice over the direction of their learning. Drawbacks to this were experienced in terms of greater planning time and regular checking that pupils were on
track to meet desired outcomes yet, participants found a student-centred approach beneficial to learning, achieving outcomes and engagement in PE lessons.

The words of Brandes and Ginis (1986, p. 6) reflect the risks that a student-centred approach may offer teachers who are new to this approach and resonate with the findings of this study:

For the teacher who is beginning to make the transition to a student-centred approach, there may be a period of inexperience, when she may want to lean heavily on ideas already established. Gradually she may begin to take more risks and develop the ability to respond to challenges and think on her feet. With increased confidence and experience will come the possibility of inventing, not just adapting, ideas, and encouraging students to improvise and create their own learning experiences.

The growth in confidence experienced by James, Luke, and Sarah was also prominent for Joe when he engaged in risk-taking. Joe recalled how during his training year, when taking a risk, he encountered behavioural problems and found his mentor drawing upon his own experiences to tell Joe how he would have dealt with the situation. Since teaching in schools, Joe began to recognise the importance of such experience, as recalled from his mentor’s advice, and how with experience his own confidence had increased to take risks by taking a more student-centred approach. Through experiencing different teaching contexts, pupils, and pedagogies, Joe felt that lessons could be more easily adapted and ‘saved’ if they were not going to plan. Joe explained:

Because I have the experience of teaching, teaching loads of different groups and different things in different ways, I think I have got the ability to just adapt it straight away and that comes down to experience.

Much like Luke, he felt that taking risks during the training year helped him to have the confidence to adapt lessons as his career progressed. Joe explained:

I have seen what has worked and what hasn’t and I suppose when I have taken a risk and it hasn’t worked, but I have known what to do so I am not afraid to take a risk.

Offering insight to these feelings of gained confidence through experience, the works of Dewey (1910, 1916/1951), Pring (2014) and Schön (1987) remind us that reflection on experience, both past, and present, leads to learning and personal growth. James, Joe,
Sarah, and Luke all describe how as they grew in confidence so they were able to reflect upon and adapt their practices whilst teaching. Such experiences are consistent with the views of PE academics (Armour, 2014; Atencio, Jess and Dewar, 2012) and research into PE and professional development which advocates learning from reflection (Clarke and Hollingsworth, 2002; Elliot and Campbell, 2015), experiencing different contexts and working collaboratively with others (Chappell, 2014; Patton and Parker 2014). By actively planning and taking risks, participants found they reflected critically upon their practices, actively sought learning experiences and engaged collaboratively with and, learned from others. The temporal nature of risk-taking is further affirmed here, as is the influence of others and working in communities of practice. These will be explored further within the chapters to follow.

4.3.3 Comfort Zones and Uncertainty

This theme captures the ways in which teachers moved out of their comfort zone and into the realms of uncertainty. For almost all participants, it did not surprise me that a further theme that emerged related back to the initial definition provided from the Risk-Taking PDP whereby reference was frequently made to participants moving out of their comfort zone and into the realms of uncertainty. One aspect of the definition stated risk-taking ‘Considers the idea that trainees reflect upon an element of their professional development and challenge their own practices and routines by moving out of their comfort zone’ (Whitehouse, 2012).

Participants considered their comfort zone to be when they felt safe and at ease with their familiar practices in lessons, ‘in the job,’ or in their general professional practices, ‘of the job’. They described comfortable methods of teaching which were familiar to them and at times did not test either their own practices or the abilities of learners. The Risk-Taking PDP raised their awareness to reflect upon practice and recognise possibilities to do things differently by challenging themselves and working out of their comfort zone. Again, those practices described related to both ‘of the job’ and ‘in the job,’ practices. With examples of trying new practices and pedagogies within their teaching or, other professional responsibilities, like leading professional development
sessions for colleagues. Working outside of their comfort zone prompted feelings of uncertainty for both participants’ relational selves i.e. how they saw aspects of themselves relative to their relationships with others, like pupils, colleagues and line managers and also, uncertainty in the outcomes for learners. Uncertainty was associated with the feelings of participants, those of doubt, apprehension and questioning towards the practices they were undertaking. Often these feelings of uncertainty linked to the unpredictability of the ‘new to them’ practices they were undertaking, characteristics which theorists (Beck, 2009; Levinson et al, 2012; Luhmann, 1993) associate with risk-taking. Indeed, Beck (2009, p. 293) argues even though ‘manufactured risk and uncertainty can be differentiated in ideal-typical terms . . . in reality they intersect and commingle’ thus, considering risk and uncertainty having close associations. As was found in previous themes associated with exploring new practices, the notion of pushing personal boundaries and challenging comfort zones was also described as temporal. Over time participants found they were getting comfortable with uncertainty and found benefits to this way of working. The stories and epiphanic moments of comfort zones and uncertainty relayed by participants illuminated an understanding of risk-taking and what it may mean for early career PE teachers.

Nathan explained that during the training year, he remembered working outside his comfort zone when he taught new activities and how the outcomes for these were unknown to him:

There were only a few sports that I knew very well anyway, so straight away having to teach the different areas and how to approach them, and sometimes the independent learning and putting that onto the pupils was a risk for me because it was unknown.

Here an element of the unknown was described, which concurs with the views of Beck (2009) who roots the origins of risk in engagement with the unknown, whilst calculating any perceived threats. Outcomes, for example, could not be guaranteed but the reason behind trying the risk would always be that a potential learning benefit may occur. Helena explained:  

Well, I think risk-taking should always be sensible, it shouldn’t be taking a risk where you may put the kids in danger or anything like that, but it is just
to me, doing something that is going to benefit me or the kids and is out of my comfort zone.

Jennifer described risk-taking in relation to the challenge of working out of her comfort zone, stating it is ‘doing something out of the ordinary. So, it maybe requires a little bit more effort and is a bit more challenging for both you and the students’. Seale, Nind, and Simmons (2013, p. 245) when conceptualising positive risk-taking for special needs education, consider discourse around such challenge of practice through positive risk-taking to be transformational and ‘open up new ways of thinking’.

Nathan talked about risks in terms of outcomes where a risk is ‘not knowing for definite what the outcome might be ... hoping it would go the way I wanted but not being 100% sure’. James also described risk-taking in terms of unknown outcomes:

It could be a massive success or it could be a big flop. There is uncertainty there. You are not sure whether it will be a positive or negative outcome — in that you don’t quite know how pupils will react or if they will learn what you intend them to. It is not playing it safe.

Likewise, Joe felt that taking a risk was about the ‘unknown’ and the fact that he did not know what the outcome would be, how pupils would react to a task or pupils not achieving the learning outcomes intended for the lesson. He also believed that it may involve pupils achieving outcomes but in different, sometimes unexpected, ways. Lizzie’s views corresponded with these. She considered a risk to be something new but not knowing whether the outcome would be positive or negative. Seale, Nind, and Simmons (2013, p. 243) consider the benefits of working without a prescribed plan which will ‘require the teacher to venture into the unknown’. They describe this as an adventure which engages the teacher and learner with a sensitivity and emotional awareness to the learner's needs, arguing that working in this way moves teachers ‘into original and creative thinking spaces’ (Seale, Nind, and Simmons, 2013, p. 244). The notion of creativity is seen here, whereby original and novel ideas may be engaged with under such circumstances, without an awareness of the possible outcomes, more creative thinking may be evident as teachers support learners to achieve. Atkinson (2008, p. 4) similarly believes that learning occurs when unknown practices are engaged with, considering working in such ways to involve ‘a leap into a new ontological space,
where the event of learning precipitates a new order of becoming’. When participants took risks, they found themselves working in the unknown, and in the realms of uncertainty. Working in this way, they described epiphanic moments of learning which benefitted both themselves and their pupils.

Nathan for example found that when he was leading lessons in outdoor adventure problem solving, he tended to provide pupils with the answers before they could think for themselves. He reflected upon this and took what he considered a risk by allowing pupils to experience the ‘problem’ before questioning them on their possible solutions. He found that when given the opportunity, pupils were able to find out the answers to problems themselves or in collaboration with their peers and experienced a deeper level of learning. This epiphanic moment led to a change in Nathan’s practice, whereby in future lessons Nathan would give pupils ‘a go’ before questioning or demonstrating knowledge.

Lizzie described what she considered her ‘biggest risk’ where for the first time she used video technology with an examination group to help them develop their performance to a higher level. Much like Luke’s ‘Freeze frame,’ Lizzie had planned a variety of tasks which were based on pupil ability and linked specifically to pass, merit or distinction criteria. She described this as being ‘out of my comfort zone completely’ because it involved pupils working at their own pace and on different tasks and was not as controlled in the same way as her usual lessons. Lizzie reflected on this lesson as one of the best for pupil outcomes, she noted how it enabled pupils to develop their knowledge to higher levels and ones which aligned with their expected grades. And to her it:

Meant that I could give them some more guided feedback and so they would get it the first time and they could get a merit if they had a pass already.

For Lizzie, it enabled higher levels of learning where pupils were able to evaluate and analyse practices in more depth. We can see here the connections between Lizzie working out of her comfort zone and in the realms of uncertainty, relating to the previous theme of managing control of pupil learning. From these interactional moments with pupils, she found that allowing pupils greater responsibility and
independence in their learning, even though a risk, inducing feelings of uncertainty, led to greater pupil learning and better outcomes. Lizzie’s experiences align with research findings of better outcomes (Patton and Griffin, 2008), pupil responsibility and attitude when learners are empowered and independent (Morgan, Kingston, and Sproule, 2005; Oliver et al, 2015).

Sarah recalled a risk for her which also involved her first use of technology, but on this occasion, it was the use of mobile phones in lessons. Working in this way was unknown and held uncertainties for Sarah. She explained that in her department:

> We started to use mobile phones in lessons, some people see that as a risk and some don’t. But I felt that because I hadn’t done it before I didn’t really know how to handle it or manage it, that was a risk for me and the first lesson that I did, an orienteering lesson, and they [pupils] had to go around school and photo different areas.

Sarah found this a risk as pupils had freedom around the school site and ‘if it hadn’t been handled properly it could have just escalated and something could have happened’. She went on to describe the benefits of such an approach:

> I think it [taking risks] is trying different approaches, allowing students to come up with their own activities and lead sessions instead of me doing it all of the time, so for me the risk was when I couldn’t control the situation and was allowing other people to, I had to step back and take a risk, step back and see what happens.

Sarah felt this to be an epiphanic moment where she learned to give pupils greater freedom for their own learning and when they had this, found pupils to be more engaged and allowed her time to step back, observe learning and offer appropriate support and feedback. As Sarah experienced success when taking such risks and moving out of her comfort zone, she began to get comfortable with trying new things and working in the realms of uncertainty. The temporal nature of risk-taking again being evident. Sarah recalled:

> I think that then I carried on [taking risks] throughout my placement and then when I got more confident with it and learned how to handle it and facilitate it then I became more comfortable to take more risks if you know what I mean?
Working outside of their comfort zone and in the realms of uncertainty was also described by participants as relational in that, the opinions of others and how participants felt they were viewed by others was important and affected their practices. Participants talked of times when their mentors supported and encouraged them to take risks and venture into unknown practices. Much like the findings of McCormack, Gore and Thomas (2006) who explored early career teacher professional learning, the most significant and valuable learning arose from collaborative, informal and peer support. Ideas for risk-taking were not always thought about during planned meetings but occurred during informal conversations. This is also synonymous with the benefits of professional dialogue, collaborative planning and informal learning situations found in PE communities of practice (Armour and Yelling, 2007; Casey, Dyson and Campbell, 2009; Goodyear and Casey, 2015). For some participants, however, this changed when they went on to teach in schools and for others, the support and encouragement remained. The influence of others and communities of practice will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter, however, three stories, from Joe, Helena and Jonathan will illuminate further understandings for this theme of comfort zones and uncertainty in relation to the support of others. Joe recalled the support of his mentor when he wished to take a risk, suggesting that he:

Give it a go, give the class a concept to go off and do something with it and don’t give them any guidelines’ and I thought ‘I don’t know about that’ but they were good . . . it could have been absolute chaos but because it worked for that group they were brilliant and I couldn’t have come up with half of the ideas.

Joe was working in unknown territory but because he had the backing and support of his mentor he felt he had the confidence to try this risk. Once in his teaching role, however, Joe became reluctant to work in the unknown with uncertain outcomes. This aligns with the findings of Keay (2009) and opinions of Capel and Blair (2007) who found PE teachers new to the profession often adopted practices which enabled them to be accepted and fit in with school communities and PE practices. Joe referred to senior colleagues questioning examination results and the reluctance to therefore try practices with unknown outcomes which may be at the expense of examination results for the school. In more recent research, Chappell (2014) also found that the current climate for
high workload and increased expectations limited opportunities for new teachers to reflect upon, adapt and try new practices. Participants often spoke of the pressures of examination results and accountability and more on this will be discussed in the chapter to follow.

Helena also praised the support of her mentors and reflected on how they provided encouragement to give her the confidence to try unknown practices. She recalled:

If I was kind of struggling with something, they were just like ‘just try it’ and they were very encouraging ‘you have got to try it, if you don’t try it you’ll never know if it’s going to work . . . then she was really supportive she was like, ‘you have to keep going, even though it hasn’t worked for your first lesson you have to stick with it’ and she encouraged me to stick with it and it did get better.

For Helena, this type of support and the relationships developed with other department members gave her the confidence to try new practices, even when she was uncertain. She talked of the times when colleagues would share practices they had tried out, ones that worked alongside those that didn’t. Such conversations would generate further ideas to provide pupils with better learning experiences. Helena secured employment in the school in which she trained and felt she was lucky to work with such a positive team of colleagues. She recalled how she was asked to deliver a professional development session, during her second year of teaching, to colleagues from different subjects. She found this a risk and was uncertain about how other, more experienced colleagues may view her ideas. She commented:

Well, it was being the people I work with, I didn't want them to think that I know more than them, which I don't. It was just seeing if we could help each other out really. It was a bit of a risk because you don't want to look like if I got things wrong, I didn't want it to look like I was in front of other people I work with and getting something wrong. And it was a risk because it was requiring them to get involved in a task that I was setting them and . . . they may not have felt comfortable doing that.

Helena was pleased to find that colleagues enjoyed her session, were complementary and she also learned from them. When asked to lead a second professional development session on a different topic she was more than willing and confident to do this as it ‘felt more comfortable because I had done it before’. Not all participants, however, had the
same experiences. Jonathan also talked about risk-taking in terms of comfortable and uncomfortable practices and also the way it made him feel. Jonathan talked of the emotions and the feelings experienced when planning or taking a risk. He talked positively about ‘feeling good’ when having taken a risk, or even if things had not worked out as planned then enjoying the feeling that you get knowing that you ‘had the confidence to do it’.

From participants’ stories of risk-taking it was evident that they not only tried new practices but challenged themselves to work outside of their comfort zone and in the realms of uncertainty. Participants challenged themselves to engage with the unknown to develop their own learning and that of the pupils they taught with examples both ‘of the job’ and ‘in the job’. Working with uncertainty and in the unknown, is considered to be where new knowledge and learning rewards are gained (Atkinson, 2008; Davies, 1999; Seale, Nind and Simmons, 2013) and where ‘real learning’ (Atkinson, 2008, p. 4) occurs. By working outside of their comfort zones, engaging with uncertainty and the unknown, participants experienced epiphanic moments which led to new understandings and, in turn, evoked new knowledge and learning for both themselves and the pupils they taught.

4.3.4 Careers and Change

The final theme that emerged from participants’ stories of risk-taking related to careers and changes to job roles or embarking upon a new career. This theme was a shift in focus and a different type of risk to those of professional and practice risk, as described previously. The risk here was associated with career risk. For two participants, Nathan and Jonathan, they had moved out of well-established careers and completed their teacher training year in the hope of securing employment as PE teachers. Changing careers into teaching is not unusual and much recent research has tended to focus upon the Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics (STEM) subject’s due to the difficulties in recruiting to these subjects. Career changes have been associated with changes to identity (Wilson and Deaney, 2010; Watters and Diezmann, 2015) and at times challenges related to support provided by colleagues and achieving autonomy.
(Haggard, Slostad and Winterton, 2006; Watters and Diezmann, 2015) given that such individuals often come to teaching with high levels of subject knowledge, experience managing others and understanding of the workplace. It seemed here that changes in career for participants involved times of uncertainty which were considered a risk. In contrast to this, James had a well-established teaching career but was looking to move on to a new career, at the time of interview unknown, he was, therefore, leaving his job and venturing into the unknown, again experiencing uncertainty. Participants talked of the risks they felt were inherent with career changes, they were venturing into unknown territory and had the added risk of uncertainty regarding securing paid work and so financially supporting themselves and their partners.

Research from USA has considered motivations for pursuing a career in PE have been defined as varied and categorised in two ways. Andrew, Richards and Sookhenlall Padaruth (2017) draw upon the work of Schempp and Curtner-Smith and, Hastie and Kinchin to identify two types of recruits to PE teaching. Those who have sought a career in PE as a contingency to their coaching careers, and those who viewed teaching PE as their primary career objective. The motivations described above have been considered to impact upon the way in which PE teachers view teaching, pedagogy and their careers, being identified as either coaching-oriented or teaching-oriented (Andrew, Richards, Lux Gaudreault, 2017; Andrew, Richards and Sookhenlall Padaruth, 2017; Curtner-Smith, 2001). Coaching-oriented recruits are more likely to ‘be oriented towards traditional, custodial approaches to teaching PE’ (Andrew et al, 2014, p.119) and, have a continued desire to coach their sport. Whilst teaching oriented recruits are more likely to take on board innovative orientations and be content with their roles as teachers (Curtner-Smith 2001). Andrew, Richards and Sookhenlall Padaruth (2017) in their opinion piece suggest a third orientation of fitness-oriented recruit, whose focus is on the development of fitness in children and preventing obesity. Even though this study was not conducted in USA, aspects resonate with the stories told by participants regarding their career changes and choices. For both Nathan and Jonathan, who changed careers to pursue a career in PE, on the surface their career changes may be viewed in the former way, as a contingency career. Whereas, participants such as Lizzie and James appeared that their prime motivators were to teach PE as their main career objective. It therefore, was
surprising that James was willing to leave a career he had pursued since a young age to venture into an uncertain future.

Nathan and Jonathan had come to teacher training a little later on in their careers compared to other participants, following successful careers in the sports coaching and fitness industries. Both saw their move to teaching as providing greater security, offering more flexibility and making positive change to the PE experiences of children (Chambers, 2002). They both considered teacher training and the yearlong course as a risk in itself even though for different reasons. Jonathan had experience with children and in sport; however, he had not worked directly in schools so, in his words, ‘all of the processes along with the training was quite new really so, therefore, it all became a risk’. Jonathan talked further about establishing himself within the school institution, department and also as a teacher, recalling that during the training year one of his biggest risks was to ‘never say no’. Jonathan had competed as a top-level athlete and having been well established within the coaching fraternity and successful in his previous job role, may well have been defined as coaching-oriented with a desire to coach and perpetuate such practices within schools (Andrew, Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). His fears of a move to PE teaching and the risks he associated with the ‘newness’ of teacher training however, appeared to suggest he was forming a new identity as a teacher and also aspired to be an agent of change for PE teaching (MacPhail and Tannehill, 2012), characteristics which have frequently been associated with career and role changes (Chambers, 2002; Purdy, Kohe and Paulauskas, 2017; Vähäsantanen, Saarinen and Eteläpelto, 2009). Even though the Risk-Taking PDP did not impact Jonathan’s choice to change to a career of teaching, when he trained and entered the teaching profession, he continued to take risks by choice both in his teaching practices and to further his career development. In contrast to the coaching-oriented disposition he may have been pigeon-holed to, Jonathan’s future practices and his values and beliefs towards PE and teaching could be argued as becoming or were already teacher-oriented.

Nathan also underwent a career change and he felt that giving up the security of a job and regular income to move to a non-paid teacher training course was a risk for him, even though he considered teaching in itself to be a secure job. He stated:
I mean the whole of the PGCE year itself was a real risk for me, stepping outside of my comfort zone. It was something completely new for me at that stage of my life anyway. It was a complete change going into it and starting a whole new career at a point where I was very comfortable in a career and what I knew.

Nathan had worked in the fitness industry in managerial roles, had also coached athletics at a high level and, felt that ‘working with children was an unknown and again a risk for me’. He did, however, see the benefits, similar to those outlined by Chambers (2002) of taking such a risk as being a long-term career working with children and having clear career progressions that would suit him ‘in later life’. Nathan actively saw his career progressing beyond PE teaching and into a more managerial or senior role, aspirations recognised in other studies for career changers (Chambers, 2002; Haggard, Slostad, and Winterton, 2006). Nathan may have also been considered to have coaching-oriented motivators to teaching due to his background, however even though his coaching experience helped him secure outstanding teaching during his training year, in all of the time that I engaged with Nathan, I recall his motivators moving between the three; coaching, teaching and fitness-oriented (Andrew, Richards and Sookhenlall Padaruth, 2017). Nathan was keen to engage with risk-taking, particularly ‘in the job,’ within his lessons and engaged regularly with dialogue with colleagues during his training year to enhance his practice through new pedagogies and ideas. Nathan had secured a job late on in the training year. Initially, he was very selective and during the training year told me that he was only going to apply to local schools that he thought would his career aspirations, this may have been due to his career change from a managerial role, and desire to secure promotion later in his career. However, minimal opportunities presented themselves and he eventually applied for and secured a temporary post in a school close to his home town.

Unlike Jonathan and Nathan, James went straight from school to university and then onto the PGCE year yet, like many other participants also felt that the whole of the training year was a risk as it was ‘experimental’ and everything was new learning, from getting to know the groups of children to trying different teaching styles. James progressed through education and straight into university, he had always maintained a motivation to teach PE and may well have been characterised as teacher-oriented in
these motivations. However, when defining risk-taking, he referred to his career risk which had come four years into his teaching career as he moved from teaching into the unknown. When we met, I found it surprising that James had decided to leave his current school without a job to go to. He saw this decision partly as a risk but also an exciting new chapter in his life as there was uncertainty in what he would be doing. James commented:

Ultimately, I don’t know what I will be doing, and another bit of me is thinking that I am quite excited about it . . . I am not pressured into thinking I have to organise everything I am doing so it might be that something comes up and I don’t have to say I don’t know, like if a rugby job has come up at this place, can you do it, I could just say yes. Or another job somewhere else, like in a different country, I could say yes.

James seemed to be referring to a freedom of choice, he appeared to be waiting for an opportunity to arise and he would have the freedom from a contract at school to be able to take a new job. In line with this, changes to the careers of PE teachers, or career re-orientation have been attributed by Bizet et al (2010, p. 230) to ‘(a) the pursuit of new challenges for older physical education teachers, and (b) job precariousness for younger ones’. Thus, older teachers looking for new and exciting prospects and younger PE teachers seeking career change due to uncertain or unstable circumstances. Even though I would consider James a young teacher, he did not talk of unstable circumstances in his school, it, therefore, appeared that James had made a conscious decision to try something new in his career. He had clearly reflected upon his experiences as a PE teacher and was looking for something different, a new challenge and move out of the day to day aspects of his current job role. James did, however, find himself teaching in a department he described as ‘old school’ whereby new, creative and innovative ways of teaching were not the norm of their day to day practices which may have influenced his career change decision.

During the training year James had actively thrived upon taking risks and learning from new ideas and practices of colleagues, even though James did not state it directly, the thought did cross my mind that James felt suffocated within the department, unable to experiment, try new things and take risks, which may have resulted in his willingness to take an even bigger risk of leaving his job and risking insecurity. The research of Purdy,
Kohe and Paulauskas (2017) from a coaching perspective, holds similarities to this school environment and they suggest that such conditions in the workplace may have implications for professional agency, job satisfaction, and professional identity. It may be that the involvement of and influences of other more senior colleagues may have contrasted to the values and motivations of James and thus led to a lack of job satisfaction and inability to action change or influence practices. The literature further suggests a variety of reasons for teachers leaving the PE profession, to include the challenges of personal and organisational environments (Lynn and Woods, 2010). Lynn and Woods (2010) found one reason why the single subject of their narrative research ‘Patsy’ moved from PE teaching was that she felt unable to make a contribution to wider school roles and beyond PE. These findings resonate with my own interpretations of James’ story in that he appeared to find his ideas undervalued within the ‘traditional’ department in which he worked. He wanted to enable learners to work more independently and, much like Patsy ‘make a difference in the personal growth of her students-socially, emotionally, or academically’ (Lynn and Woods, 2010, p. 68). James may have found himself in a motivational dichotomy, where the school in which he found himself was maybe more coach-oriented and James may have been unable to pursue his teaching-oriented motivations due to the constraints of his environment and so chose to leave this job. Here, a further unintended consequence of risk-taking may be that it encourages personal growth and a greater orientation towards teachers becoming agents of change so, in environments where risk-taking is not prevalent this may lead to dissatisfaction and limited opportunities to make valued contributions resulting in a move to a different job, as was the case with ‘Patsy’ (Lynn and Woods, 2010).

During my interview with James, I was intrigued to find out what both his older, more experienced colleagues thought about this, and also his younger colleagues who were PE teachers. He told me:

Typically, it is the older generation that gives me that sort of reaction [one of surprise and caution], you haven’t got a job basically, and I say ‘yes that’s right’ but they don’t understand. The younger people I tell think ‘oh, I wish I could do that’ and they are quite jealous of that and wish they could do it.
They do think it's a bit of a risk as it could be a nightmare of what could happen but I see it as an open door really.

There were a number of times during interviews that I could not help but move back into my role as their personal tutor, as I had been during his training year. James’ story took me back to my tutoring role and I reflected upon how I might advise a teacher, training or early in their career under such circumstances. I knew that I would have advised a cautious approach, suggesting he secured a different job before he left his current one. I became acutely aware that I was averse to risk under these circumstances. If it was my own risk then maybe not so averse but within a supportive and nurturing role as his past tutor, I would have advised him differently. Even though I felt a small element of fear for James as he was entering the unknown, he was absolutely certain that it was the right decision for him. He saw it as opening doors to new opportunities and exciting challenges.

This was not the first time during this study I found myself questioning and challenging my own beliefs. In advocating risk-taking, I held a personal expectation to continue to take my own risks, I would do this in practice, however, would not wish to comprehend such a risk of uncertainty in leaving my job or changing my own career in the way my participants had. Even though in my own role as a teacher, I had achieved promotions and sought new challenges, moving from the role of PE teacher to teacher trainer, I always identified myself as a teacher. My own ‘sense of belonging and acceptance within the profession’ (Watters and Diezmann, 2015, p. 168) may have been the reason that I felt uncomfortable with James decisions. In the retelling of this story, I questioned my own experiences, values and identity and how this may have affected the training PE teachers that I had taught. A growing reflexivity emerged in my own thinking, my own perspectives began to shift (Savin-Baden and Major, 2013) further reinforcing the views of Clandinin (2013) where the coming together of participants and researcher’s stories continually shape their future lives.

The definitions provided by the participants discussed in this section, related to career change, was unexpected. It did not align with the more practice related and professional risks intended by the Risk-Taking PDP but were more associated with career risk. This
definition may not illuminate insights directly related to the Risk-Taking PDP yet do hold importance as they may open up suggestions for future research related to career change and risk. Such suggestions may include attitudes towards risk, uncertainty and the probability of negative outcomes and the influence of school risk-taking practices upon the career changes made by PE teachers.

4.4 Chapter Summary

Within this chapter I have explored the definitions that participants attributed to risk-taking, those of challenging pedagogies, managing control, comfort and uncertainty, careers and change. Within these definitions the temporal and relational aspects associated with risk-taking have been evident showing a change in definition with the influence of time, past, present and future experiences and, the influence of others including colleagues and pupils when taking risks. Epiphanic moments have informed both the definitions and also, shown those experiences of heightened significance where learning occurred for both pupils and teachers. The chapter to follow will build upon the relational and temporal nature of risk-taking to explore further the influences on risk-taking once early career teachers begin teaching in schools.
Chapter 5. Influences on Risk-taking

Introduction

This chapter considers the influences on risk-taking that participants experienced during the training year and once teaching in schools. The epiphanic moments described illuminated influences that were relative to both the context and places in which participants found themselves and the interactions with others. Clandinin and Connelly (2000) remind us that the dimensions of sociality and place exist within narrative inquiry. Furthermore, Mead (1934) highlights the interconnectedness of social influences on learning and learners. The themes uncovered that influenced risk-taking exemplified these dimensions. In addition, the epiphanic moments of risk-taking were also found to be temporal, again a dimension of narrative inquiry identified by Clandinin and Connelly (2000) and of Luhmann’s (1993) social theory of risk. Influences on risk-taking occurred during moments in the present, being influenced by the past with projected uncertainty of the future outcomes. Participants spoke of the risks they took that once successful, over time, became their everyday practice, or those risks that did not go to plan but were epiphanic moments of learning. This chapter will outline epiphanies of contextual (place), relational (sociality) and temporal (temporality) influence upon risk-taking that were experienced by participants during their training year and once they began teaching in schools. Epiphanic experiences centred around three key areas of influence. Those of:

1. Performativity, with increased accountability and time constraints when teaching in schools;

2. Pupil behaviour and the training year to school paradox this illuminated and,

3. The influences of the subject community, the PE department.

Through listening to the epiphanic moments experienced by participants a deeper insight emerged into risk-taking during and beyond the training year.
5.1 Performativity: Accountability and Time

The first theme uncovered epiphanic moments related to performativity and more particularly the constraints of increased accountability and reduced time. The concept of performativity has been applied extensively to schooling contexts (Ball, 2003; Brehony, 2005) and is seen to be characterised by three strands of policy and practice (Wilkins, 2011). Firstly, it has an ‘audit / target culture’ (Wilkins, 2011, p. 391) where targets are continually used to measure the effectiveness of teachers. This is prevalent within both core and examination PE teacher assessment targets that are regularly reported on in schools. Teacher assessments are generally expected during key stage three and four, where examination grade targets form a regular focus for both monitoring and reporting upon pupil progress and achievement. Secondly, emphasis is placed upon ‘interventionalist regulatory mechanisms’ (Wilkins, 2011, p. 391) which now falls to the remit of Ofsted for schools in England. All schools that participants taught in were legally required to undergo Ofsted inspections according the most recent Ofsted Framework (Ofsted, 2017). Ofsted review the progress of a school periodically, depending upon its previous grade and consider a range of indicators, those indicators most relevant to participants were the analysis of pupils’ ‘academic achievement over time, taking account of both attainment and progress’ (Ofsted, 2017, p. 8). And thirdly, the requirement of a ‘market environment’ (Wilkins, 2011, p. 391) where parents have become consumers who inform their choices of schools on Ofsted reports and examination levels through leagues of attainment. Even though participants did not refer directly to the schools appealing to parents, underlying influences were found to be Ofsted and examination attainment which were readily available to parents and monitored by school senior management teams. For many participants, transitioning from the training year to the NQT year led to feelings of greater accountability in relation

\[\text{Current indicators used by Ofsted (2017, p. 8) when risk-assessing a school include analysis of: ‘pupils’ academic achievement over time, taking account of both attainment and progress’ - pupils’ attendance - the outcomes of any inspections, such as survey inspections, carried out by Ofsted since the last routine inspection - the views of parents, including those shown by Parent View, an online questionnaire for parents - qualifying complaints about the school referred to Ofsted by parents - any other significant concerns that are brought to Ofsted’s attention’.}\]
to the measures characterised by performativity. Accountability for pupil learning, examination results and to Ofsted criteria whilst, at the same time, finding less time to plan or explore creative and new ideas. For some participants, these factors led to either a reluctance or lack of time to engage with risk-taking and will be explored further during this chapter.

Clements (2013, p. 3) considers a modern interpretation of accountability to be ‘an individual’s obligation to report, explain, or justify something that is able to be explained’. Greater teacher accountability and demands for higher levels of academic standards have been prevalent within the UK education system for many years (Hunt, Gurvitch and Lund 2016; Jenlink, 2017) and have been argued to encourage a risk averse approach to education (Biesta, 2013). Jenlink (2017, p. 163) refers to society as having an ‘ideologically bound culture of accountability’. This culture of accountability was found to influence risk-taking adversely in some contexts and in others, risk-taking was encouraged to enhance the learning and performance of pupils. In addition to this, where a shared and transparent approach towards accountability and teacher target setting was experienced, participants found this encouraged their engagement with risk-taking.

Epiphanies that were prevalent in participants’ stories referred to the changes in accountability as they transitioned from the training year to teaching in schools. During the training year they felt that their mentors were mostly accountable and responsible for classes, even when as trainees they solely taught the classes. When they began teaching in schools however, they felt a shift in accountability as they became fully responsible for the classes that they taught, particularly in terms of behaviour, progress and achievement. Participants described how they were far more accountable as teachers to provide evidence of pupil progress and learning. This in turn affected their willingness to take risks as it was seen as an ‘added extra’ to day to day teaching practices and so accountability alongside time availability mitigated the extent of risk-taking for some participants. Constraints of time, access to facilities and responding to external pressures have also been found to constrain teaching practices more generally.
in secondary schools across the core subjects of English, mathematics and science (Hennessy, Ruthven and Brindley, 2005).

The influence of performativity, more particularly responsibility and accountability were heard within the telling of Joe’s story. Epiphanic moments portrayed views related to increased responsibility and accountability for pupil learning influencing his willingness to take risks once he began teaching in schools. He recalled that during the training year, trainees were only in schools for a brief period of time, especially a first placement of six weeks. As a trainee, Joe recalled how he felt that achievement of learning outcomes and responsibility for grade outcomes was still that of his mentor. Yet he believed:

One of the biggest things is going from training to NQT year is the data stuff . . . and the realisation is that when you get to your NQT year and you get the deputy head pointing the finger at you for this, this and this . . . especially if it is something like GCSE PE when you have all of the content to get through and sometimes, . . . you know they are going to learn it but you have a lesson where you’re just giving them information and that is not taking a risk at all, and I think taking risks are almost limited because you are afraid of the outside pressures aren’t you?

The accountability for pupils to achieve high examination grades can be seen here and Joe appears to view this as a potential reprimand when he uses the metaphor of ‘pointing the finger’. Joe talked about the changes to the GCSE PE syllabus and how time had become more restricted as there had been changes leading to greater theoretical content in the new syllabus. Joe believed that taking risks had become harder once in schools. He felt that by taking a risk he may not be able to control the outcomes for pupil learning, particularly with the need for pupils to have greater subject content knowledge. Having more theoretical content to cover within the syllabus meant that if Joe took a risk and pupils did not learn enough he would need to repeat the session to ensure pupils had all of the necessary knowledge and achieved the grades they were expected to. With curriculum time being limited, he felt constrained by this and so chose not to take risks when faced with such time and accountability pressures. Joe seemed to accept that accountability measures regarding covering content and meeting grades were necessary, as he moved beyond the training year his approach to risk-taking changed due to the context he found himself in, one of greater accountability. This is
reflective of findings where teachers appear to accept accountability and performativity measures (Jenlink, 2017; Wilkins, 2011), viewing them as important to demonstrate successes both internally of teacher performance and externally to parents and governance measures, whilst at times neglecting the quality of learning for pupils (Jenlink, 2017).

James, having taught for four years, held responsibility for pupil progress and achievement in GCSE PE and, like Joe voiced his reluctance to try new ideas or take risks by using new teaching strategies. Joe and Helena also referred to a recent change in the examination PE syllabus that was new to staff and pupils in their schools. Helena for example commented:

> Well, there is a lot of pressure and so, every three weeks they [pupils] are being tested and given feedback, which especially with the new GCSE syllabus being 70% theory they have to do it [cover the content].

For Joe, James and Helena, exerting pressure led to a reluctance to use new and innovative approaches to check learning in class. For James he became reluctant to use ‘technology or quizzes,’ even though these were well practised methods he had used when teaching the previous syllabus. James described how taking risks would be too time consuming for staff when they were delivering a new course. He explained:

> Now isn’t the right time to take risks with that [GCSE PE]. Any knowledge they do not pick up through the risk then I would be responsible, I definitely think there are times for taking risks and times for knuckling down and getting thorough what you have to get through [GCSE PE syllabus].

From this explanation, James’ experience seems to reflect how risk aversion continues to manifest itself in contemporary education, with policy that focuses upon performance and statistical data (Biesta, 2013). This aligns with the ‘risk-averse and target chasing’ culture that is infiltrating the education system (Wilkins, 2011, p. 391) and can be argued as contrary to the DFE’s (2010, 2016b) claims that current curricula offer greater autonomy. It may be that they are believed to offer teachers greater autonomy however, the accountability measures attached to achievement of high examination results are seen from the experiences of some participants in this study to
inhibit autonomy and encourage greater instructional teaching methods rather than creative ones.

Accountability for pupil learning outcomes, examination grades, performance measures linked to teacher and school targets and Ofsted criteria appear from the participants’ experiences to continue to stifle innovative and creative practices. For example, accountability to Ofsted illuminated a restriction on Helena’s willingness to take risks. She explained how:

There is the pressure to evidence everything you are doing. You couldn’t just take a risk and have like a lesson discussion, although they might learn loads, but for Ofsted there isn’t any evidence of what they have done so it is about preparing for that and it comes back to time.

Helena was reluctant to take risks when teaching non-examination and examination PE due to the external pressures of accountability to Ofsted to evidence pupil progress and ensure that pupils achieved high grades in examination subjects. In line with this, Wilkins (2011) suggests that accountability pressures are evident when schools rely upon good examination results and positive Ofsted feedback to ensure their popularity for parents selecting their children’s schools. Helena’s school had been graded as Outstanding by Ofsted and had consistently achieved high examination results for many years. These are likely to be reasons why it was always an oversubscribed school. My own experiences of the school and local community were that it was highly popular and a first-choice school for parents to send their children. The pressure to maintain high levels of examination grades, high Ofsted outcomes and continued oversubscription may have added pressure on teachers to achieve highly through such performativity measures. Jenlink (2017, p. 169) warns that such cultures of accountability distract from the principles of a democratic society as they hold concern ‘with controlling and measuring performance that serves the accountability system, rather than serving individuals and improving learning’. In Helena’s case, and in contrast to Jenlink (2017) serving pupils and improving learning did appear high on the school agenda and even though at times Helena felt restricted to take risks, at other times, risk-taking was encouraged.
Closely linked to teacher accountability, participants also talked of time and the constraints on the availability of time once teaching in schools. This was in direct contrast to the increased availability of time during the training year. Time was considered even more precious and essential to plan effective lessons with the aim of ensuring good pupil outcomes once teaching in schools. The lack of time available to meet and engage in dialogue with fellow colleagues was also noted. Risk-taking often became seen as requiring significant amounts of time to reflect and plan and so for some, became redundant or superfluous when it was pitched against other priorities, such as examination grades and pupil performance. The link of time to accountability again can be seen within some contexts to mitigate the extent of risk-taking undertaken by participants. Such insights would align with the opinions of Wilkins (2011, p.391), who suggests that those who advocate increased accountability measures would argue these have ‘led to an ultimately damaging risk-averse, target-chasing ethos where traditional notions of context-specific practice emerging through professional dialogue are suppressed’ (Wilkins, 2011, p. 391).

During the training year, James did not feel the pressures of accountability and time. He described the training year as a time when he thought it was ‘easy to think outside the box’ as there was time to plan and to think about new and creative ideas. When he moved into a full-time job however, he felt that time and accountability constraints limited opportunities to consider and plan risks. He talked of how risks needed time to be planned effectively and considered that ‘If I planned [a risk] quickly, this would impact the quality of the risk or limit pupil learning’. I believe what James was referring to here, was an increase in the probability of the risk outweighing the benefits if time for planning was insufficient. He was therefore reluctant to experiment with practice outside of his normal day to day practices when time was limited.

Sarah and Helena, like other participants also found time constraints prevented them from taking risks as often as they would have liked to. I remembered that during the training year how both Sarah and Helena had always shown willingness to develop their practice, move out of their comfort zones and, take risks. During her training year Sarah was always exploring and experimenting with new ideas so it came as no surprise to me
that she would find such constraints frustrating. This highlights the individualised aspect to risk-taking where Sarah reflected upon and embraced taking risks as one way to develop her professional learning. The success she had previously experienced to move into new or changed state of learning (Atkinson, 2008) was now limited due to time and that led to disappointment. Unlike the emotional disappointment Brazeau (2005) describes when risks are unsuccessful, Sarah seemed disappointed that time constraints on her teaching limited engagement in risk-taking.

Sarah’s epiphanic moment brings to light the frustrations felt when time constraints hindered risk-taking. Sarah commented, ‘with the workload you have you can get really bogged down with stuff and your creativity goes’. The impact this seemed to have upon her morale and emotional state was evident and I found myself again reverting back to my role as tutor and wanting to offer and provide support and solutions to help her through these troublesome times. Sarah explained:

I felt this year it was so easy to get dragged down with things, the marking and things like that and by the time you have got all of that out of the way you haven’t got any time to plan creative lessons and I struggled with that this year because that is what I loved last year and I hate just doing boring lessons and you can see the kids going ‘oh no not again’ and having little Teach Meets or just looking, or going through Pinterest, I know it sounds daft but things like that inspire you and you think ‘oh I can try that’.

I knew that Sarah would have wanted to continue to take risks in her teaching so I asked her what time she did get to explore such things, she explained how this began to happen in her non-work time:

Well, it’s at night really and you should be going to sleep but you think ‘oh let’s just have a quick look on here’ and I find holidays are my time to get my bank of resources back up again because I don’t have time in the week and on the weekend, I am marking or trying to plan something for next week.

Jennifer, also found that she began to take risks less frequently once teaching in school’s due to the constraints of time. She recollected how during the training year the main responsibilities were to plan lessons, which enabled time to plan risks and try more creative ideas. When she became an NQT however, due to other responsibilities and draws on her time, she found she taught the ‘norm’ and was ‘just teaching what
everybody else taught’. She was disheartened that in the first months of her NQT year she wanted her lessons to be ‘as good a quality as at the end of my PGCE, but you don’t have time and you are too busy worrying’. Jennifer’s positive outlook however ensured that she overcame the constraints on her time and found her own way of managing time to enable her to take risks. Her strategy was to focus upon one class only for a period of time, so she could manage her time effectively to take risks and teach ‘more exciting things’ but on a rotational basis.

Sarah, Jennifer and James, like many of the other participants had found time constraints when teaching in schools had stifled risk-taking. During the training year, increased time was available and set aside for such tasks as planning and reflection on practice. When James began teaching in his school he found a significant difference to that experienced during both of his placements in the training year. James described how mentors during the training year had designated times to meet with trainees where they would engage with dialogue and discuss progress, new ideas and the risks they may wish to take in their teaching. Once in school, James noticed that even though there were times when departmental staff met, procedural information was discussed rather than practice. The contextual forces at play led to a lack of time which restricted opportunities to engage in dialogue and collaborate with other colleagues to take risks. James recalled times during his training year when trainees would share ideas generally and of risk-taking and, wished that this could be part of his time in school. Over the years, theorists (Dewey, 1910; Rodgers, 2002) have reminded us of the contextually situated nature of learning, specifically for training teachers (Herold and Waring, 2011). Whilst Beck (2009) outlines the importance of dialogue and the social construction of risk-taking for learning new ideas and concepts.

Once teaching in schools less time was available during the timetabled day and also, when not in school time Sarah and Jennifer talked of time spent marking and planning to meet the day to day necessities of teaching. Time for reflection, risk-taking, creativity and innovation seemed to be reduced and limited once in schools. Brazeau (2005, p. 541) reminds us that to be successful ‘often necessitates time and emotional involvement’. Taking risks involves time to think, plan and discuss with others.
Furthermore, Seale, Nind and Simmons (2013) would argue that best practice for educational policy, tends to focus upon minimising the risk of getting something wrong, or timewasting in favour of maximising good learning outcomes within constrained time frameworks. Time constraints found by the participants in this study seem to align with the context of educational establishments maximising pupil outcomes, particularly those driven by data, like examination grades, whilst minimizing the time taken to achieve these. The impact of such measures reducing participants’ willingness to take risks due to the fear of its impact upon pupil outcomes and a lack of collaborative engagement through peer dialogue and sharing practice. This view is supported by Rolfe (2010) who talks of how the time constraints within schools and the pressures that are put on schools to achieve examination results become a barrier to risk-taking.

5.2 Pupil Behaviour

This theme captures the idea that pupil behaviour influences teachers’ willingness to take risks and reaches beyond government and media perspectives on the behaviour of pupils within today’s classrooms. For example, epiphanic moments highlighted how the relative nature of context was influential in overriding the temporal learning from past risk-taking linked to the behaviour of pupils or, temporal influences developed resilience for the future contexts that trainees found themselves in.

The behaviour of pupils in schools has been a long-held concern for teachers and training teachers (Armstrong et al, 2016; Roffey, 2011) with low level disruption characterising classrooms (Ofsted, 2012) and increased ‘difficult and disruptive behaviour that is interfering with their learning’ (GOV.UK, 2015, p. 29). Recent press highlights the ongoing problems that schools face which are often in contrast to that reported by Ofsted and school leaders (Bennett, 2017; Grierson, 2017). Recommendations from the Carter Review of Initial Teacher Training (GOV.UK, 2015) provide clear directions for supporting training teachers to develop their behaviour management skills and the resulting guidance report (GOV.UK, 2016f) highlights practical strategies to ensure teachers new to the profession have an ‘understanding and craft of behaviour management’ (GOV.UK, 2016f, p. 4), prioritising practical strategies to manage
behaviour in the classroom. Participants within this study found that the behaviour of pupils within their classes influenced their willingness to take risks and spoke of times when they chose not to take risks due to pupil behaviour. Experiences were described which seemed at odds with participants past learning through risk-taking. Successful teaching strategies which were considered a risk during the training year would no longer be used due to poor pupil behaviour. Thus, even though learning had occurred temporally through risk-taking, once participants were faced with different situations and different types of pupil interactions, their willingness to take risks was influenced, at times negatively.

The behaviour of pupils within lessons alongside school policies related to behaviour were found to be complex in their influence upon participants’ willingness to take risks. The behaviour of pupils for some was seen as constraining to risk-taking. In contrast, others actively took risks to encourage better pupil behaviour and engagement within lessons and, for some, risk-taking led to a negative influence on pupil behaviour. Furthermore, a paradox was found whereby, participants who had taken risks during their training year specifically to encourage better behaviour, found, once appointed to a school, they became unwilling to take risks due to the behaviour of pupils within that school. Whitehouse, Barber and Jones (2015, p. 124) when advising training teachers remind us that ‘learning is multi-dimensional and often context-dependent’ so pupils’ behaviour responses may vary according to an activity or the groups in which they are working.

Jonathan, for example, had taken risks during the training year and he recalled one particular epiphanic moment where the behaviour of a class had led to him taking a risk that demonstrated his resilience and perseverance; a time which seemed to be a response to protect his professional identity. In line with the findings of Dugas (2016, p. 26) Jonathan appeared concerned with how pupils saw him and the type of teacher he wanted to be portrayed as, one who was ‘taken seriously’. During his training year, Jonathan was asked to cover a GCSE PE lesson whilst another member of staff was absent. He agreed even though the group was in his words ‘very challenging with poor behaviour’. Reflecting his ‘Jack-of-all-trades’ mentality and general embrace of risk-
taking, Jonathan agreed to take the lesson however, it did not go well. Behaviour was consistently poor and pupils challenged Jonathan’s authority and demonstrated a reluctance to learn. Jonathan said ‘They just ran me ragged’ and when the lesson had finished he reflected upon why it had gone so wrong. After consideration of his classroom management strategies, undeterred, Jonathan felt that he needed to teach the class again because even though the lesson did not go well, pupils needed to know their behaviour was unacceptable. Also, Jonathan wanted to prove to himself that he could manage the behaviour of this class and teach them well.

Jonathan’s approach is consistent with the temporal nature of risk-taking described by Luhmann (1993). He wanted to experience the same group and re-navigate the mistakes he felt were made in the previous lesson in an attempt to minimise poor behaviour in the future. Jonathan taught the same class the following morning. He planned to minimise the risk, knowing he needed to set his expectations and overcome the behaviour problems that had been encountered previously. Jonathan took the risk to prove to himself that he was ‘strong’ enough to overcome these problems and prove he could manage the behaviour of these pupils. He did not want to give up, he persevered, and the results were good. Pupils engaged and the lesson ‘went really well’. This boosted Jonathan’s confidence to deal with the behaviour related issues that he may face in the future. For Jonathan, it seemed that taking this risk was about preserving his identity as a teacher, the impression he wanted children to have of him and, the expectations that he had of himself and the pupils he taught. These findings are congruent with those of Dugas (2016) who through narrative-based interview research concluded that for new teachers, their identity plays a significant role in the decisions they make and when dealing with pupil behaviour. Dugas (2016, p. 25) provides three further sub-themes that are relevant here, the views of others, including pupils, the view of self and ‘the tension between effective practices and practices that are congruent with one’s identity’. These are emulated in Jonathan’s story. Furthermore, Dugas (2016) and McNally et al (2008) contend that where new teachers prioritise being accepted by pupils yet equally want to have authority within the classroom, this leads to ‘these two desired entities being at odds with one another’ (Dugas, 2016, p. 26). This may well be one of the reasons that participants in this research felt behaviour to be so influential on risk-taking, the
perceived negative outcomes possibly transpiring from the odds felt between wanting to be accepted and having authority in the classroom. Jonathan’s epiphanic moment further reinforces the temporal nature of risk-taking and how the fear of risk diminishes over time, with successive attempts enabling participants’ confidence to grow when they take risks. Jonathan sought to express his identity and build his resilience as a teacher, when faced with the adverse conditions within which he found himself.

Building resilience in pre-service teachers is considered increasingly important in preparing them for the continually changing conditions of education (Le Cornu, 2009; Tait, 2005). The definition of resilience offered by Masten, Best and Garmezy (1990, p. 425) as ‘the process of, capacity for, or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances’ lends itself well to the context of risk-taking. Here, if risk-taking is considered challenging and potentially threatening (Dreger, 2011; Wallenisky, 1997), and its temporality is accepted, then teachers who actively take risks may begin to build up a resilience to similar challenging circumstances within which they find themselves, as was the case for Jonathan. Building resilience in teacher education can be considered far more complex than the definition offered above. It may include not only circumstances, but also ability to deal with behaviour, restrain negative emotions and focus upon the positive (Mansfield et al, 2016). Nevertheless, risk-taking, could be seen to have developed resilience for some of the participants within this study.

Joe, like Jonathan had also taken risks in response to pupil behaviour during his training year. Recalling Joe’s prior experience, I remembered he had come to the PGCE course having worked as a teaching assistant and so having experience with children, particularly those whose behaviour may have been challenging. He talked of the range and variety of ideas and experiences he had gained from the training year and how taking risks, even those that didn’t always work, had enabled his teaching to improve. Joe recalled fondly a time when he had a high ability year nine girls group that he felt he needed to challenge to ensure good behaviour, and tried out an idea, involving the class working independently. Joe recollected:
It could have gone both ways, if it had been a different group it could have been absolute chaos but, it worked for that group they were brilliant and I couldn’t have come up with half of the ideas.

Joe believed that by posing a more challenging lesson to this group, not only did it enhance learning but also led to greater engagement and positive behaviour. Literature (Allen, 2014; Whitehouse, Barber and Jones, 2015) on pupil behaviour would support Joe’s understandings of how to engage pupils in challenging learning tasks to enhance engagement and promote positive behaviour. I believed that Joe’s confidence to take risks during the training year, as opposed to some of his peers who lacked confidence, may have been because he had greater prior experience from his Teaching Assistant role, than many of his fellow trainees and this gave him confidence in his approach to risk-taking. In addition, the subject community or department in which Joe trained was highly supportive, the school had clear policies for behaviour which were applied consistently and this may have further enhanced Joe’s confidence to take risks. These contextual influences appearing to play a significant role in Joe’s approach to risk-taking practices related to the behaviour of pupils. The school context has been noted (Watkins and Wager, 2000) as effecting how poor behaviour is both defined and dealt with in schools. Policy and interactions between pupils and teachers may vary depending upon context. Teachers perceptions are seen as varied depending upon the context of the school, so behaviour seen as acceptable in one setting maybe unacceptable in another (DfE, 2012). Teachers leaving the training year may therefore find policies and practices which are at odds with their previous ways of working and so once working in schools will need to be independent in utilising reflective and flexible strategies with regard to behaviour. Teacher educators may provide placements where training teachers are able to experience of a variety of contexts however, it would be unlikely to provide experience of all possible contingencies. In this light, the Risk-Taking PDP may provide teachers with experience of working in contingency possibly leading to enhanced confidence for working in this way when faced with varying pupil behaviour.

Joe was proud to share his stories of risk from the training year; however, he was also eager to talk about his contrasting experiences from his NQT year and how the school climate and pupil attitudes towards learning were different. He recalled:
They [the girls group] were brilliant, but I think that is down to their ability, their ability to understand, I couldn’t for example, in my NQT year . . ., I could never do that, because the pupils and stuff, it wouldn’t work.

When I asked Joe to explain why this was, he talked about pupil behaviour and how during his NQT year pupils were likely to ‘mess around’ if they were given freedom and independence in lessons. He described the school as having ‘challenging behaviour’ with low level disruption and how he taught classes where very few pupils would engage or demonstrate appropriate behaviour. This change in attitude seemed to highlight how risk-taking is relative to the context within which teachers find themselves, the approach to risk-taking had changed for Joe. I was intrigued to find out why behaviour may be a barrier to risk-taking as I knew that Joe, and other trainees had taken risks in their teaching directly to address issues with pupil behaviour and engagement. Joe felt he could not take risks with these groups as it may have compromised their safety and he lacked trust in the pupils to behave safely if they were given independent tasks. Joe’s epiphanic moment illuminated a paradox related to behaviour and risk-taking. During the training year, Joe recalled two instances where he took risks specifically to promote positive behaviour and with groups he didn’t fully ‘trust’. These were risks using technology and music within lessons. Joe recalled a ‘boisterous’ group with whom he ‘probably shouldn’t have used it [technology]’. He talked about giving pupils strict guidelines and also breaking down the task into manageable pieces. Joe also explained how he used iPads to play an example of a tennis serve, this modelled the skill and technique that pupils would be using during the lesson. Joe was worried that pupils may either ‘misuse the technology’ or ‘may not be able to transfer the image of someone else serving into their own skill’. The outcome to this risk, within his training year was successful yet Joe was cautious and reluctant not to take such risks when faced with problematic behaviour in the new school where he taught.

Once teaching in schools, Joe had an increased sense of accountability which in turn affected his willingness to take risks, even when such risks in different school contexts had been successful. This may suggest that even though risk-taking is temporal, its relative nature, may override its temporality within certain school contexts. Therefore, the risks taken at one particular time, if successful would usually lead to teacher learning
and these practices would become a teacher’s comfortable practice within that context. If, however those same practices were then applied to a differing context or even practiced at a different phase related to the career point of an individual, they are likely to be considered a risk again. Many factors could have been interacting leading to Joe’s unwillingness to take risks. Joe spoke of the risk of accountability and the challenges of poor pupil behaviour yet other influences may have also been at play. Being in his first year, the influence of others may have influenced Joe’s practices as he was establishing himself in the school or, in forging his early identity this may have affected his behaviour management decisions (Dugas, 2016) and also influenced his willingness to take risks.

Nathan’s experiences during his first months of teaching were similar to Joe’s in that he became less willing to take risks due to the behaviour of pupils. He described the contrast between his placement school and his NQT School:

So, what I have experienced before, the behaviour of the pupils has been very good, if pupils were to step outside what you would expect or like them to do, a quiet word and generally they would rein themselves back in, they would be on task. Whereas at the current school it is more challenging and pupils don’t respond particularly well to the teacher in terms of trying to stop any poor behaviour or stepping across the line.

This contrast in pupil behaviour meant that Nathan found taking risks, particularly by allowing pupils greater independence, was ‘quite challenging’ and ‘very difficult.’ In response to this, I wondered if the school had an effective behaviour policy and Nathan informed me that there was a new policy which had been implemented over the past year. However, Nathan did not always agree with aspects of the policy and so had taken risks by trying practices that did not operate within the school policy. Here, the subversion of authority and accountability measures appear present in the pursuit of risk. Nathan was willing to take a risk in taking a risk. He explained how:

I have, rightly or wrongly, at times operated slightly outside of the initial policy to try and bring about a different response from pupils, so a risk there on myself. And again, sometimes it has worked, but that has been an initial idea before following the school system to give pupils the opportunity to calm down.
Here, Nathan is actively, if covertly challenging school policy based upon previous, past experiences of what he had found to work when addressing pupil behaviour during his training year. Like Joe, Nathan was in his first year of teaching and had prior experience teaching and coaching children. However, Nathan was prepared to take a risk, within the context he found himself in, yet against what constituted the school policy. Here, the temporal nature of risk-taking appeared to override its relative nature, where Nathan’s previously successful practices were utilised prior to applying school policy in the present.

Like Joe and Nathan, Jennifer had found pupils’ behaviour challenging, but for her it was during her second school placement. She explained ‘I had a number of challenging students and challenging groups with low ability, so it wasn’t just about teaching them the content, it was about getting them to actually focus and take part, and not be running out of the door’. Jennifer responded to this by taking a risk which involved giving pupils more control and autonomy for their learning. In contrast, when Jennifer began her NQT year at a Grammar school, she found that even though there were no behaviour problems from pupils, her willingness to take risks declined as she felt this may create behavioural problems in lessons. She explained how the pupils she taught were very staid in their ways and use to more traditional approaches to teaching. Even though their behaviour was not disruptive, the challenge for Jennifer was to move pupils beyond their own comfort zone and the familiar ways of teaching they were used to. When explaining the new ideas, she tried to implement, Jennifer commented that:

   It was a risk because they’re [pupils] not use to it, it took them a while because they don’t like change and are very much used to doing the drill, then the activity, then a game style situation, so it was a risk because they were like ‘well what’s this’ and so just not doing it and finding it engaging they would be like this is boring, why are you doing this? We want to do what we had used to do. Which is what you get from students of that intelligence.

The change in practice experienced by pupils led them to question Jennifer’s teaching ability and whether the way in which she was teaching would lead to high levels of learning. Sarah had similar experiences during her training year placement where she found that due to continued exposure to ‘traditional’ practices, when she tried more
independent strategies of teaching, the lesson ‘was chaos’. This led to a reluctance to teach in a more student-centred way, promoting independent learning. In contrast to Joe and Nathan, Jennifer and Sarah were more concerned that they did not create disruptive behaviour by taking risks that moved both themselves and their pupils out of their comfort zone with independent learning strategies. Here, the relative importance of relationships between Jennifer and Sarah and their pupils overrode the risks that they had previously successfully taken and had become common practice. Literature supporting development of effective classroom behaviour focuses upon building positive and respectful teacher-pupil relationships (Roffey 2011; Whitehouse, Jones and Barber, 2015) and this may have been the rationale for Jennifer and Sarah if they believed that taking risks led to an increased probability breaking down such relationships.

Risk-taking was found to be relative to the context within which participants found themselves. The types of pupils and their behaviour within school, alongside school policies related to behaviour, was found to be influential upon participants’ willingness to take risks. The behaviour of pupils for some, was seen as constraining to risk-taking. In contrast, others actively took risks in order to encourage better pupil behaviour and engagement within lessons and, in one case risk-taking led to a negative influence on pupil behaviour. Furthermore, a paradox was found whereby, participants who had taken risks during their training year specifically to encourage better behaviour, once teaching in schools, became unwilling to take risks due to the behaviour of pupils within that school. This further highlighting the temporal and relative nature of risk-taking which appears to be contextually situated.

5.3 The Subject Community

Within participants’ stories, the subject community or PE department were found to be influential upon risk-taking. This theme describes epiphanic moments related to interaction, collaboration, peer dialogue and the influence of others within the subject community or department. Learning and professional development through subject-communities can involve wide ranging communities from school to university
collaborations, school to school and teacher to teacher networks, partnerships with local organisations and involvement with national activities (Darling-Hammond and McLaughin, 1995). Risk-taking influences however, in this context, tended to evolve from the in-school interactions with the subject community of the PE department. A number of theorists have advocated the benefits of what is more recently termed communities of practice (CoP’s). As one of the first to conceptualise learning through CoP’s, Wenger (2000, p. 229) contends that competence is defined within CoP’s through three elements. Firstly, members are part of a collective community and are bound by a collective understanding and ‘sense of joint enterprise’. Secondly, that there is mutual engagement and interactions where community norms are formed. And, thirdly, that there is a ‘shared repertoire of communal resources’, where language, routines, stories etc. are common and accessed by all. Wenger (2000) argues that CoP’s exist within all organisations, whilst Vescio, Ross and Adams (2008, p. 81) in applying the concept of CoP’s to teaching highlight that they are grounded in two assumptions. The first being that knowledge occurs in the daily experiences of teachers ‘and best understood through critical reflection with others who share the same experience’ and second, that ‘actively engaging teachers in professional learning communities will increase their professional knowledge and enhance student learning’. This study, being grounded in teaching and teacher practices accepts the assumptions made by Vescio, Ross and Adams (2008) yet found that participant experiences did not always highlight such learning and development. Contrary to this, at times it inhibited risk-taking and engagement with new pedagogies and new learning for professional development. Following Wenger (2000, p. 230), he warns that CoP’s should not ‘be romanticised. They are born of learning, but they can also learn not to learn’. It is for this reason that I have chosen to refer to departments not as CoP’s but as subject communities when sharing participants’ epiphanic moments. This term seems more appropriate to highlight the variance between those positive effects that are most often associated with CoP’s and those interactions with the subject community that were found to have a negative influence on risk-taking and new learning.

Subject communities for this study will therefore be considered as involving those teachers within the department who have shared interests and common attitudes, for
example other colleagues and peers who teach PE. Positive links between the subject community, professional development and engagement with alternative pedagogies have been advocated in teaching contexts generally (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1995), PE contexts (Armour and Yelling, 2007; Goodyear and Casey, 2015) and for early career PE teachers (Keay, 2005) with Armour and Yelling (2003) finding the subject community of the PE department to be of central importance to professional development. Even though learning through subject communities is advocated as effective for professional development (Armour and Yelling, 2007) and engagement with innovation (Goodyear and Casey, 2015), participant experiences here illuminated this as varied, being contextually and relationally influenced. As new teachers, they were keen to do well in their roles and fit in with the subject department community and school culture (Gurvitch, Lund and Metzler, 2008; Keay, 2005; Li and Cruz, 2008).

Epiphanies related to the influence of the subject community and how interactions with department colleagues led to polarised experiences between two extremes of hidden or visible risks. For some participants, Jonathan, Helena, Sarah and Luke, the department culture, relationships and interactions within the subject community were supportive and encouraged openly and visibly taking risks, learning from others and dialogue around risk-taking. Conversely James, Lizzie and Joe, experienced unsupportive environments where their contribution to the department was not freely accepted, they were discouraged from taking risks that did not fit with traditional departmental practices. James, Lizzie and Joe would not engage in dialogue about risk-taking but would keep their thoughts to themselves leading to risk-taking becoming hidden and practised in secluded areas of the school where participants could not be seen by other members of the subject community. Keay (2005; 2009) uncovered similar findings, even though unrelated to risk-taking, where the ideas of newly qualified teachers were not recognised until the teachers became accepted within the department, this may well have been the case also for the early career teachers of this study. This theme explores the contexts and epiphanic moments in which risk-taking was either hidden or visible within the subject community. Figure 5.1 demonstrates the factors influencing participants’ decisions to either visibly take risks or hide them.
5.3.1 Hidden risk: The influence of the subject community

This sub-theme begins with the illuminations that Lizzie’s story presents us with. Lizzie had been highly successful throughout her time in school, further education and her undergraduate degree. She worked hard, applying herself to her studies, achieving well and becoming an excellent teacher upon completion of her training year. Lizzie had two contrasting experiences from the training year to the school she secured employment in. During her training year, Lizzie felt that the two school communities in which she trained were highly supportive, giving her ideas, helping her to reflect on the lessons she taught and, provided developmental feedback to support her progress. These subject communities valued new and innovative ideas alongside promoting an ethos of collaboration and support. Lizzie recalled, ‘Catherine [her first mentor] in particular was really inspirational for me, I would try and say ‘well what do I do here?’ and she would give me lots of ideas’. Lizzie went on to recall the times during her second placement when she was encouraged to take risks to develop her practice. She felt that the department was supportive of risk-taking and fellow colleagues encouraged her to try new ideas and experiment with her practice. The positive influence of the subject community on learning can be clearly identified here, as has been found in other PE studies to support professional development (Armour and Yelling, 2007) and innovation (Goodyear and Casey, 2015).
When Lizzie described her training year and both of her placements she was excited and animated, with a smile on her face, she clearly had positive memories of these times. This was different from her experience where she worked at the time of interview. I was unprepared for her response and also, the impact upon me as her course tutor during the training year. I felt disappointed that Lizzie seemed unhappy and dispirited due to the influence of her subject community. Lizzie told of how she had been ‘almost discouraged to take risks’. The department she worked in adhered to particular practices, most of them she described as ‘traditional,’ (Pritchard, 2008) with a teacher-centred focus (Kirk, 2012). The department focus was very much on skill development and skill practice in isolation before application to the full activity, sport or game or consideration of wider learning. When describing a rounders lesson, Lizzie explained how during her undergraduate degree and training year she was:

A real advocate for TGfU, so I like to see how they are doing in a game situation and just because they can’t hit the ball doesn’t mean they don’t understand backing up at second or they are not a cracking fielder. But if you don’t put them into that game situation then you are never going to know.

Lizzie explained how she had been told which practises her department felt worked and those that did not and she was expected to conform to her subject community’s way of thinking and teaching. Lizzie found that she was always agreeing with colleagues when really, she had a different opinion and wanted to disagree. She talked of the times when she would try different ideas in her teaching but only when she taught in an area of the school where she could not be seen, on the playing field behind the sports hall. Furthermore, she would keep this to herself and not discuss her lessons with departmental colleagues for fear of not fitting in with their ways of thinking. She explained how she had ‘stopped communicating with colleagues about her lessons’ as she was worried what they may think and how she may not fit in to the norm. Ultimately, she was hiding and keeping out of sight of her subject community when she wanted to take a risk. This provides insights into the power of the subject community and how its institutionalised cultures when mitigating against risk-taking may need to be negotiated covertly or discretely.
Lizzie thought the subject community’s pedagogies and ways of working stemmed from the fact that her colleagues were well established in their practices and had been teaching for a number of years. She described them as ‘old school’ and her own practices as ‘new age’. She described the way she taught as one which would ‘consider pedagogies like TGfU and Sport Education’ and explained how undervalued she felt when she had taught an adapted netball game and was asked ‘What are you doing that for?’ Lizzie felt stifled and restricted in what she could teach and explained how she would continue to try new ideas but only if she felt she ‘could get away with it and didn’t get caught out or shouted at’. The notion of hidden practices was apparent in what Lizzie was describing, she wanted to take risks but felt that she needed to do this out of sight of other department members for fear of not fitting in. Such experiences are consistent with the findings of other studies where new teachers to the role are keen to do well and fit in with the subject department community (Keay, 2009) and school culture. Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin (2007) in their interview-based research on the extent to which NQT’s employed a Sport Education model found that when beginning teachers enter the workforce, they encounter either a culture supportive of the SE model or one which discourages it. Much like Lizzie’s experience which discouraged risk-taking. The literature review conducted by Richards, Templin and Gaber (2014) further highlights how PE teachers new to the profession can often feel marginalised and isolated in much the same way that Lizzie’s experienced. Lizzie’s experiences may also raise questions about the external assumptions that subject communities, who don’t engage with risk-taking, may make on teachers new to the profession and the socialisation influences that this may have.

Working in this covert way, and without the support of the department appeared to have a negative impact upon Lizzie’s self-esteem and agency as a teacher. As Lizzie explained:

It makes me feel devalued, it doesn’t make me feel like a teacher who got an outstanding report, it makes me feel like a teacher who is being told to do this and that, and I don’t learn like that. I am very much one to experience, so I want to be able to reflect on what I have done, whether it is good, bad or indifferent. That is how I learn and that is how the course prepared me to learn. It is learning through reflection that is the barrier I
have here, I don’t get opportunity to reflect because I am told not to make those decisions in the first place.

The subject community influenced Lizzie and the choices she made, which in turn influenced her practice of risk. Lizzie needed to navigate the culture of the subject community within which she worked, negotiating the level of risk alongside that which was appropriate for that particular setting and the views of her more experienced colleagues. In this case, Lizzie chose to hide the risks taken.

Much like Lizzie, James found that his subject community also influenced his willingness to take risks and he would keep these hidden from others, but for differing reasons. When he looked back on his training year and compared it to his first teaching position, James recalled how his training school had a younger department who were open to new ideas:

Well, I know from my training year, the school I was in had a young department that had all quite recently qualified and it sort of had that atmosphere where you could walk into the office and have informal chats and talk about teaching, whereas with this department [his first teaching position] it is a much, much, smaller department and I think people have been here 25 years and 10 years and that is when there are more set routines and it is a bit more, I don’t know, old school and comfortable with the routine.

Similar to the definition provided by other participants, when explaining what he meant by ‘old school’ James referred to teaching games and described a three-part, teacher led lesson that allows pupils minimum time for learning independently:

I think for me it is warm up, drill, game with very little deviation from that, where it is quite a lot of teacher input, it would be student-centred but not much opportunity for the students to get the deeper thinking skills, it would be quite shallow questioning with yes, no answers and wouldn’t make use of the newer ideas.

James went on to describe how he taught his specialist subject of rugby, mainly through games, with limited use of drills. He described this as a less prescribed method of teaching and alluded to the TGfU approach, considering that if he saw something in the game situation that was not working too well then, he would focus upon that skill and then condition the game in order for pupils to practice the skill whilst applying it to a
game. An approach which has grown in popularity since the 1980’s and encouraged
debate between this approach and the skills-based approach (Alison and Thorpe, 1997).
James’ more pupil-centred approach to teaching has also been recognised as aligning
with more recent models of teaching PE (Metzler, Lund and Gurvitch, 2008), has been
popular with teacher educators (Butler, 2014; Casey, 2014) and, was advocated during
his training year.

When James talked about his approach to teaching games, it seemed that this was his
well-established way of teaching, rather than a risk. The TGfU approach seemed his
comfort rather than a three-part lesson approach and that the risk now, four years into
his teaching, was about how others in the department would view the new or more
creative ideas he had for teaching. Much like Lizzie, James preferred to keep his ideas
and risks hidden. He commented that ‘here [his current school] it is a bit more, I have
come up with this idea but would keep it to myself and I don’t think the others would
be interested’. I asked James to expand upon this experience and he went on to talk
about how there were different people in the department who he would be more willing
to talk about his new ideas yet was worried about making mistakes in the eyes of his
colleagues. He replied:

I am still only 4 years in, I don’t want it to be like I am making mistakes so I
will happily do it but won’t go to the office and say look what I did, I would
rather take it home with me and break it down and work it out. Again, it just
depends who is in the office, there might be some people like me, I am more
open and, with others, I would be more, no, I’ll keep it to myself.

I was intrigued at this point to gain an understanding of why James felt like this in his
current school, yet on his training year, in his placement school he was willing and pro-
active in taking risks and sharing these experiences. James talked of his placement
school being a ‘very open environment,’ his mentor also tried out new ideas and even
though James commented that maybe it was because he was younger, ‘I don’t know
whether it was the youth of it’ but, was clear to state that at his placement school it was
‘ok to get things wrong’. James referred to his placement mentor as being a significant
positive influence upon his risk-taking. In the same way as the research review findings
of Vescio, Ross and Adams (2008) where teachers working together in a CoP feel empowered to continually learn. James recollected:

To start off with in my PGCE year that was a massive influence, my mentor was a massive instigator of this as he did it himself so was more than happy for me to try something out and if it didn’t work it wasn’t the end of the world. And then because I saw that mirrored in the rugby specialist in that school, and the football fellow, they were all just, I think that they enjoyed it and so I would think ‘if they are enjoying it then, why shouldn’t I?’ They were the influences on whether I should do this, especially in the training year when you are finding out what your limits are and until you know what teaching is like.

Here there seem to be two aspects which influenced his risk-taking practices. Firstly, the influence of others within his subject community, his department and, the ethos which promoted new ideas, risk-taking and innovative practice. And secondly, the inexperience of being a training teacher and newness of much of what is learnt during this time. James had been an advocate of risk-taking during his training year; he was creative and innovative, frequently trying new ideas, embracing the mistakes he may have made and reflecting upon his learning. Yet, the risk here seemed to be relational, with greater relevance placed upon how others in his subject community would see and judge his practices. James, once teaching in school, seemed reluctant to talk of his risks for fear of the responses from his colleagues. Much like Lizzie, James put up a façade to fit in with others, yet underneath the façade he continued to take-risks and explore new ideas.

The fear of not fitting in, experienced by Lizzie, and to some extent James, aligns with PE literature related to the socialisation of new teachers into the profession (Capel and Blair 2007; Curtner-Smith 2001). Much like the findings of Keay (2009), who draws upon three projects related to the power relationships in secondary school PE departments, it is suggested that teachers new to the profession are influenced by more experienced teachers and need to become accepted before they can influence practice. Furthermore, Lizzie’s experience is reflective of the literature more generally where Richards, Templin and Gaber (2014, p.126) conclude that the contexts for PE teachers within school can be difficult to navigate with ‘isolation and marginality’ experienced on a daily basis. Aspects in their review of literature mirror the experiences of James and
Lizzie. They acknowledged ‘at times, mediocrity is even enforced when teachers are admonished for implanting instructional practices that are inconsistent with the existing culture of custodial schools’ (Richards, Templin and Gaber 2014, p.127). For Lizzie in particular, she felt in fear of reprimand when she wished to take risks to overcome the uninspiring practices she was experiencing.

James and Lizzie’s experience appears incongruous with both the nature of risk-taking and also their previous usual behaviour towards risk-taking. Taking risks in itself was considered by participants to foster an acceptance that making mistakes helped learning, yet once teaching in school, James and Lizzie appeared to be worried about making such mistakes. During the training year, within this training programme continual support was given to trainees, making mistakes was seen as important to the learning process and this was advocated in the Risk-Taking PDP. On reflection of the differing experiences of some trainees, like James and Lizzie, it could be that such support and advocacy of learning from mistakes does not accurately reflect the diversity of career contexts that trainees may find themselves in once finishing the training year. Thus, further consideration of this diverse nature of schools today may be needed when considering the future or the Risk-Taking PDP. It may be that an awareness is fostered of such contexts through the stories generated in this study to support those teachers currently entering the profession, particularly when risk-taking appears to jar against the cultural contexts of some subject communities and schools.

The findings of this study would also suggest an additional dimension to that described by Metzler, Lund and Gurvitch (2008) and Keay (2009), where early PE teachers suppress the use of innovative pedagogies or practices they value to follow those practices of more experienced colleagues. Even though Lizzie adhered to departmental practices and so may have seemed to be ‘fitting in,’ she felt strongly enough about her own practices that she chose to continue them secretly and put on a façade for the benefit of other department members. Lizzie seemed to be resistant to the workplace socialisation aspects that may have influenced her. Her own core values and attitude towards learned pedagogic practices were strong. Similar to the findings of Curtner-Smith (1997), those early career PE teachers, even though giving the impression of fitting
in to department practices, at times were found to revert to covert actions in an attempt to resist socialization and regain a sense of agency. In advocating and taking risks during their training year, the temporal nature of risk-taking leading to learning and professional development may have influenced participants to develop a resilience to some of the potential socialisation influences encountered and highlighted in literature. For example, both Lizzie and James resisted the perpetuation of traditional practices (Capel and Blair, 2007; Gurvitch Lund and Metzler, 2008; Keay, 2009) even if overtly due to a need to fit in with the subject community (Gurvitch Lund and Metzler, 2008; Keay, 2009).

Jonathan, within a differing subject community context saw colleagues who were ‘happy to coast’ and were comfortable in their tried and tested practices, which is reflective of the findings and opinions of PE academics (Casey, 2012; Kirk, 2012). This follows the risk-aversion that is suggested to permeate education today (Biesta, 2013; Wilkins, 2011) and the risk-averse attitude, ‘of preferring a sure outcome rather than taking a gamble’ that Howard, (2013, p. 359) describes in her findings of teachers’ integration of technology into their teaching. Past opinion and research (Capel and Blair, 2007; Keay, 2009; Shulman, 1987), and the epiphanic moments described above would suggest that this may well have influenced Jonathan’s practice and led him to have continued himself with comfortable, risk-averse practices or perpetuated those of his colleagues. At variance with Lizzie and James however, Jonathan did not feel that their views influenced him too much, but only because there were other colleagues within his subject community who had differing approaches. Ones who were willing to work outside of their comfort zone, experiment with new practices and take risks. Jonathan explained how he would tend to engage in conversations with these colleagues sharing ideas and practice which were consistent with risk-taking. The influence of the subject community, for Jonathan, was encouraging and so enabled him to visibly engage with risk-taking.
5.3.2 Visible risk: The Influence of the Subject Community

In contrast to the experience of James and Lizzie, and in line with Jonathan’s half way house experience, other participants, like Luke and Sarah, found themselves in schools whereby the culture of the subject community was supportive of risk-taking and so they experienced times where challenge and continual improvement of practice prevailed.

Luke found this within the school he went on to teach at and explained how the school climate was one which embraced new ideas and innovation:

I am lucky in this institution, they are into new things; they don’t want to just see the same things going on in lessons . . . So, the school I am in has definitely helped that [risk-taking], in the way of the nature of the school it’s more about teaching and learning and a move away from traditional approaches.

Luke explained how this school-wide approach supported him in taking risks ‘in the job’ when teaching his lessons. One example being where the school allocated staff time to collaborate and plan new ideas. At the start of each academic year, Luke explained how for two weeks, time was set aside for all staff to plan and work collaboratively on such ‘topics around pedagogy for improving our teaching and learning’. Luke felt that because the school valued new ideas for teaching and working collaboratively, this had filtered into the subject community of his PE department and he was able to continue to reflect on his practice and take risks. He commented:

I am fortunate in the way that if my head of department walked into my lesson she would be like ‘wow that [the risk] is fantastic’ but, we are at that point in our department where everyone is trying new things and doing different things to learn from each other. If you were in a placement school that was maybe a bit more traditional or had I guess different types of children. That would be interesting. Could you do that with a class who you didn’t have trust in. But as a practitioner you would need to build that trust up with the class and I think I have got to that point with my groups.

Even though Luke was not experiencing behaviours and needs of pupils that could inhibit risk-taking, as was described earlier in the cases of Jonathan, Joe and Nathan, he was aware that such factors may influence his own willingness to take risks. He also referred to such situations experienced by Lizzie and James, who taught in departments who
valued more traditional (Pritchard, 2008) teacher-centred ways of teaching (Kirk, 2010, 2012; Metzler, Lund and Gurvitch, 2008). Luke valued the sense of community, social interactions and positive relationships that prevailed within his school and department and recognised this as a significant contributory factor in his continuation with risk-taking.

Very much like Luke, Sarah, also continued to take risks when she began teaching in school and felt that she did this more often as she had full responsibility for the learners and there was nobody ‘looking over my back,’ like mentors observing her teaching. She talked of how the school culture was such that exploring new ideas and risk-taking was welcomed if it had potential to impact positively on learners. The practice of open observation was prevalent in Sarah’s department. Colleagues frequently engaged in informal ‘professional conversations’ related to new practice and, she described a similar transparency to that which Luke experienced, whereby ideas and teaching practices could be freely shared. Sarah commented, ‘everyone is really accepting of what anybody else wants to do’. She believed that her school climate and ethos encouraged her to continue to take risks. Sarah described her school as being at the forefront of new ideas. They frequently hosted ‘Teach Meets’ and had a core team of staff who were called an ‘Innovations Team’. The Innovations Team would try new and innovative ideas themselves, collaborate with others and share their ideas and experiences with colleagues. Sarah welcomed this and felt that she could try new and innovative ideas and continue to take risks. Sarah felt further empowered and valued as a new member of staff when she was asked by the ‘Innovations Team’ to lead a technology focused project exploring the use of Applications. Both Sarah and Luke felt able to impact practice and become agents of change within their school contexts. Deglau and O’Sullivan (2006) and Parker et al (2010) found similar benefits when teachers worked in a CoP, they were more willing to take risks, reflect upon their failures and share their teaching successes leading to sustained engagement with continued learning.

Even though Lizzie had experienced negative influence towards risk-taking once teaching in school, she recalled the sense of community that was evident during the
training year, whereby all of the trainees on the course would share experiences and good practice and where it was clear what ‘good’ PE teaching looked like. She referred to the planned opportunities that were available to the cohort when they returned to the University setting following placements and how this would encourage critical reflection and risk-taking, which had a positive impact upon her professional development. Furthermore, the relationship between her and both of her mentors during the training year was supportive and purposeful and encouraged her to take risks. This was not mirrored within her school setting and she felt, unprepared for the attitude of departmental colleagues at her school. Metzler, Lund and Gurvitch’s (2008) explanation of the stages of teacher development and innovation adoption, may go some way towards explaining this situation. Lizzie was familiar and used to taking-risks within the ITET programme as a preservice teacher. Metzler, Lund and Gurvitch (2008) highlight that for preservice teachers, the decisions to innovate and explore new practices are typically made by those who train PE teachers and define pedagogical knowledge and skills, the ITET faculty. As I had designed it, the Risk-Taking PDP would have influenced training teachers to innovate and explore new practices. Once teachers begin induction to school, however, the decisions to innovate tend to lie more with personal choice or the collective actions of those within the school where the ‘collective opinions of more experienced colleagues’ tend to ‘suppress decisions to implement innovations’ (Metzler, Lund and Gurvitch, 2008, p. 462). This was found to be true in the case of Lizzie and within such a situation, she felt that she had to develop high levels of resilience once within a school setting due to the lack of support she experienced when she wanted to take risks and explore new practices. This may be linked to the formation of a professional identity for Lizzie as a new teacher, navigating the professional expectations alongside the socialization aspects (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014) that beginning to teach in schools may bring. Those positive experiences and communities of practice that Lizzie experienced during the training year may not have prepared her well enough for the alternative and suppressing context in which she later found herself. Mansfield, Beltman and Price (2014) found similar challenges for early career teachers and along with Le Cornu (2009) and Tait (2005), call for the ongoing need of teacher education programmes to prepare training teachers for such challenging situations in the hope of building resilience within the workplace.
Sarah and Luke, conversely found the collective opinions of the subject community to support risk-taking. This is at odds with the findings of Metzler, Lund and Gurvitch, (2008) who, even though recognising the influence of others on early career teachers, found a likelihood that they would suppress innovative practices and follow the collective opinions of those more experienced teachers in their subject community. Luke was aware of the potential negative aspects of professional socialisation from a literature perspective however saw socialisation in his own teaching context as positive. He used an analogy that was very fitting to describe this, he said, ‘I think in a way that you would almost be a chameleon and fit in with what is going on around you’. Luke found that he was fitting into the creative and innovative ways in which his subject community worked and described how the Head of Department and other colleagues become role models and ‘if you see them doing things and not taking risks then it is very one directional and restrictive teaching’. He explained how colleagues from the subject community who held positions of responsibility set the standard for others to follow. This was believed even more important for those moving from PGCE year to NQT year as being new to the profession were considered impressionable. Luke’s and Sarah’s experiences illuminated the potential positive aspects of others expectations within departments that value new and innovative practices.

Luke described how his school’s transparency towards openly sharing pedagogic practice helped to drive teachers to develop their practice. He explained:

> We have teaching and learning reviews within our department and within all of our performance management it is all transparent so if you say this is what you will see, they will observe against that. We set personal goals and the ethos of the school is so transparent that professional socialisation is helping you take your career wherever you wish to and take your teaching further, and the CPD that is on offer as a result of that is that teachers do take risks.

These thoughts are congruent with the sense of community that other participants found at times within departments, most often during the training year and also, at times when teaching in schools. As such, it seemed that when supportive CoP’s were evident within departments then risk-taking was valued and openly supported. Much like the CoP’s described by Armour and Yelling (2007) and Goodyear and Casey (2015)
which engaged in professional dialogue; collaborative planning; planned and informal learning situations, Luke and Sarah’s experience within a CoP were positive, supportive of risk-taking and valued as a means of professional development. Furthermore, even though they were early in their careers, they felt they could influence other, more experienced colleagues with their own ideas and practices.

5.4 Chapter Summary

Participants’ attitudes towards risk-taking were on the whole positive, even though marked at times by a sense of trepidation, uncertainty and challenge. It was clear that many participants had continued to take risks following their training year and, those who had taken few risks wished to but at times experienced constraining influences. The epiphanic moments described by participants illuminated a number of contextual and relational influences alongside temporal influences upon risk-taking both during the training year and once teaching in schools. Performativity was one key influence, with accountability and time being referred to as most influential. Even though many of the participants spoke of performativity measures influencing their willingness to take risks, for others, this did not form any part of their stories and for Sarah, for example, she told of when she took a risk to help the learning and so increase the grades of her GCSE group. It is important to note here that participants were asked to tell their stories and were not prompted with particular themes, like performativity. Thus, it may be that either these topics did influence their willingness but other aspects were a priority at the time, like pupil behaviour and time or, it could be that performativity in their school context was considered in a different light, and so performativity may not have been linked to risk-taking for individuals within certain contexts. Pupil behaviour was also seen as a key influence with differing contexts and relationships with pupils either promoting a willingness or unwillingness to take risks. This led to what was seen as a paradox between risk-taking related to behaviour during the training year, with teachers willing to take risks in response to poor behaviour, but once in schools’ teachers were unwilling to take risks because of poor pupil behaviour.
The third key influence illuminated by participants’ stories was the subject community, the department within which teachers worked. The influence of the subject community, their own place within this, either central or peripheral and, experiences over time seemed to interrelate. These early teachers were navigating their way through new experiences finding out about not only the pedagogic practices of teaching PE but the influence of the subject community and how it infiltrated every day practices and willingness to take risks. Willingness to take risks was either increased or reduced depending upon the practices and interactions with the subject community. Within contexts that wished to maintain their usual and traditional practice, and suppress the use of innovative pedagogies, participants were unwilling to take risks or these became hidden and covert, out of sight of the subject community. Yet, in those contexts where the subject community was amenable to innovative practices and worked together as a CoP to collaboratively develop new ideas and ways of thinking, these stories were infused with how important a constructive and progressive learning community was for risk-taking.
Chapter 6. Discussion: Futures and Possibilities: A Space, Place and Time Devoted to the Imagination

Introduction

This chapter discusses my understandings and interpretations of participants’ stories to conceptualise the notion of risk-taking and consider what this may offer ITTE and professional development programmes for early career teachers. It will consider participants memories of risk-taking during the training year and their experiences once teaching in schools. This chapter offers a conceptualisation of risk-taking drawn from the definitions and experiences of participants along with what is possibly an unprecedented conceptualisation of risk-taking and professional development, one which holds four-dimensional metaphorical space and is visualised through a geometrical shape, the Tesseract. The Tesseract Model offers insights into early career teacher professional development and change intended innovation. Specific attention is also given to practical recommendations and how these may inform future ITTE and early career teacher professional development programmes.

6.1 Conceptualising the Interconnectivity between Risk, Innovation and Creativity

When conceptualising risk-taking, as defined in this study, it is necessary to begin by considering the interconnectivity between risk, innovation and creativity. Earlier in this study, it was accepted that risk-taking, creativity and innovation are all interconnected and conjoined (See Chapter 2.4.2, pp. 37-39). This original stance withstanding, I offer here a new articulation of the organisation of risk, innovation and creativity in relation to the risk-taking practices of teachers within this study. To begin, the definition for creativity suggested earlier in the study where ‘Creativity requires both originality and effectiveness’ (Runco and Jaeger, 2012, p. 92) remains the same. Likewise, where innovation was defined as the creation and implementation of new ideas, or new knowledge (Van de Ven, 1986) which often leads to change (Baregheh, Rowley and
Sambrook 2009), this is undisputed. On applying this to PE practices, however, literature suggests that innovations of pedagogic practice rarely become embedded or lead to sustained change in practice (Goodyear and Casey, 2015; Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017) there is a continuance of teacher-led approaches and PE practices have remained the same for decades (Kirk, 2010, 2012). This has led to calls for teachers to ‘challenge traditional content and teaching approaches so that physical education becomes more relevant to young people’ (Capel and Blair, 2007, p. 28) and maintains its place in the school curriculum. It is in understanding and making connections between risk-taking and innovation that the discussions and recommendations to follow may be useful to PE practices and teaching approaches more generally. My purpose here is not to argue that innovations should always be seen as better than the current practices and pedagogies, but to argue that by considering problems encountered in learning and teaching or in seeking possibly better ways to achieve better outcomes and experiences, risk-taking may be a new and different approach to the continual development of practices, pedagogies and teacher professional learning.

Following García-Granero et al (2013) and Rolfe’s (2010) notion that risk-taking is crucial for innovation and also Byrd and Brown’s (2007) equation that creativity x risk-taking = innovation, this study concurs that these ideas hold relevance within the experiences of participants in this study. Focusing upon risk-taking enabled the participants in this study to think in creative ways both in the planning stages of lessons and also when dealing with the contingency that is present when taking risks. However, within the context of participants’ experiences, this study also found risk-taking to exist independently of innovation and creativity, for example when taking career risks. The experiences of participants suggest it is useful to consider risk-taking from four differing perspectives. Firstly, that which is linked to career change and seen as a career risk. This is not considered creative or innovative. Secondly, teacher professional development ‘of the job’, for example experiencing new teaching roles or gaining promotion. This may involve aspects of creativity but may not be considered innovative. Thirdly, those risk-taking practices that may be new practices or innovative pedagogies to the individual teacher ‘in the job’. And finally, a perspective not explored within this study but one which presented itself through the literature explored, the embedding or
institutionalisation of innovative, creative and valuable practices within the wider context of PE or teaching generally. Within this context, risk-taking may offer an important yet often unconsidered feature to support the development of PE practices and teacher professional development. These interconnections are shown in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 provides a conceptualisation of the interactions between risk, creativity and innovation for early career PE teachers as demonstrated through the findings of this study. It shows times when creativity and risk-taking existed in their own right and that risk-taking and creativity are essential features of innovation. The four aspects to this conceptualisation, which presented themselves in this study are; career risk, teacher professional development ‘of the job’, personal innovations ‘in the job’ and change intended innovation. It should be noted that these are not exhaustive and it is accepted that teachers may have different experiences to those presented within this study and figure 6.1. Early career teachers may experience one or more of these aspects at various points of their careers or may, as intended through the Risk-Taking PDP actively choose to engage with one or more of the aspects. Each will be discussed in turn with conclusions to follow focusing upon the area where most influence was found once teachers began teaching in schools, that of personal innovations ‘in the job’.
Diagram 6.1: The interconnectivity between risk, creativity and innovation for early career PE teachers as demonstrated through the findings of this study.

6.1.1 Career Risk

Those participants who changed career either to become a teacher or leaving PE teaching, described these experiences as risk-taking. The risks that were defined as career risk did not connect with innovation or creativity, the risks taken here appeared to exist in their own right. They were more aligned with the feelings of uncertainty moving into unknown circumstances which may impact a wider personal context, for example changes in income and securing financial support for themselves and their partners or, they may have been linked to the uncertainty of changing career identity.
(Wilson and Deaney, 2010; Watters and Diezmann, 2015). Career risk was an unintended outcome for this study as the initial focus was on practice related risk-taking through the Risk-Taking PDP. Although beyond the scope of this study to explore in further depth, the definitions offered by participants of career risk have uncovered two related potential areas of interest for future research to explore, these will be discussed in the limitations and future research section that can be found later in this chapter.

6.1.2 Teacher Professional Development: Risks ‘of the job’ and Promotion

When teachers entered the teaching profession, it is assumed that they would only partly be familiar with the wider role ‘of the job’. Many new recruits’ experiences would be limited to the training year or short periods of time within school contexts, mostly not in a teaching role but in more assistant type roles. The new experiences that characterise participants’ first encounters of the job role were, at times seen as risks. These led to feelings of apprehension and worry about making mistakes; for example, when delivering CPD to colleagues or leading a school initiative. Risks in this category tended to include changing role and holding greater responsibility for pupil learning or school processes. Here risk-taking is not necessarily seen as innovative yet at times may have involved engaging with creative ideas for example if delivering CPD to fellow colleagues. It was however found to mainly be linked to the first time that a teacher engaged with unfamiliar teacher roles. Under such circumstances, difficult decisions that teachers had to face when presented with a new and often more accountable roles, were considered risks due to their newness and a fear of making a wrong decision or making a mistake. Yet these are not seen as chosen risks, as was intended through the Risk-Taking PDP, rather they are considered an everyday part of the job role or promotion.

6.1.3 Personal Innovations: Risks ‘in the job’

From the outset of this study, it was expected for personal practice related innovations, those ‘in the job’ to have been evident within the stories of participants. This is because they would have been consistent with the definition and the practices encouraged through the Risk-Taking PDP and the Ofsted descriptor that informed it. These were, as
anticipated, heard within participants’ stories where risks were viewed as those practices that were new to them. ‘In the job’ classroom practices that at times may have been creative and brand new or they may have been new ideas but taken from other people. Van du Ven (1986) suggested that an idea can still be considered an innovation if it is new to a person and even if it is imitating what others do or an idea that already exists. Concurring with Van de Ven (1986) those ideas imitated by the participants in this study were also considered innovative as they were often new and creative ideas that had been gleaned from colleagues, books, journal articles or the internet. Even though participants talked of creativity, this was always in the context of risk-taking. It is accepted that creativity may also exist without being considered a risk however, in this study, possibly due to the focus being on risk-taking, participants referred to the risks they took as also, at times involving creative practices. Those risks taken that were personal innovations ‘in the job’ were found to be where creativity, risk-taking and innovation all interconnect. In addition to this the influences in schools that participants described were most often referred to in relation to practice related risks or personal innovations ‘in the job’. The influences experienced in schools had an impact on participants’ willingness to take those risks which were personal innovations ‘in the job’. It is this aspect of risk-taking that I became most interested in as the study progressed and will inform much of the discussion to follow when conceptualising the influences upon risk-taking for early career teachers once teaching in schools.

6.1.4 Change Intended Innovation

Within this study, even though connections have been made to innovation through risk-taking, there has been no explicit exploration of what has been described as change intended (Goodyear and Casey, 2015) or institutionalized (Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017) innovation. Such innovation has been called for to address the shortcomings of PE and teacher professional development. The risks taken by the participants within this study and which are of most interest to the final discussions and conceptualisations of risk-taking are those personal innovations ‘in the job’ to enhance and develop classroom or professional practice. This study did not specifically explore change intended innovation, and participants’ stories did not refer explicitly to change intended
innovation. However, through conceptualising risk-taking (as described in the discussion to follow), insights may be revealed which could inform such innovation. If it is agreed that risk-taking is an embedded feature of innovation, then it follows that the insights gained regarding influences on risk-taking in schools, may also inform those influences on change intended innovations. By supporting positive influences on risk-taking and, negating those which inhibit risk-taking, the change intended innovation so widely called for in the daily PE practices of schools today (Kirk 2004; Casey, 2014; Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017) may begin to see future success.

Of the four aspects that conceptualised risk-taking for the participants of this study; career risk, teacher professional development ‘of the job’, personal innovations ‘in the job’ and change intended innovation, the influences experienced by participants, once teaching in schools, tended to be those which affected personal innovations ‘in the job’. These being the risks taken in the day to day teaching practices and pedagogies undertaken by participants. This aspect became of most interest and, moved the study beyond its initial intentions. Findings revealed an innovative conceptualisation of risk-taking for early career teachers once teaching within school environments. Here, I wish to offer a particularly distinct conceptualisation of risk-taking and, one which may offer insights into teacher professional development and change intended innovations.

6.2 Four-dimensional Metaphorical Space: The Tesseract Model

When formulating a meaning of risk-taking, the experiences of participants show that it is not a fixed concept. It exists in time and space which is in relation to the social context of others and the circumstances in which individuals find themselves. Clandinin and Connelly (2000) talk of narrative holding a three-dimensional metaphorical space where temporality (the continuity between past present and future); sociality (personal and social interaction) and place (situation) all influence thinking and learning. This study has reaffirmed the views of Clandinin and Connelly (2000) and also those of Dewey (1938) where experience and so learning is believed to be transactional and always in relation to others and the social context. Even though these aspects offer a solid foundation from which to understand risk-taking, the insights gained from participants’ epiphanic
moments offer an alternative way to explain risk-taking. Here I wish to propose a fourth dimension to risk-taking, a visional dimension where an ‘ideal’ situation is visioned. This will be represented through the abstract conceptualisation of risk-taking holding a four-dimensional metaphorical space and, visualised through a geometrical shape, the Tesseract. The Tesseract Model is the four dimensional equivalent of the cube and in the animated projection (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tesseract#/media/File:8-cell-orig.gif) the front and rear planes (which are continually moving from past into present and to future) represent the continual process of learning through risk-taking being influenced by the other four planes or dimensions. These being; the contextual dimension, the temporal dimension, the relational dimension and the visional dimension. The Tesseract Model is shown in Figure 6.2.
Figure 6.2: The Tesseract Model is a four-dimensional analogue of the cube. The animated projection (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tesseract#/media/File:8-cell-orig.gif) represents the continual influence and interaction of each dimension on the other when teachers take risks of personal innovation or risks ‘in the job’. Each dimension will be explained in turn below.

- **Contextual Dimension (Face 1):** Risk-taking is socially constructed and is influenced by context and institutional factors.

- **Temporal Dimension (Face 3):** Risk-taking exists in space and time. Learning in the present informs future teaching practices.

- **Disjuncture:** Non-visional spaces where teachers may get caught up and practice does not progress due to the influences of the dimensions.

- **Relational Dimension (Face 2):** Risk-taking involves interactions with others and is influenced by these interactions.

- **Imaginarian Dim: The inner cube of the tesseract. A place and time where vision allows creativity, innovation and imagination to prevail.**

- **Visional Dimension (Face 4):** This is the intended ‘ideal’ vision or dream of what might be within the parameters of the other three dimensions.
If we are to understand risk-taking for participants of this study, then it is suggested here that the following four dimensions should be considered. The first three dimensions are familiar to the works of Clandinin and Connelly (2000) and are Contextual (Place), Relational (Sociality) and Temporal (Temporality). The fourth and new dimension, one which holds relevance when risk-taking, I have referred to as Visional.

6.2.1 Contextual Dimension

Risk-taking exists within a context for each individual. This aligns with the views of Beck (2009, p. 292) who argues that risks are not ‘real’ but are ‘becoming real’ and as such require visualization within context. To take a risk is not thus a simple calculation regarding the probability of a negative consequence or the reward it may bring, but also considers how the risk is socially constructed and its different forms in relation to institutional factors.

The aspects that made up the contextual dimension for the participants in this study, and so were identified as holding influence on risk-taking were those related to; performativity and more specifically here accountability measures and the availability of time (See Chapter 5.1, pp. 120-127). It is accepted that this study does not cover all contexts and so for other teachers, their contexts may hold further or different influences which are relevant to their situation in space and time. It is also considered here that government curricula at any particular time and their interpretation alongside school policy will inform the context in which teachers find themselves (See Chapter 2.2, pp. 20-24). What is intended to follow is that the context in which people find themselves influences risk-taking. The conceptualisation offered here brings to the surface experiences and events that may resonate with other teachers and may inform their future choices and ways of working or approaches to learning within schools.

Contextual influences on risk-taking were often related to performativity. From the experiences of those participants in this study, new examination syllabi, Ofsted expectations, exam grade accountability measures and school policy were all seen to influence participants’ willingness to engage with risk-taking (See Chapter 5.1, pp. 120-127). The wider influence of curriculum, and for participants in this study the new
examination PE syllabus with time constraints on covering content held most concern, leading to an unwillingness to take risks when balanced against the potential risk of pupils failing to achieve for example, their expected grades. The availability of time to plan risks influenced participants. Risk-taking was felt to necessitate time to research new ideas, engage in dialogue with colleagues and prepare beforehand to reduce the probability of the risk not working to plan. Those participants whose schools allocated specified time and space to engage with new ideas and innovation would continue to plan and take risks in their everyday practices (See Chapter 5.3.2, pp. 147-148). However, other participants felt that they did not have time to explore new ideas as their usual day to day workloads of planning, marking and administration filled this.

Further influences related to the context that participants found themselves in. These were the influences of interactions with others and so are considered in the second dimension of the Tesseract Model, the relational dimension.

**6.2.2 Relational Dimension**

Experience and learning are seen as connected to and involving interaction with others. Dewey (1910) termed this as transactional, where experience and learning occurs through transactions with others. This social dimension sees learning, experience and beliefs as positioned in relation to both the self and others and was found to be prevalent in this study. Participants were influenced by transactions with their subject community (See Chapter 5.3, pp. 136-151). Here polarised experiences led to either risks not being taken and on occasions being hidden from others or, visible risks where teachers worked together to explore new pedagogies and ideas to support pupil learning and so take risks. Often those subject communities which valued a more ‘traditional style’ (Pritchard et al, 2008) of teaching seemed to influence risk-taking adversely (See Chapter 5.3.1, pp. 139-146). Whereas those subject communities who were open to change, accepting of others ideas and regularly engaged in dialogue influenced risk-taking positively (See Chapter 5.3.2, pp. 147-151). This aligns with literature which suggests that the subject community is of central importance to professional development (Armour and Yelling 2003; Keay, 2005). Furthermore, CoP’s have been found to support engagement with alternative pedagogies (Goodyear and
Casey, 2015) and increase the willingness of teachers to take risks, reflect on their failures and share their teaching successes (Deglau and O’Sullivan, 2006; Parker et al, 2010).

The interactions between participants and pupils, usually related to pupil behaviour, also influenced risk-taking (See Chapter 5.2, pp. 128-136). When pupils demonstrated those behaviours, participants considered positive to learning i.e. they listened, were keen to learn and engaged with tasks, participants felt they had more trust in them and so were more willing to take risks. Whereas when pupils demonstrated disruptive behaviour, were unwilling to listen and negatively affected the learning of others then participants were less willing to take risks as they felt they could not trust the class and may not be able to control pupils, which in turn may have limited pupil learning. This led to a paradox whereby during the training year, those participants who had taken risks specifically to overcome disruptive behaviour, became unwilling to take risks when teaching in schools due to this type of behaviour (See Chapter 5.2, p. 131-133). The paradox being that even though risk-taking over time led to learned practices, when faced with a different context and interactions, past learning seemed to be overridden. Learning through risk-taking over time is considered in the third dimension, the temporal dimension.

6.2.3 Temporal Dimension

The third dimension is where risk-taking exists in a space and in time. According to Clandinin and Connelly (2000) people tell stories in the midst of past, present and future. In much the same way, not only does risk-taking exist temporally but learning in the present is used to inform future teaching. Hence the risks taken today, over time become normal practice for teachers if they are successful. Once outcomes are experienced, the uncertainty and contingency surrounding risk-taking reduces because the practice has been experienced. Luhmann’s (1993) social theory of risk supports this whereby as individuals are taking risks, they monitor and navigate the potential events of the present so as to minimise the uncertainty of the potential risk in the future. Once the uncertainty is minimised then consequences are known, so the event becomes less
of a risk. Frederickson and Heinskou (2016, p. 3), apply Luhmann’s theory further providing explanation that risk is linked to ‘a temporality of decisions and actions driven by the expectation of potential outcomes’. Thus, when individuals, in this case PE teachers, engage with risk-taking they are working under conditions of contingency and so continually monitoring those events occurring in the present (in the risk) and interpreting the outcomes, thus adapting practice over time in response to pupil learning (See Chapter 4.3.1, p. 95; Chapter 4.3.3, p. 107). Following Frederickson and Heinskou’s (2016, pp. 7 - 8) summary, they see risk as:

“A state of mind in which present actions are evaluated in regard to the potential future events they may create. Consequently, a number of futures are reflexively developed from acting and deciding in the present.

A positive outcome to the risk thus takes away the uncertainty of such ‘risky’ practices for future teaching deeming them temporal. Teachers learn through experiencing the risk, interpreting the outcomes (positive or negative) and adapting or continuing future practices accordingly and in doing so develop resilience to situations they find themselves in (See Chapter 5.2, p. 129-130). Epiphanic moments experienced by participants highlighted that adaptation, negotiation and resilience formed over time as crucial aspects of risk-taking.

This conceptualisation of risk aligns with Dewey’s (2008) perspective of professional growth, whereby behaviour is continually reshaped by experience, and in this case new experience through risk-taking. Adapting these ideas for contemporary contexts, Pring (2014) contends that in life, or aspects of life like teaching, people continually find ways to solve problems. Moreover, individuals interpret experiences that reshape behaviour in a continual process, and thus what may be accepted behaviour today may change tomorrow. New experiences through risk-taking provided participants the opportunity to interpret such experiences in relation to their practice and the learning of themselves and others. The temporality of these new experiences meant they were no longer new once experienced and so interpretation of their outcomes on learning had an impact upon future practices. The temporal dimension invariably influences future decisions within the visiational dimension.
6.2.4 Visional Dimension

The fourth dimension that risk-taking comprises is a new conceptualisation I have termed visional. In order to take a risk there must first be some reflection upon what has gone before and an intended vision or dream of what might be, so a vision of an ‘ideal’. Such thinking involves conventional reflection on practice yet, moves beyond this in that the vision would involve taking a risk, albeit subjective to the individual, and moving out of their comfort zone (Warrell, 2013). Working towards this ideal involves conditions of uncertainty where outcomes may not always be known (Beck, 2009). This is where there is potential for new learning (Atkinson, 2008) and creative ideas (Beck, 2009) to occur. The word ideal is a strong word to use here as it suggests a form of perfection or standard of excellence. This is not what is intended as such. An ideal would be the best outcome within the parameters of the other dimensions, an aspiration. So, the ideal vision would initially be considered in relation to the context (the contextual dimension), relationships with others (the relational dimension) and that moment in time influenced by past and future (the temporal dimension). Hence the ideal vision would be tempered within the parameters of, for example; curriculum requirements, pupil behaviour, teacher experience, pupil needs.

The Visional dimension would look for improvement and progress towards better learning, an improved experience for learners or professional development and, may at times move beyond or change the parameters of the dimensions. It would involve exploring such examples as creative possibilities, considering new or alternative pedagogies, learner independence or even co-constructed learning experiences. Within this dimension there lies the need to balance probability of negative consequences within the planning stages of the risk and within the parameters of the other three dimensions. As suggested in the earlier definitions of risk-taking, risk-taking involves assessing the potential probability and likelihood of negative consequences occurring (Hansson, 2009; Kapadia 2010), it may have a subjectivity of preference (Campbell 2006) and, is also influenced by context (Beck, 2009) and institutional factors (García-Granero et al, 2013). The visional dimensions of the Tesseract Model continually aspires to develop and improve practice.
6.3 Disjuncture and Possibility

If we accept risk-taking as holding four-dimensional metaphorical space where changes in practice are ‘visioned’ then it follows that the impact of each dimension needs further consideration. I would argue at this point that the contextual, relational and temporal dimensions of metaphorical space either create disjuncture, which leads teachers to become caught up in non-visional spaces or, enhances visional space enabling free engagement with creative and innovative practices through risk-taking. The influence of contextual, relational and temporal dimensions when positive help to nurture and develop the skills of adaptation, negotiation and resilience, enabling teachers to re-visionalise their practices prior to, during and following ‘in the job’ practices. When all dimensions hold positive influence, this enables teachers to play with creative and innovative ideas in what I have called the ‘Imaginarium of Possibility’; that is the inner cube of the Tesseract Model. An Imaginarium is a space and place devoted to the imagination. Within the Imaginarium of Possibility new ways of thinking, teaching and learning can be visualised, ones which seek to enhance both teacher professional development, the learning experiences and, lives of the young people who are taught in schools today. Both disjuncture and possibility will be discussed further here, in turn.

6.4 Disjuncture

When dimensions of the Tesseract Model are negative or unsupportive of risk-taking, teachers may experience situations where they became caught up in the metaphorical junctures of the Tesseract. Here disjuncture occurs where teachers become disjoined from visional practice. Disjuncture is considered similar to what Savin-Baden (2006, p. 160) describes in her explanation of troublesome knowledge in problem-based learning where teachers and students become ‘stuck in learning’. However, disjuncture from the perspective of Savin-Baden (2006, p. 57) considers it to provide a challenge to teachers and so it can be seen as ‘negative and undesirable’. Even though disjuncture in the context of this study may be challenging, negative and undesirable to some individuals, it may also be accepted or unconsidered by others. Hence when disjuncture occurs, this may lead to the prevalence of routine practices which have limited, if any, vision and fail...
to meet the needs of pupils yet, this may not be recognised by the teacher. Disjuncture places teachers in non-visional spaces and may prevent them from exploring new practices and moving their practice forwards. A disjoining occurs where aspects of the contextual, relational and temporal dimensions are negative and un-supportive of risk-taking. Being caught in the juncture inhibits engagement with new and creative practices and may encourage the prevalence of comfortable and traditional practices and possibly, the stagnation of practice. Literature reminds us of how easy it is for teachers, and in this context PE teachers, to become entrenched in their own practices (Capel, 2007; Kirk and Haerens, 2014; Penney and Chandler, 2000) with PE teaching seeing very little change over many years. When caught in the juncture, teachers are unable to realise the visional aspect of risk-taking to develop practice. In much the same way as a threshold concept represents a ‘transformed way of understanding . . . something, without which the learner cannot progress’ (Meyer and Land, 2006, p. 3) so, disjuncture represents contextual, relational and temporal barriers to new and visional learning. That is not to say that disjuncture cannot prompt exploration of alternative ways of thinking. Contrary to this, and following Savin-Baden (2006, p. 57), disjuncture can also be ‘dynamic’ ways of thinking and lead to transitions in learning. Teachers, may take risks to overcome disjuncture. They may continue to vision better practices with new ways of thinking presenting themselves to move out of the juncture. Those characteristics prevalent in teacher narratives from this study and leading to disjuncture ranged from performativity, time availability, behaviour of pupils, influences of the subject community and restrictive school policies.

Performance and accountability measures, particularly in relation to examination PE and Ofsted expectations led to disjuncture and inhibited visional practices. The fear of pupils not covering all of the subject knowledge material led to participants being caught in the juncture and reverting to more teacher-led approaches in order to cover content rather than focus upon deeper learning. For non-examination PE, participants were worried about providing tangible evidence of progress if they were to be inspected by Ofsted. Again, they became caught in the juncture by prioritising Ofsted accountability measures and examination results over visioning best practice in relation to the learning
needs of the pupils they taught. Boyle (2001) summarises aptly the impact of performativity:

We take our collective pulse 24 hours a day with the use of statistics. We understand life that way, though somehow the more figures we use, the more the great truths seem to slip through our fingers. Despite all that numerical control, we feel as ignorant of the answers to the big questions as ever.

This also aligns with the ‘risk-averse and target chasing’ (Wilkins, 2011, p. 391) culture that is infiltrating the education system and can be argued as contrary to the DFE’s (2010, 2016b) claims that current curricula offer greater autonomy. There may be a perception of autonomy for teachers however, at times, the threat of consequences for not meeting performativity measures appear to lead to a reluctance by participants to take risks and try new practices. Autonomy thus seemed constrained by the threat of performativity. Additionally, the availability of time, in some school contexts, was limited. A lack of time inhibited risk-taking as risk-taking necessitated time for reflection and planning. Seale, Nind and Simmons (2013) argue that best practice for educational policy, tends to focus upon minimising the risk of getting something wrong, or timewasting in favour of maximising good learning outcomes within constrained time frameworks. This was found to be the case for participants in some contexts like Joe, James and Helena (See Chapter 5.1, p. 123-127) who felt that time constraints inhibited risk-taking for examination PE. Where this was the case, participants became caught in the juncture, unable or reluctant to explore new practices and take-risks as they felt constrained by time.

The constraints of performativity and time upon risk-taking were evident, however at times participants did find time and take risks in order to meet and improve such performance measures, particularly to improve examination PE grades. The risks here could be seen as dynamic and with intention to overcome disjuncture. This, along with the notion of taking risks arising from Ofsted criteria could raise the question as to whether risk-taking is therefore just another performativity itself. Ball (2003, p. 224) argues that the fabrications that organisations produce fall within a regime of performativity and are ‘driven by the priorities, constraints and climate set by the policy environment’ like examination results, accountability and audit measures. Such a
viewpoint may render risk-taking a fabrication that has been produced, in this case for schools, to drive such performative priorities. Risk-taking in the context of this study may be seen as a fabrication which renders:

The organization into a recognizable rationality which is underpinned by ‘robust procedures’, punctuated by ‘best practice’ and always ‘improving, always looking for ‘what works’.

(Ball, 2003, p. 225).

At variance with this, I would suggest that even though risk-taking can be used to meet performativity targets and seek better, improved practice its prime purpose in this context is about new learning. Learning which may at times look to achieve improvements in performance measures yet at other times focuses upon better ways and more holistic learning for pupils and teachers. Institutions are likely to always have to answer to performativity yet through risk-taking, in the way intended in this study it may be that more authentic or ‘proper learning’ (Ball, 2003, p. 226) characterises teachers’ practices.

Schools and subject communities whose culture supported engagement with traditional teacher centred practices with limited or no support for the exploration of new ideas also led to participants being reluctant to engage with risk-taking and caught in the juncture. They tended towards maintaining the status quo of the subject community and its practices and were reluctant to engage with new ideas or would hide their personal explorations of new and creative ideas. Wenger (2000, p. 230) warns of the potential negative influences of CoP’s suggesting that ‘They are the cradles of the human spirit but can also be its cages’. It may be that, in some instances and with some participants, subject communities do not recognise the extent of their influence on early career teachers which leads them to become unwilling to take risks and explore new practices. This negative influence may well be unintended as I would expect as teachers, they all have one common goal which is the learning of young people. By raising awareness of such influence to subject communities and engaging with more open and collaborative dialogue, this may increase early career PE teachers’ confidence to talk about and continue to engage with risk-taking.
6.5 Visional Space: The Imaginarium of Possibility

In contrast to the disjuncture’s described above, there is space and time where a more profound visional space can be found, one that allows for creativity, innovation and imagination to prevail. I have called this the ‘Imaginarium of Possibility’.

The Imaginarium of Possibility is the space and time dedicated to imagination and vision to develop practice, it is the inner cube of the Tesseract Model. Inside the Imaginarium of Possibility teachers have the opportunity to reflect upon practice or problems and use their individual or collective imagination to foresee solutions and possibilities and to become visional. It is a space where risk-taking prevails and creative ideas may lead to innovations both personal and within the whole school context. The features that support play within the Imaginarium of Possibility are relative to the interactions with the dimensions of the outer cube; contextual, relational, temporal and visional, when they are positive towards risk-taking. Those epiphanic moments from participants’ stories which feature in the outer faces of the Tesseract Model to support risk-taking and play in the Imaginarium included the following:

- Schools that implemented strategic approaches to creativity, risk-taking and innovation, allowing time and space for the generation of new and creative ideas
- Schools and subject communities who engaged in transactional learning and working in communities of practice towards a common and shared goal
- Schools that engineered a flexible approach to performativity adapting policy and practice to the needs of pupils without restricting creativity, risk-taking and innovation
- Classrooms where pupils demonstrated positive behaviour and engagement that was conducive to effective learning.

When these contextual and relational features were prevalent, for example in the experiences of Luke and Sarah when they were teaching in schools (See Chapter 5.3.2, pp. 147 – 150) and for Lizzie, James, Joe (Chapter 5.3.1, pp. 139 – 143) Nathan and Jennifer (See Chapter 5.2, pp. 134 – 136) during the training year, participants engaged with risk-taking and over time increased their own and pupil’s knowledge and learning.
They helped to create effective environments which enhanced the learning experiences of pupils and the professional development of teachers.

6.5.1 A strategic approach to Risk-Taking, Creativity and Innovation

Contextually, institutional cultures that valued exploration of new practices, creativity and innovation supported risk-taking. Such Institutions considered a strategic approach to the exploration of new ideas. Strategies included providing teachers with space, time and resources that would support engagement with innovation and risk-taking, as experienced by Luke and Sarah (See Chapter 5.3.2, pp. 147-149). These school contexts promoted a more fluid mind-set in teachers, where knowledge and learning were not seen as fixed but as developing and emerging. This led to an acceptance that the exploration of new practices may not always be successful, and that mistakes may be made.

Strategic school approaches as described above were implemented through school senior leaders and managers. This top down approach infiltrated into departments and subject communities who were provided the autonomy to explore the practices they believed useful and relevant. This aligns with the views of García-Granero et al (2013) who believe developing creative ideas are the first stages to innovation and consider risk-taking as crucial for innovation. They put this to the test using a quantitative model which looked at the impact of a manager’s risk-taking propensity on innovation by considering the risk-taking climate within organisations. Their findings demonstrated a positive link between managerial risk-taking and the organizational risk-taking climate. They suggested that the risk-taking climate of an organisation matters to enhance innovative performance and, ‘a risk-taking climate plays a pivotal role in ultimately explaining the effect of managers' tendency toward taking risks on innovation outputs’ (García-Granero et al, 2013, p. 1101). These findings seem to align with the narratives from this study, whereby a wider risk-taking or innovation climate within a school tends to positively influence both subject communities and in this case participants’ willingness to take risks with a vision to enhancing practice and learning.
Strategies employed by schools included giving teachers allocated time to reflect on practice and engage with what could be aligned with the visional aspect of the Tesseract Model. Where teachers had dedicated time and space to consider visions of enhanced learning and professional development, they planned and engaged with risk-taking. Thus, it is suggested that if schools value risk-taking, creativity and innovation then by ring-fencing time and space, teachers may be more willing to engage with such practices. When time and space is made available to teachers to play within the Imaginarium of Possibility they are able to vision and implement practices which aim to improve pupil learning and their own professional development.

6.5.2 Working in Communities of Practice

When considering the relational dimension of the Tesseract Model, school cultures which valued the exploration of new practices through transactional learning held positive influence for risk-taking. Valuing the input of others, working collaboratively, sharing ideas and working within CoP’s, be they self-developed, within subject communities or, strategically developed through policy, all encouraged play within the Imaginarium of Possibility. The relational aspects of working in a CoP supported participants to take risks and explore new practices, to play collectively within the Imaginarium of Possibility. For some, working in a CoP became part of their everyday reflective and visional thinking which transferred to their practice. As shown by the experiences of Luke and Sarah in their teaching schools and, Lizzie in the school where she trained (See Chapter 5.3.2, pp. 147-151). Offering examples, those participants in this study told stories of successful collaboration, engaging in dialogue, shared planning and trying new practices imitating those practices which others found successful. Attending such collaborative events with wider communities such as Teach Meets and exploring sharing sites via the internet, like Pinterest and Twitter, also supported participants to take risks and further develop their ‘in the job’ practices. In addition to this, those schools where participants were willing to take-risks and engage with creative and innovative ideas often had a whole school strategy, that promoted such practices. In one case this came in the form of an ‘Innovations group’, a group that worked across curriculum subjects to support others to engage with innovations and
triailling new ideas to enhance professional development of teachers and the learning opportunities of pupils. At another school, time was dedicated to enable staff to research new ideas and share innovative practices. It encouraged working in small groups or communities of practice to trial new ideas or imitate ideas from others. An openness to observation of practice where teachers would regularly observe others teaching for developmental purposes (See Chapter 5.3.2, p. 147-148) also characterised those schools where participants were willing to continue to take risks and engage with creative and innovative practices.

6.5.3 A Flexible Approach to Policy and Performativity

Within this study, government policy such as the National Curriculum did not present itself as restricting to risk-taking for participants. It is accepted that such policy may be restrictive, however those risks taken tended to be within the already defined curricula of schools. It may have been that the participants in this study accepted the school curricula as they were early in their careers and saw risk-taking as within such boundaries as school policy and curriculum practice. In schools which strategically promoted innovation and creativity and, valued working in CoP’s then a more flexible approach was taken towards policy and performativity measures. This enabled teachers to play in the Imaginarium of Possibility, within the parameters of already defined government policy, school curricula and performance measures. In such circumstances visonal ideas were considered specifically to enhance performativity measure which suggested an acceptance of their everyday influence. There were cases however, where risks were taken by trying practices that did not operate within the school policy, for example when Nathan experienced poor behaviour with his classes (See Chapter 5.2, p. 134-135). These risks were based upon previously learned practices, those from past experience that had been successful but did not fit in with school policy. Here, it seemed that the junctures presented, through disruptive pupil behaviour and inhibitive school policy, led to teachers playing in the Imaginarium of Possibility to try out visional practices. It appeared that the constraints of school policy and visional will of the teacher led to the subversion of authority through risk in the pursuit of visional practice.
6.5.4 Positive Pupil Behaviour

Within those schools where positive behaviour prevailed and the behaviour of pupils was conducive to an effective learning environment then teachers felt free and able to play in the Imaginarium of Possibility. Teachers could, essentially explore new and creative ideas and prioritise risk-taking to achieve their vision. Conversely, in those schools where pupil behaviour was disruptive, not conducive to learning and, teachers felt they could not trust pupils, disjuncture was experienced. Teachers were unable to progress with envisioning better learning as their time and energy was invested in addressing such behaviours. Disruptive behaviour has become a growing concern as low level disruption often characterises classroom behaviour (Ofsted, 2012, DfE, 2012) and this has become an area of priority for training teachers (GOV.UK, 2016f). During the training year, participants felt free and able to explore and vision new learning opportunities within the Imaginarium of Possibility, and at times, these would include strategies to overcome disruptive behaviour. For some however this changed once they began teaching in schools. This is unsurprising given that behaviour expectations have been found as varied depending upon the school setting (DfE, 2012) and also teachers new to the profession feeling that there are greater accountability pressures on both performance and behaviour and are establishing their identity in their new role (Dugas, 2016). Programmes such as the Risk-Taking PDP which lead to adaptation, negotiation and resilience forming over time, may support new teachers to negotiate the varied experiences of behaviour that they come to experience once teaching in schools.

Paradoxically, those participants who had taken risks during the training year to overcome disruptive behaviour were unwilling to take risks when such behaviour was evident in schools. The behaviour of pupils, when poor and disruptive, had a clear influence in preventing teachers from taking risks. Those who continued to take risks did not refer to pupil behaviour as influencing, however their experiences suggested that pupils were keen and willing to learn and so may not have demonstrated disruptive behaviour. This reinforces the need for schools to find effective strategies to encourage positive behaviour and to prioritise training and professional development opportunities for this. It may be that if teachers can see the disjuncture that behaviour
causes, they could use this to positive effect by exploring new and creative strategies to overcome such behaviour. The Imaginarium of Possibility may provide space, time and collaborative opportunities for teachers to visualise and then realise their ‘behaviour’ visions to enhance learning.

6.6 Chapter conclusion

This chapter has explored the key reflections upon the narratives of early-career PE teachers who took risks during their training year. It has offered a reconceptualization of creativity, risk-taking and innovation in order to support teacher professional development and, has offered possible suggestions which may support teachers to improve their practices or engage with change intended innovation in schools. It has also conceptualised risk-taking as holding four-dimensional metaphorical space, visualised through the Tesseract Model. The Tesseract Model offers a conceptualisation of risk-taking that may offer insights to teacher training programmes and schools regarding strategic approaches to professional development, teacher and pupil learning. It suggests that the four dimensions, when promoting positive conditions towards risk-taking may lead to teachers having time, space and confidence to ‘play’ in the Imaginarium of Possibility, a profound visional space that allows for creativity, innovation and imagination to prevail. If we accept this conceptualisation, we can go some way to understanding the influences upon risk-taking for the professional development of early career PE teachers and possibly early career teachers generally.
7. Summary and Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter draws together the ideas and outcomes of the research beginning with its contribution to knowledge. It then provides an overview of the findings in relation to its broader aims; to explore the influence and longer-term relevance of the Risk-Taking PDP and, offer insights into risk-taking for the professional development of training PE teachers and possibly teacher professional development generally. It also provides a summary of the key outcomes in response to the research question ‘what meanings, definitions and influences do teachers ascribe to risk-taking from their memories of the training year and once they begin teaching in schools?’ This chapter considers the implications of this work for school policy and practice, drawing upon practical recommendations which support risk-taking so as to enhance practice and, encourage engagement with creative and innovative practices for professional development. Alongside the achievements of this study, there is also consideration of its limitations and my own personal reflections on the approach of Narrative Inquiry.

7.1 Contribution to Knowledge

Within this study I have listened to the stories of a number of early career PE teachers who I trained to become teachers and who took risks during their training year. The purpose of this study was to explore these teachers’ narratives of risk-taking, considering the definitions they ascribed to it and the influences on risk-taking once they began teaching in schools. Intentions were to gain insights to inform the future of the Risk-Taking PDP and its longer-term relevance once teaching in schools alongside wider risk-taking opportunities for the professional development of early career teachers more generally. Whilst concerns of this research about risk-taking are specific to teacher professional development, they also cut to the heart of wider educational debates around policy priorities, curriculum content and measurement objectives which characterise the current education system.
The nine participants of the study, who had been teaching for between two months and five years all engaged with what has been termed the Risk-Taking PDP. At inception, this professional development programme did not seek to answer those problems that are seen to exist in physical education, where many children and young people continue to reject much of what is offered (Armour, 2014; Kirk 2005) and where ‘school physical education fails to realise its *raison d’etre* for inclusion in the school curriculum, which is lifelong participation in physically active lifestyles’ (Kirk and Haerens, 2014, p. 903). The focus of the study was to move beyond debates over the problems of prescribed curricula that, some scholars argued, stifle innovation or, employ innovation that rarely moves beyond implementation to institutionalization. Furthermore, it did not intend to fill the gap of ineffective professional development for PE teachers that has characterised much research and opinion. Yet, through the ‘messiness, self-critique and pain’ (Savin-Baden, 2004, p. 367) that has characterised the journey of this study, I have heard the storied lives of early career PE teachers who were brave enough, at times, not to take ‘the path of least resistance’ (Dewey, 2008, p. 136) by taking risks. The epiphanies heard within these stories seem to offer insights not only into the Risk-Taking PDP and PE ITET practices, but also to innovation within PE curricula and teacher professional development generally.

Risk-taking is frequently referred to within literature on learning, creativity and innovation, yet exploration of the concept of risk-taking *per se* is sparse within the context of PE or teacher professional development. This includes both its interconnectivity with creativity and innovation and, those influences on risk-taking that may be at play once teachers enter the teaching profession. This study has provided such conceptualisations that currently have limited presence in literature.

A further consequence of this research has been to open up debate and discourse on the conceptualisation of risk-taking and the influences upon it, for early career teachers’ and their professional development. And, in doing so offers a possibly unprecedented conceptualisations of risk-taking within schools through the Tesseract Model. Opening up such debate is important in that it may encourage early career teachers to engage with new practice or challenge traditional practice which may not be relevant to the
learning of young people today. Through experiencing risk-taking during the training year, this may support some early career teachers to gain an increased sense of agency which may empower them to collaborate or lead learning rather than feeling disempowered by just ‘fitting in’ to departmental practice. Furthermore, an understanding of early career teachers experiences through the Tesseract Model may encourage schools to consider policy and practice which promotes the exploration of new and creative ways of teaching within today’s performance driven education system. An education system which arguably limits creativity risk taking and innovation (Biesta, 2013; Seale, Nind and Simmons, 2013; Wilkins, 2011).

Finally, participants’ experiences revealed unintended tensions, differences and ambiguity with regards to the definitions of risk within particular educational contexts. These tensions may prompt further investigations that look at risk-taking in relation to the teaching orientations of recruits to PE (Andrew, Richards and Sookhenlall Padaruth, 2017), career risk of those entering and exiting the profession (Chambers, 2002) and, the risk-taking experiences of those who have secured promotion or career change early in their careers (Armour and Jones, 1998).

7.2 Illuminating the Emergence of Personal Growth and Understanding

This study set out to answer the question ‘what meanings, definitions and influences do teachers ascribe to risk-taking from their memories of the training year and once they begin teaching in schools?’ The answers to this question will be explored below in relation to the implications they have for practice in both ITET and early career teacher professional development.

7.2.1 Definitions of risk-taking and their implications for practice

Since engaging with the Risk-Taking PDP during the training year, participants had, over time, expanded their experience of different school contexts, their knowledge of pedagogic approaches to teaching PE alongside, experiencing a more extensive range of pupil needs. Furthermore, participants had held greater responsibility when they moved from training teachers to newly qualified teachers and had interacted with fellow
colleagues. This study found that central to participants’ definitions and experiences were the more general concepts of; relationality (Atkinson, 2013; Mead, 1934) or sociality as described by Clandinin and Connelly (2000), being the personal and social interactions with others and, temporality (Atkinson 2013, Luhmann 1993) being the continuity between past, present and future (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000). Thus, experience, including interactions with others, and time changed participants perceptions of risk.

Four themes emerged from participants’ definitions which suggest risk-taking may have positive implications for practice;

Teachers defined risk-taking as trying **new ideas and challenging pedagogies**. Here teachers tried new ideas in place of older and well-practised methods of teaching or challenged dominant pedagogies. The notion of trying new ideas and challenging pedagogies through risk-taking, for many participants led to professional growth and changes in practice over time through experience. Engaging with risk-taking encouraged early career teachers to try new ideas and previously unknown practices. When successful this supported professional development and growth in confidence.

The second definition involved teachers **giving pupils more control** in their learning, finding themselves allowing pupils to be more independent and self-directed. A change in mind-set from the teacher as controller of learning to the leader of learning occurred. Over time, through risk-taking, early career teachers gained confidence to allow pupils to be more independent, they engaged with pupil-centred learning strategies and allowed pupils to take more responsibility for their own learning and that of their peers.

The third definition consisted of **teachers moving out of their comfort zone** and into the realms of uncertainty. When taking risks, teachers found themselves pushing personal boundaries and challenging their own comfort zones. As they became familiar with this way of working, it led to teachers finding they were comfortable, even when faced with uncertainty and found benefits to this way of working. Teachers were less afraid to work in unknown situations, they developed resilience, began to embrace such ways of
working and found, at times, this benefitted both their own development and their pupils’ learning.

The fourth definition focused around teachers changing their career or moving to a new job. This was considered a risk, even though not directly related to teaching practises.

7.2.2 Influences on risk-taking during the training year and their implications for practice

This study found that engagement with the Risk-Taking PDP during the training year encouraged trainees to problematise and reflect upon their practices with a view to enhancing their own professional learning or the learning experiences of pupils. Participants felt that being encouraged to explore new and innovative practices and work outside of their comfort zones was positive in enhancing their own professional development and the learning of the pupils they taught. There have been calls for exploring new ways to support teachers in their use of alternative pedagogies (Casey, 2014; Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017) and for teacher training programmes to provide ‘ongoing professional development to practising teachings and changing the way we teach teachers’ (Casey, 2014, p. 31). The Risk-Taking PDP may thus offer one possible way to support CPD and engagement with alternative pedagogies for PE teachers during the training year, and beyond.

Setting a context during the training year by offering programmes similar to the Risk-Taking PDP may encourage teachers to engage with new, creative and innovative ideas and pedagogies through risk-taking beyond the training year. Raising the awareness of training teachers to such aspects as problematisation, reflection, innovation, contingency and resilience may offer a firm foundation, within a safe and secure training environment from which teachers can grow and develop practice (Capel and Blair, 2007; McLeod, 2013). Although there are no guarantees of success, within an environment where making mistakes and learning from them is accepted (Carlile and Jordan, 2012), training teachers may develop confidence and resilience to continue with such practices and embrace the unexpected once teaching in schools (Le Cornu, 2009; Tait, 2005).
During the training year, participants felt less accountable for the outcomes of learners and this led to a willingness to take risks. However once teaching in schools, accountability for the outcomes of learners became a barrier to risk-taking. There are two suggestions that can be made here. Firstly, this situation may suggest that the Risk-Taking PDP may not have provided such an authentic experience as envisaged. Accountability measures will, for the foreseeable future remain in schools and continue to be of influence to both new and experienced teachers. It may be therefore, that the Risk-Taking PDP and ITET programmes need to promote a greater awareness of the accountability measures that will be in place once in schools. This point is also relevant in that during the training year, the Risk-Taking PDP ‘gave permission’ to take risks and encourage engagement with new and creative ideas. It provided a context where making mistakes was accepted as a learning experience. Participants in this study were used to a training programme where learning from mistakes was advocated. This meant that they did not fear failure but saw it as a learning opportunity. Carlile and Jordan (2012, p. 26) advocate such an approach when considering creativity ‘In order to promote creativity as innovation, teachers should create a climate that promotes risk-taking and is accepting of failure’. On reflection of the differing experiences of some trainees once they began teaching in schools, it could be argued that such support and advocating learning from mistakes is not authentic as it does not accurately reflect the diversity of school contexts that trainees may find themselves in once finishing the training year. Thus, further consideration of the diverse nature of schools may be needed when considering the future or the Risk-Taking PDP. It may be that an awareness is fostered of such contexts through the stories generated in this study to support those teachers currently entering the profession, particularly when risk-taking appears to jar against the cultural contexts of some subject communities and schools.

7.2.3 Influences on risk-taking once teaching in schools and their implications for practice

Engagement with risk-taking appeared to have positive influence upon early career teacher practises and professional development. It encouraged reflection, negotiation and adaptation and, supported personal growth and resilience to work within conditions
of uncertainty. Based upon this, it is suggested that schools may benefit from considering their own perceptions towards encouraging risk-taking, particularly during the induction period for new teachers. If, as was found in some cases in this study, risk-taking is beneficial to pupil and teacher learning, it is suggested that schools may wish to promote a culture that ‘gives permission’ for new teachers to take risks and explore new practices. It is suggested that induction programmes may wish to enable new teachers to explore and problematise their practice within the new school context in which they find themselves, with the support of their induction mentor and others from within their subject community. By schools promoting a culture of acceptance that everything is not always successful and mistakes can lead to learning, this may support early teachers to grow in confidence. It may also build a resilience which embraces new learning and, develops the range of practices and pedagogies that teachers use within their own teaching environment. Yet, it is also necessary to heed caution with this suggestion as it could be argued, that by ‘giving permission’ it may be believed that there is a necessity for risk-taking to be condoned, albeit in an informal way. This may remove some of the spontaneity associated with risk-taking and particularly those risks taken ‘in action’ (Schön, 1987). The suggestion would therefore be for teachers to have a raised awareness of risk-taking and its potential benefits and, for schools to promote positively the features within the dimensions of the Tesseract Model to allow teachers to play in the Imaginarius of Possibility. Once teachers are familiar with and have engaged with risk-taking, its continuance should be encouraged through teachers independently or within CoP’s visioning new or better ways of teaching, learning or working.

Embedding school and departmental policy and practice which promotes approaches to working in CoP’s is suggested as one way to provide a secure and supportive space for teachers to take risks. CoP’s may include experienced colleagues and also colleagues from local schools. Collaborative engagement with technological communities like Twitter and Pinterest, organising and attending functions such as Teach Meets and open observation of practice would be further strategies suggested. Within CoP’s planning collaboratively, modelling ideas to each other and having specified time to engage in dialogue with peers about risk-taking could support the exploration of new practices and lead to new learning. In turn this may support the embedding or institutionalisation
of collaboratively generated innovations which are based upon the needs of pupils within the specific school setting. Using the concept of the Imaginarium of Possibility within schools would provide the time and space for a CoP to collaborate and engage in visional discussion, generating and planning creative, innovative and visional ideas.

Where subject communities valued the views and ideas of new teachers and worked collaboratively with open dialogue, participants were willing to continue to take risks and to experience the positive benefits from this. Furthermore, when other members of the department, including line managers and mentors challenged their own practice, took risks and modelled them, then participants were likely to follow suit and be more willing and amenable to risk-taking to enhance the learning of both themselves and the pupils they taught. It is therefore suggested that subject communities consider their interactions with, and influence upon new teachers and take an openly reflexive approach to reflect upon the practices they are themselves modelling to new teachers.

Where there is a positive influence from the subject community, new teachers will continue to want to ‘fit in’ to departmental practices (Andrew et al, 2014; Capel, 2007; Keay 2009), yet they would be fitting in to a community where risk-taking and the exploration of new ideas is the norm. It is advocated here that taking advantage of such influence, raising the awareness of subject communities to their strong influence and developing subject communities who value risk-taking and the exploration of new ideas may influence early career teachers to do the same.

7.2.4 Summary of findings

The following points summarise the findings of this study in relation to its aims and key question.

In answering the question ‘What meanings, definitions and influences do teachers ascribe to risk-taking from their memories of the training year and once they begin teaching in schools?’
This study found four key definitions to risk-taking:

1. **Challenging Pedagogies**; teachers trying new ideas in place of older and well-practised methods of teaching or challenging dominant pedagogies

2. **Managing Control**; teachers allowing pupils to be more independent and self-directed. A changing of mind-set from the teacher as controller of learning to the leader of learning

3. **Comfort Zones and Uncertainty**; teachers moving out of their comfort zone and into the realms of uncertainty

4. **Careers and Change**; teachers changing their career or moving to new jobs.

The key influences on risk-taking once teachers began teaching in schools were:

1. **Performativity**, i.e. increased accountability and time constraints when teaching in schools

2. **Pupil behaviour** and the training year to school paradox this illuminated and,

3. The influences of the **subject community**, the PE department.

The aim of the study was ‘to explore the influence and longer-term relevance of the Risk-Taking PDP undertaken by physical education trainee teachers from one HEI during their teacher-training year. The intention was to inform both the future of the programme and also my own professional understanding of risk-taking for the professional development of training PE teachers.’

Findings related to the aims and intentions of the study in summary are as follows. The Risk-Taking PDP influenced the practices of early career physical education teachers in the following ways;
- During their training year it promoted problematisation and reflection on practice
- It encouraged training PE teachers to explore new and innovative practices and work outside of their comfort zones to enable professional growth and enhance the learning of the pupils they taught
- It enhanced early career teachers’ confidence to allow pupils to be more independent and take more responsibility for their own learning by promoting use of pupil-centred learning strategies
- Engagement with risk-taking over time encouraged reflection, negotiation and adaptation and, developed resilience to work within conditions of uncertainty during the training year and once teaching in schools

Findings related to the longer-term relevance of the Risk-Taking PDP to ITET programmes and schools;

- The Risk-Taking PDP may offer ways to support CPD and engagement with alternative pedagogies for PE teachers during the training year, and beyond
- The Risk-Taking PDP may support the development of confidence and resilience in training and early career teachers
- This in turn may support early career teachers to gain a sense of agency which may empower them to develop learning further.

Suggestions from this study to inform my own professional development, ITET programmes and early-career teacher professional development more generally include;

- ITET programmes would benefit from promoting a greater awareness to training teachers of the accountability measures and strong influences of the subject community that will be in place once they begin teaching in schools
- The subject community i.e. subject departments, should be made aware of their influence (both positive and negative) on early career teachers and be encouraged to use this to positive effect. This could be achieved by modelling
risk-taking, challenging practice and working outside of their comfort zones, alongside taking a more reflexive approach to their own practices and influences on early career teachers.

- The Tesseract Model should be utilised in schools to support early career teacher professional development, build resilience and encourage collaborative engagement in subject communities.

### 7.3 Study Limitations and Future Research

As would be expected, due to the scope of this study and its aims, I have been selective in both the choice of participants and the stories told. Some of this has been within my own control whereas other aspects, like participants consenting to be involved, have been beyond my control. Based upon this, there are limits to the research and unexplored areas that if further explored may generate additional or new insights to those already discussed and existing in current literature. These will be outlined below.

The first identifiable limitation is one which resulted from a conscious decision to focus upon early career teachers within the first five years of service. Thus, this study has not explored the experiences of teachers beyond the first five years of service, teachers who may have different experiences or over time risk-taking may be defined and influenced in different ways. Exploration of influences during mid to late career may offer further insights to risk-taking and the Risk-Taking PDP.

The second limitation is that this study did not investigate the experiences of those teachers who had taken risks during the training year and held middle or senior management responsibility, i.e. Heads of PE, Second in Department. Jonathan was the only participant in this research to have secured promotion into middle or senior management, hence the story of only one teacher provides an insight into this area. A further fourteen past trainees were contacted at the outset and asked to participate in this research. Of these, nine had secured promotions and were middle managers in schools early in their careers. These teachers were unable to be part of the research as they did not have time due to their additional responsibilities and work commitments.
Risk related to career change and promotion is therefore not evident within this study. If the stories of these teachers had been heard, the perspectives offered may have held differing and unexplored viewpoints.

The third limitation is that this study did not intentionally explore influences on risk-taking beyond the subject and school communities in which participants found themselves. Participants’ stories, likewise gave very little indication, beyond Teach Meets and Social Media, of other social transactions or influences beyond the school community. For example, the influence of family, friends or other professional peers. This may be an area of future research which could highlight wider social influences on risk-taking.

There are five particular areas that I would like to highlight from this study which are suggested for worthwhile future research and exploration. The first three related to career risk and recruits to PE training programmes, the fourth related to sustained or institutionalised innovative practice and finally, implications for future research in ITET.

Firstly, further research is suggested into risk-taking and the teaching orientations of the three types of recruits to PE teaching; those who see a career in PE as a contingency to their coaching careers, those who view it as their primary career objective and those with an orientation towards fitness (Andrew, Richards and Sookhenlall Padaruth, 2017). The motivations behind pursuing a career in PE are argued to impact upon the pedagogic practices of these teachers (Andrew, Richards, Lux Gaudreault, 2017; Andrew et al, 2014) with coaching orientated recruits usually choosing traditional teaching approaches and teaching-oriented recruits being more likely to engage with innovative teaching approaches (Curther-Smith, 2001). This study, even though limited to nine participants, may well have had PE teachers from each of the suggested three types of recruits. Their stories however, did not suggest particular orientations towards risk-taking ‘in the job’ or of their practices. Contrary to this, their stories suggested that by taking risks all participants willingly engaged with innovative teaching practices. This suggests that actively taking risks through a programme such as the Risk-Taking PDP may support and encourage all PE teachers, regardless of their recruit type to engage with
innovative teaching orientations. This suggestion would require more in-depth explorations of practices related to ‘in the job’ risk-taking to offer further insights into affecting the teaching orientations of the different types of recruits to PE.

Secondly, further exploration of the influences upon those participants who choose to take a risk by leaving their jobs to become teachers or leaving teaching may offer deeper insights into PE teacher retention. For example, James (See Chapter 4.3.4, pp. 113-116) could have been considered a recruit to PE who had seen this as his primary career objective and he engaged with innovative teaching orientations. However, he chose to leave the profession without a job to move on to. Further exploration of the reasons behind this move may uncover additional insights to the findings of Purdy, Kohe and Paulauskas (2017) related to professional agency, job satisfaction and professional identity or those found by Lynn and Woods (2010) whereby teachers who feel unable to make contributions to wider school roles or beyond PE seek roles elsewhere.

Thirdly, two decades ago, Armour and Jones (1998, p. 136), spoke of career change for PE teachers as moving along a career path to eventually moving out of teaching PE to gain promotion. Described as the ‘invidious career paradox’ they saw a time when PE teachers were forced to make a choice between promotion and the subject they taught. This viewpoint seems to be an overly simplistic view of career progression when considered in light of the complex experiences and meanings drawn from the risks taken in job roles and changes in career as highlighted by participants in this study, even in the earlier phases of their careers. Further, up to date research is therefore recommended into the risks of undertaking PE careers, promotion and career change, to uncover a more contemporary understanding of the ‘invidious career paradox’.

Fourthly, this study did not intend to explore sustained innovative practices or, those risks that have been taken and retained as practice or institutionalised into the everyday practices of a school or department. As discussed in the literature review, there is a growing body of literature in PE which explores this and, whilst there are numerous pedagogical innovations and varying forms of professional learning to support change, teachers rarely move beyond the initial implementation of new ideas and policies and
few innovations reach the institutionalised stage (Goodyear, Casey and Kirk, 2017). This study has highlighted that focus upon ‘risk-taking’ as four-dimensional metaphorical space, its benefits and impact is worthy of further exploration and research to add to the growing body of literature which informs innovative and creative practice in schools. It may, if used as a model to develop practice, and its influence researched by schools, also offer new insights into sustainable curriculum renewal and moving beyond the innovation stage to regular embedded implementation of innovative practice. Additionally, further investigation into the application of the Tesseract Model within schools may uncover deeper insights into this approach to professional development, and its influence on professional agency, identity, resilience and job satisfaction highlighting possible connections to teacher retention.

The final suggestion relates to future research in risk-taking for ITET and early career teachers. Given that this study has found adaptation, negotiation and resilience to form over time through risk-taking, and that the confidence of early career teachers to explore new practices increases. It is suggested that ITET courses and Induction programmes consider encouraging risk-taking within their own programmes and research its influence within a broader range of contexts.

7.4 Limitations to Narrative Inquiry

There are limitations to this narrative inquiry that also warrant mention. Firstly, narrative interviews relied upon participants being able to remember their stories and experiences of risk-taking. For some, the event timeline served as an aide memoire from which narrative stories began and experiences of risk-taking were recalled. Hollingsworth and Dybdahl (2007, p. 140) write of the difficulties associated with recollecting a memory of an ‘actual event’ yet remind us that the purpose of narrative is to understand the past in light of the present. Additionally, Gergen and Gergen (2003) question whether narrative findings are a valid representation of the truth or, a product of the stories that people learn to tell which are embedded in situational contexts. What is important to remember here is that narratives are dependent on both the context of
the teller and the listener, are understood ‘in the midst’ (Clandinin, 2013, p. 43) of past, present and future and, do not intent to represent the ‘truth’ (Hunter, 2010).

Secondly, the stories told were relative to that time in the life and career of the participants, their views and stories may have taken on new meanings with future experiences post interview. The interview and recollection of risk-taking stories may also have affected the future practices of participants yet this will remain unknown. Thirdly, I have already mentioned that caution should be heeded when considering the verocity and worth of member checking (Carlson, 2010). I have therefore placed faith in the consent processes, honest and open rapport developed with participants alongside, my own reflexive narrative to generate a credible, authentic and trustworthy study.

Finally, what could be seen as both a strength and limitation of the study was the volume of data that the narrative interviews generated. Epiphanic moments were plentiful yet I needed to be selective and searched for similarities and patterns (Clandinin, 2013), overlapping and interlocking stories (Savin-Baden and Niekerk, 2007). My search for such epiphanic moments began during interviews, as I recollected previous stories when listening to the next story. The open interactions and often emotionally charged stories became the starting point for analysis. Due to my inexperience, the volume of data that narrative interviews would generate was unexpected. I was only therefore able to explore a selection of themes within the scope of this study and was unable to pursue other possible valuable lines of inquiry.

In utilising narrative, a holistic approach was intended which held central the importance of stories in meaning making and offering insights into risk-taking within the contexts that early career teachers found themselves. It valued both insider perspectives and thick description of the social realities that participants found themselves in, related to risk-taking once teaching in schools. The study did not intend to make generalisations yet wished to create ‘verisimilitude’ (Denzin, 2001, p. 99), where readers are able to imagine the experiences of participants and bring to the surface events which may resonate with other teachers to inform their future choices and ways of working.
7.5 Personal Reflections on Narrative Inquiry

The intention of this study was to become immersed in those stories of participants who had taken risks and whom I had shared experiences with from their training year. The ‘messiness and self-critique’ of narrative outlined by Savin-Baden (2004, p. 367) was as expected challenging, particularly when making decisions on the interpretations and retelling of stories, to ensure reflexivity and that data was credible, authentic and trustworthy. What I did not expect, even though it was a question considered early on in the study, was that suggested by Clandinin (2013, p. 167); ‘How do we continue to be alongside these teachers as their storylines bump up against the dominant plotline of today’s professional knowledge landscapes?’ My reflexive approach I believe led to negotiation, respect and a mutual openness to the stories told thus, creating an authenticity to the interpretations given to stories. Yet, I was unprepared for my own reactions, feelings and at times concern for the wellbeing of some of the participants. I found myself reverting to a nurturing role, as I would have as their tutor but, with very little power to help them or effect change. In continuing alongside these teachers, so their stories began to impact my own life and stories, influencing professional decisions and leading me to believe that maybe I had somehow ‘missed’ something important for the teachers I had trained. I wondered if, through my early years as a teacher educator I approached my role with rose-tinted glasses, somehow expecting their stories to be similar to my own. I believed that once teaching in schools all of these early career teachers would have agency, a voice and some independence in the decisions they made regarding their practice and, their willingness to take risks. Some stories were difficult to listen to, yet, I learnt lessons regarding the contexts in which early career teachers may find themselves. These contexts were not all positive, some did not promote teacher independence or agency, the opposite to my own early teaching experiences. I found that teacher experiences varied widely and it became more important for me, when training teachers, to make them aware of the diverse nature of schools and the influences they may meet once in school. The influences on risk-taking but also influences upon practice and professional development more generally. On balance, I also recall the pride and positive feelings experienced from hearing the successes of those participants who had themselves encountered positive influences once teaching
in schools. The memories of hearing such contrasting narratives from the participants of this study will remain with me, remembering narrative is ‘in the midst’ (Clandinin, 2013, p. 43) and is reshaped by past, present and future. The stories that I have heard over the course of this study have subsequently been reshaped by the continuing ‘dominant plotline of today’s professional knowledge landscapes’ (Clandinin, 2013, p. 167), as have my own stories.

7.6 Chapter Conclusions

This chapter has summarised the findings of the study in relation to the research questions, offered suggestions for future research and also considered its limitations. I have suggested both the development of Risk-taking programmes for ITET and for new teacher induction programmes. Additionally, the Tesseract model has been a conceptualisation for understanding early career teacher professional development and it is suggested that such an approach, embedded through policy and practice, may positively influence early career teacher professional development and resilience within their new-found contexts.

To return to the start of this study:

The path of least resistance and least trouble is a mental rut already made. It requires troublesome work to undertake the alternation of old beliefs . . . Unconscious fears also drive us into purely defensive attitudes that operate like a coat of armour not only to shut out new conceptions but even to prevent us from making a new observation.


Within the Imaginarium of Possibility, the inner cube of the Tesseract Model, this may offer metaphorical space where we can understand practice and help teachers to move beyond the path of least resistance to a place where possibility, creativity, risk-taking and innovation prevail. The coat of armour is lifted and teachers are potentially free to imagine new conceptions and new observations.

The words of King (2003, p. 92), when he describes his and his friend Louis Owens narrative writings, resonate with the stories told within this study. He described himself
and Louis as ‘both hopeful pessimists. That is, we wrote knowing that none of the stories we told would change the world. But we wrote in the hope that they would’. The findings from this study, arising from the narratives of early career PE teachers, who took risks during the training year, I know like King, will not change the world but, hopefully they may go some way to help schools, early career teachers and the children taught in schools to have better experiences and learn more fully and deeply.
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Appendices

Appendix 1: Risk-Taking Professional Development Programme Presentation

‘Teaching is a Risky Business’
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BN0yfQhoJwo
Kerry Whitehouse

If you have any questions now or during the session please write them on a post it note.
Who is this workshop for?
For trainees who:
✓ Are already secure in achieving the teachers standards
✓ Work hard and achieve well yet find they have reached a plateau
✓ May need a spark or new motivation to move beyond the plateau.
✓ Wish to challenge their good practice to improve practice further
✓ Wish to challenge themselves by taking positive risks in their pedagogic practice and professional development so as to develop teaching and learning further.

When did you last take a positive risk?
What was it?
Why was it a risk?

W = Would like to share

Inspiration from famous people...
Risk and Learning

“A ship is always safe at the shore but that is NOT what it is built for.”
Albert Einstein

“I am always doing that which I cannot do, in order that I may learn how to do it.”
Pablo Picasso
Aims of the workshop:

• To define ‘positive risk taking’ in the context of this workshop for trainee teachers.

• To understand why ‘positive risks taking’ may be of benefit for the learning and professional development of secure trainees.

• To apply the concept of ‘positive risk taking’ to your own professional context.

Why take risks?

▷ Some trainees reach a consistently ‘good’ level of teaching around weeks 26 - 30 (just before Easter) and others just after Easter.

▷ Some trainees are happy to ‘coast’ and some want to experiment with innovations and new strategies and take risks in their teaching.

▷ Taking positive risks is one way to support trainees to teach better lessons and move their teaching forward.

Risk and Learning

• Risk averse as a society.
• However we have become ever more aware that taking risks is vital for effective learning.
• If students (and teachers) are not willing to take risks in their learning, then their progress is going to be either slow or non-existent.

For example, think about how someone learns to juggle. If I want to become better at juggling, I have to try to do it, which means I risk dropping the balls. Indeed, worse than that, it’s highly likely that I will drop the balls, especially when I first begin to learn. And if I drop the balls, I risk looking like a fool, even more so if I’m doing it in front of my peers. So, I have to be brave enough to be willing to fail, and brave enough not to care what anyone else thinks.
Impact:
Research (Clarke et al 2012) suggests that;

• Trainees feel that risk-taking has a significant impact upon their progress and ability to become ‘outstanding’ trainee teachers

• Taking risks supports trainees to become ‘outstanding’ trainee teachers

• Taking risks has helped to secure employment for some trainees.

‘Truly great teachers are indeed those who demonstrate their willingness and commitment to take a risk as an educator...’
(Brazeau 2005; p. 541)

Defining Risk Taking isn’t an easy task

• At the time Ofsted characteristics (2008) were used to ‘grade’ trainees. Outstanding...

‘(Trainees) take risks when trying to make teaching interesting, are able to deal with the unexpected and ‘grab the moment’

Defining Risk Taking isn’t an easy task

To risk is to “act in such a way as to bring about the possibility of an unpleasant or unwelcome event; to incur the chance of unfortunate consequences by engaging in an action”

http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/risk?q=risk

This definition recognises that risk involves assessing potential negative consequences and getting some sense of the probability of those consequences occurring.

To act with the certainty of negative consequences is not risk-taking in the sense presented here.
A model from business leadership
In an increasingly competitive, cautious and accelerated world, those who are willing to take risks, step out of their comfort zone and into the discomfort of uncertainty will be those who will reap the biggest rewards. (Warrell 2013; p. 2)

Defining Risk Taking
Risk taking is defined as an action or activity taken by choice in which a trainee takes risks in their practice to achieve a learning benefit. It considers the idea that trainees reflect upon an element of their professional development and challenge their own practices and routines by moving out of their comfort zone, assessing the potential negative consequences and having an idea of the probability of this occurring.

(Whitehouse 2012)

Defining Risk Taking
’an action or activity taken by choice in which a trainee / teacher tries a new and / or innovative practice that they believe (subjective perception) is out of their comfort zone (in their courage zone) and is not without risks (professional / personal / ontological) to achieve a learning benefit’

(Whitehouse 2015)
Key messages:

1. Create a climate where children support each other, and where disrespect for another person’s efforts is seen as completely unacceptable.


3. One of the best ways you can do this is to show yourself making mistakes and coping with failure.

4. Use your skills as a professional to break down difficult activities into simpler steps. As we do with children, take one small risk, then another, then another, to move forwards.

What does it mean to take risks? Views of trainees

• Being prepared to not control the lesson directly
• Doing something that you don’t know will work
• Trying ideas from other PGCE trainees
• Using new technologies
• Teaching something out of your comfort zone
• Handing over responsibility to students
• Tackling difficult issues

What does it mean to take risks? Views of mentors

• Going beyond comfort zone
• Managing new learning technologies
• Dealing with difficult relationships, especially emotional or behavioural
• Stepping up for extra professional duties
• Less direct control of a class
• Allowing independent learning
What are the potential barriers in school?

- Time
- Trainee capabilities
- Participation
- Behaviour of students
- Resistance from staff
- Curriculum constraints
- Confidence (student/pupil)
- Mentors attitudes

Trainees who are achieving well may be reluctant to try new things and ‘make mistakes’ particularly as those assessing performance will be the ones that mistakes are made in front of.

Conceptualising Risk Taking

(Clark et al., 2012)

- Personal and emotional
  - Overcoming fears, self-esteem, confidence

- Workplace conditions
  - School ethos, expectations, facilities, exam results culture

- Relationships
  - Mentors and trainees
  - NQT and mentor
  - Trainees and peers

What can Mentors do?

- Create an environment where trainees were comfortable to try new ideas, take risks and learn from mistakes
- Give over ‘the reins’ and allowed trainees to work independently (sometimes a risk for the mentor) - TRUST
- Allow trainees to practice perceived ‘risk’ activities in collaborative lessons so as to give trainees confidence to apply them when teaching full lessons
Where now?

*The idea of learners being encouraged to take risks ... suggests a pedagogy that is not totally controlled by specified learning outcomes. It suggests a flexible teaching-learning space that attempts to accommodate unpredictable or unexpected directions in learning*. 

(Atkinson, 2011 p.3)

Turning the world on its head...

- Moving on from previous priorities that are embedded in practice
- Seeing learning from a new angle
- Pausing to reflect
- Taking time to just be and see
- Living in the moment
- Seeing opportunities and acting upon them

This takes **CONFIDENCE!**
Theory U (Scharmer 2009) - becoming open and ready

The '9 R's of Reflection
(McLeod 2013, p.9)
1. Readiness to be open, develop self-awareness and consciousness of own practice
2. Recalling a situation accurately as part of own practice
3. Recognising personal influences, views, biases, assumptions, understandings, (stand back after and during) (on, in)
4. Reflecting (on, in) the child’s experiences from their perspective. What are their feelings? How do you know?
5. Reviewing together by sharing and comparing own understandings and thoughts
6. Relating to relevant reading and research
7. Re-appraising the relevance Evaluating what this shows and means personally, looking at the implications for own practice
8. Responding by making appropriate changes (Letting go and letting come)
9. Remembering the benefits of new learning (for you & the children) so reflection is sustainable

What does risk taking look like?

Consider the case studies from past trainees.
‘If you were 10% braver in your professional life, what would you do?’

Where now?

Take a little time to reflect upon either a group that you teach or an area of professional development that you would like to take a positive risk in.

Consider

In your teaching context (NQT year) what would it would mean to take a risk?
What do you think would prevent you from taking this risk?
What might the benefits be?

Adapted from Schon 1993
Any questions?

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8N0yfQhqw4o

Exit Card: Teaching is a risky business
Following this session I will now.....

Connect to the Padlet and write up you risk, by the end of the course.
http://padlet.com/k_whitehouse/po4os9uz2s2r

We all make progress at different rates and taking risks is like learning to ride a bike...
You make a start in a comfortable and secure environment...

with patience and support from others.

You may make mistakes (and fall off)...

but only by getting back on and practising...

will the risk you once took become second nature.
### Background to the school / trainee’s progress which may be relevant:

**Describe the ‘risk’ taken by the trainee teacher, what were the key features?**

From past lessons, through guided discovery tasks, the group had learnt the techniques of long jump, sprinting, and discus throw. This lesson involved promoting independent learners by allowing them the responsibility to set up each of these events, take part in them enforcing and obeying the rules and measuring and monitoring their attempts. I was based on the throwing station for safety purposes so the success of the other elements of the lesson and what students gained from the lesson relied heavily on the effort they put into the activities. The whole lesson was a risk as the students were only given brief instructions at the start when splitting them into groups. The main source of instruction came from the resource card detailing to the groups how they needed to set up the event, what equipment they needed and how to set it out. The card also provided some reminders about the technique. The students were then to complete activities and offer feedback to each other regarding their technique to help each other improve. After an allotted time, the students rotated to the next event.

The key feature of this lesson was that it relied on group work with little intervention from the teacher. The organisation, completion and recording of the events were done by the students, and giving that much responsibility for a year 8 low ability class was a big risk.

### What opportunities were created which contributed to the successes encountered? (Support given / pupils / whole school)

Teachers fully supported my idea, and provided me with all equipment and resources I needed and having access to the athletics track and long jump pit was another factor that helped make the lesson successful as prior to this long jump, discus and springing had all been done inside due to bad weather.

### What difficulties needed to be overcome?

Organisation and planning needed to be thorough for this lesson as I had to organise the space the groups were to work in so I could remain on the throwing station and still be able to see and monitor the rest of the class. The class can also be unproductive when working in particular groups therefore before the lesson I planned 3 groups splitting the class up so each group could work well and get on with each other. In lessons leading up to this I had to introduce elements of reciprocal teaching and independent work gradually so they were able to tackle this ‘risk’ lesson having developed the required skills in previous lessons, such as observing, evaluating and giving feedback. This way I knew that the class would be able to take part in this lesson effectively.

### What was the impact upon pupil learning and trainee development?

Students were able to apply not only the physical skills they had learnt in previous lessons but also personal skills such as organisation, observation, and evaluation whilst also learning how to set up and manage an event, learning the rules necessary, and how to work effectively within a team making decision without relying on teachers’ instructions. I learnt from this lesson the importance of challenging learners with different styles of teaching, to get the best from them. I learnt how effective reciprocal teaching and group tasks can be in engaging classes as it doesn’t only focus on the performance element but allows students to adopt different roles within the lesson. I also now appreciate more the importance of setting tasks and allowing the groups to complete them by themselves and when faced with problems letting them overcome them with their ideas.
Appendix 3: Case Study 2: Compass Work

Background to the school / trainee’s progress which may be relevant:

Describe the ‘risk’ taken by the trainee teacher, what were the key features?
Prior to this lesson, work on using maps and grid references and using landmarks to find a location had been covered with lessons taught on the school site. Therefore, this lesson’s objective was to teach the class how to use a compass to navigate their way around in a less familiar environment. Groups of students had to navigate their way around the course using their compasses visiting checkpoints I had set out, as maps were fixed in place and not carried by students this presented an extra challenge and a reliance on the correct use of the compass. The key feature of this lesson was that apart from an introduction from me and explanation how to use the compass at the start there was no other form of contact between me and the students, the success of the lesson relied on the students applying the knowledge I gave to them, and that they had obtained from previous lessons. They were provided with a reminder sheet of how to use a compass to further guide them. In their groups they navigated around the nature park finding clues to the next location to ultimately end up finding the combination of a lock fastening shut a prize/treasure box. The risk was that for a little over an hour there was no student teacher interaction, groups were off working alone without my assistance in a large expansive area. This was a completely student-centred lesson which promoted independent learning and involved opportunities for use of cross curricular skills, for example maths, geography, history, fitness and English.

What opportunities were created which contributed to the successes encountered? (Support given / pupils / whole school)
The department were very supportive of the idea and fully encouraged me providing me with several maps of the area, compasses, and ideas that they had used in the past as well as key safety points to include. The main opportunity I was provided with was the use of the Burlish Top Nature Park. As it is a facility not on the school site I was very fortunate to have access to this area and it definitely added another challenge and excitement element to the lesson.

What difficulties needed to be overcome?
The lesson was very complex to organise which was a difficulty that needed to be overcome for the success of the lesson. The lesson required a lot of planning, resource making, researching, and setting up so the class could take part and learn from the lesson. Making resources and setting them out in the nature park in the correct areas meant I had to re-learn how to use a compass and use it to help me set out the course.

What was the impact upon pupil learning and trainee development?
The result of this lesson was that all students knew how to use a compass to direct them between some points on a map. All were constantly engaged throughout the lesson, the competitive element and reward of the treasure box added to this. From this lesson I will now be more confident in teaching compass work in future OAA units. This lesson demonstrated the importance of taking a step back and allowing the class to attempt tasks and devise their own solutions rather than as the teacher constantly correcting and instructing them on what they need to do. It has given me more confidence to take further risks in other lessons.
Appendix 4: Case Study 3: Assembly

Background to the school/trainee’s progress which may be relevant:
During my time in my first placement I was assisting in extracurricular clubs, however, staff at the school were covering these clubs from numerous departments and I wanted to lead something myself. I wanted to be involved in something different that would allow me to contribute to the whole school rather than just the department.

Describe the ‘risk’ taken by the trainee teacher, what were the key features?
A friend of mine was severely injured in Afghanistan in October. Fortunately, his recovery got to a point where he was mobile and he expressed an interest in a future career in teaching. I spoke to him about coming into my placement school and speaking to the pupils about his experiences in the Marines. He was excited about this, so I spoke to my mentor and he thought it would be a good idea. My friend and I went away to plan and deliver an assembly to year 11’s using real life photos and video footage that my friend had taken whilst on active duty. After the assembly numerous members of staff informed me that they had never seen that year group so still and quiet and engaged. Many agreed that it was one of the best visitors that the school had ever had in.

What difficulties needed to be overcome?
I was not sure how the pupils would react to the topic. A lot of the photos that we used and didn’t use could have been sensitive to people in the room, this meant that my friend and I had to assess each step in the presentation to ensure that it was all suitable to the audience. It was also my first delivery of a whole school assembly so my nerves needed to be overcome for me to present confidently.

What was the impact upon pupil learning and trainee development?
The experience gave me a lot of confidence and made me feel more ‘part of the school’. It highlighted the importance of stepping out of my subject area and department to contribute to the whole school experience. It has left me with a desire to be involved in such ventures in the future.
Appendix 5: Routes into teaching % comparisons 2013 to 2017

The 2015 to 2016 and 2016 to 2017 Initial Teacher Training Censuses demonstrate the changes to school-led and university led training over the past three years. Over half of postgraduate initial teacher training courses were school-led. School-led routes have grown over the last few years (DfE, 2015, p. 1).

Routes into teaching % comparisons per route 2013 – 2016 (DfE, 2015, p. 1).

The number of entrants to school-led routes increased further in 2016 – 17 academic year. ‘From 51 percent in academic year 2015 to 2016 to 56 percent in academic year 2016 to 2017’. (DfE 2016a, p. 5).
Appendix 6: Example Demographic Information and Time Line

ID code: 20WAL

Age: 27

Gender: FEMALE

Degree title and classification: First Class with Hons in Physical Education (Major) with Sport Studies (Minor)

Teacher Training qualification [delete as appropriate]:

Post Graduate Certificate in Education

Masters Qualification [delete as appropriate]: Other – intend to study within next academic year.

Teaching History (Current position first):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>School name and type (Eg: Secondary community college)</th>
<th>Role / Responsibility</th>
<th>TLR / promotion [if applicable]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01-09-2015</td>
<td>Redlake (pseudonym) High School – Secondary 13-18</td>
<td>PE Teacher</td>
<td>Assistant Leader of Silver DofE.</td>
</tr>
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Date Insert month and year and event related to risk taking that took place

Year 1

NQT Year 2015-2016 (Weekly citizenship sessions Sept - June) – Throughout the year I have had to deliver a topic within citizenship focusing on discrimination and stereotyping. As part of my session, students are asked to challenge their own pre-judgments and stereotypes on people that they have made in the past. This for me has been a risk as I have had to carefully manage how as a group, we reveal our pre-judgments as to not offend other students in the class. However, after delivering 13 sessions of this, there has not been a
single issue and all students have been sensible and highly respectable of the issue.

January – Whilst teaching the mechanisms of breathing to my GCSE PE group, I decided to get my group to make a model of the lungs and chest out of balloons, string, straws etc. I knew this would present many challenges and could possibly cause behaviour issues with blowing up of balloons and messing about however the students loved this idea and they were very keen on making the most spectacular models. It helped as well with the learning of different components of chest cavity and visualising what takes place during inspiration/expiration.

February – I tried an alternative approach to teaching during a Year 9 boys Core PE lesson. The group are particularly challenging, low ability and have a number of students who present SEN/ behaviour issues. I gave leadership and coaching roles to the particularly challenging students on a carousel style lesson. I was apprehensive of how this was going to go, however all students worked very well and disruption during the lesson was dramatically reduced. Students thrived under the designated roles and I have since adopted this approach with this group in a range of activities.

March – I was tasked with leading a Catholic Life assembly to the Year group that I was attached to. I focused on success and failure and spoke personally about the failures that I had endured throughout my life. It took me a while to decide whether to do this as I was not sure on how I would be perceived after talking so openly about ‘failing’ in the past. However, the students really connected with my assembly and I had staff approaching me to praise my approach. It was a risk for sure, but the students were very respectful.

April – during an orienteering lesson I planned for students to travel around the school to find check points and photograph objects using their mobile phones. Beforehand I identified that this could present many problems giving the nature and size of the group. A couple of students were caught on social media and they were asked to return their phones to their bags in changing rooms. The rest of the students found the lesson fun and worked well.
Appendix 7: Interview Questions:

Beginning with your training year can you tell me what you remember about your experiences of taking risks...

What are your memories of risk taking?

How would you define risk?

Have you taken risks since teaching in schools?

How have these experiences changed over time?

Did others play a role in risk-taking?

Did the Risk-Taking PD programme from your training year influence your practice or professional development?

How would you describe any long-lasting effects?

What have been the influences upon you taking [or not taking] risks once you began teaching in a school environment?

How do you feel about teachers taking professional risks?

Open questions.

So, could you tell me a little bit more about that?

Could you give me an example?

What did you learn from that?

What was the impact on pupils?

How did that influence you?
Appendix 8: Full Participant Biographical Accounts

Jonathan

Jonathan was 25 when he embarked upon his teacher training course through the Graduate Teaching Programme (GTP) route during the 2011 – 2012 academic year. He had a degree in Sport Science with Management and held a range of coaching qualifications. Jonathan was a little older than his peers and had gained previous experience in the sports and coaching industry and worked with British Triathlon. A prerequisite to entering teacher training through a GTP route was to have prior relevant employment experience alongside experience teaching or coaching children. For Jonathan, his employment experience was beneficial to beginning the teacher training course, however, his degree did not have the ‘Physical Education’ aspect that trainees usually found supported their progress when understanding associated curriculum and school policy. Nevertheless, Jonathan was keen to learn about this and develop his knowledge further. He was always a highly motivated and driven individual with a real passion for teaching, developing his own knowledge and, providing relevant learning experiences to the children he taught. Jonathan completed his training in two placement schools, one a High School with a sixth form centre as his main placement and a 13 – 18 Co-educational School for his second placement. These schools offered him a varied experience, particularly in relation to teaching approaches and behaviour of the children who attended the schools. Jonathan always challenged himself during the training year and was keen to take risks, try new ideas and continually challenge his practice, even when at times this was hard. He completed his teacher training year having achieved well and, more importantly, having been able to develop effective relationships quickly and easily with the children he taught. Jonathan was subsequently offered his first teaching post at the school in which he trained as his main placement and taught PE and Geography there for just over two years. He then successfully applied for an Assistant Head Teacher post in a Key Stage 3 Pupil Referral School, where he had been working for five months before circumstances led to him becoming an acting Head teacher of the school. Jonathan had been in this role for eight months and was aged thirty when he was interviewed for this study. The context in which Jonathan found himself at this time
was different for him on a number of levels, therefore his stories would be reflective of a time when he was new to a role with high levels of institutional responsibility and within a setting where the teaching approaches were both new to him and specific to meet the behaviour needs of the pupils he was teaching.

James

James was twenty-two when he began the teacher training course. He had taken his degree after completing A Levels and had been an undergraduate at the university in which he completed his PGCE teacher training course. He had been highly successful in his degree achieving First Class Honours Degree in Physical Education and Sports Studies and had gained significant relevant teaching experience prior to the course. James had a passion for rugby, enjoying both playing and coaching the game. James underwent his PGCE training during the 2011 – 2012 academic year and began his first placement in a large High School teaching the children in the 11 – 18 age range. He then went on to a second placement school, which was a High School and Sixth Form Centre, which had more challenging pupil behaviour than his first school. James’ academic abilities and experience with children stood him in good stead during his training year. James was also one of the trainees who actively took risks during his second placement and wrote two of these up as case studies, as part of a previous research venture, and to share with others. James completed his teacher training year successfully and went on to gain employment close to his home town in an 11 – 16 High School. The context in which James found himself comprised a PE department of experienced teachers, all but one other, a female PE teacher who he trained at the same institution with, who had been in post at his school for many years. Even though the school engaged with mentoring for teacher training in other departments, the PE department did not and therefore did not comprise any ITET mentors. James had worked in this school for four years as a teacher of PE and just prior to my contacting him about the research had made a conscious decision to leave this school without having gained alternative employment so that he could have the flexibility to follow alternative careers working with children, possibly teaching rugby. James had just less than two months remaining at the school he was teaching at when he was interviewed for this research and was aged twenty-six.
The situation for James I considered quite unique in that he had willingly created an uncertain career future for himself, one which he imagined would be better in many ways to that in which he currently found himself.

**Lizzie**

Like James, Lizzie had also completed her training year at the university where she had completed her undergraduate degree. She was twenty-two when she began the training year and had undertaken her degree from Sixth Form College. Lizzie had extremely high standards for herself and worked hard to achieve a First-Class Honours Degree in Physical Education and Sports Studies. Lizzie began training to be a teacher in September 2012 and aimed for the highest standards in her academic work, lesson planning and teaching. She completed her training in an 11 – 16 Community School and a 13 – 18 Co-educational High School. At times Lizzie found aspects of teaching challenging, not least because she set high expectations for herself. She was always motivated to provide the best learning experience for the children she taught and took risks within her teaching as one way to do this. Upon contacting Lizzie to take part in the research, she replied immediately and was very keen to be involved. I travelled to Lizzie’s school to conduct the interview and found her passion and motivation to be as strong as ever. When I interviewed Lizzie in May of 2016, she was twenty-three and it was her second year of teaching at the school. She described to me a large department that comprised colleagues who had been teaching PE at her school for many years. Other departments within the school engaged with mentoring for teacher training, however the PE department did not and therefore it did not comprise any ITET mentors. Lizzie openly voiced her disappointment at this as she was always keen and willing to explore new and fresh ideas that she thought training teachers may bring to the department. Despite few staff changes and promotion being rare internally to the school, when we met Lizzie had aspirations to apply for a promotion in the next year or so.
Helena

Helena was twenty-two when she completed her training year during the academic year 2012 – 2013 and followed the School Direct route. After completing her Physical Education and Coaching Science degree, securing a 2:1 classification, Helena took one year out before applying to teacher training. This year consisted of working as a coordinator of a local swim school followed by four months travelling in Asia. Her main placement school was an 11 – 16 Co-educational school. The School Direct Route, much like the GTP route necessitated greater experience with children prior to the start as trainees have to begin the school year able to fulfil teaching roles from early in September. This was in contrast to PGCE Core trainees who generally had a longer induction period. During the training year, Helena was keen to take risks to develop her practice and most valued learning in collaboration with other colleagues. Upon successful completion of the training year, Helena was appointed at the school where she trained and had been teaching there for two years when interviewed. Helena approached her role as a teacher always happy, smiling and willing to help others, it was, therefore, no surprise that when I contacted her to ask if she would be a participant in my research she happily and willingly agreed to this. The PE department at Helena’s school comprised both experienced, longstanding staff and also teachers early in their careers. The school and department had also been partners with local Higher Education establishments for many years, providing training placements for PE teachers following PGCE, GTP and School direct training routes. The department had worked with myself as a tutor for many years and were what I would term a ‘mentoring department,’ where each department member eligible to become a mentor had undergone mentor training, attended meetings and been involved in the design and development of the teacher training course at the institution in which Helena trained. Helena was twenty-five when she was interviewed and her interview was one of the latter ones conducted during October 2016, and she requested that it be at the school due to constraints on her time.

Jennifer, Joe and Sarah all trained in the same year of 2014 – 2015, they had been involved in a Students’ as Academic Partners research project with me during their training year. The research was participant action research with a technology-enhanced
learning theme. At times these trainees saw aspects of this project as a risk as they tried out Digital Apps, which were new to them, to enhance the learning experience for the children they taught. Jennifer, Joe and Sarah were all interviewed on the same day in University whilst they were on holiday from school in July 2016.

Jennifer

Jennifer completed her degree at the University in which she subsequently trained to teach on the PGCE Core route at the age of twenty-two. Her first degree was in Physical Education and Sports Studies and she had a significant amount of experience teaching and coaching children before she joined the course. Jennifer’s first placement school during her training year was a 13 – 18 High School and her second an 11 – 16 Co-education School. Throughout the training year Jennifer was rigorous in her approach to teaching and being highly personable she engaged well with the children she taught. She always strived to develop her practice and had a willingness to try new ideas and take risks. When interviewed Jennifer had just completed her NQT year in a co-educational 11-18 maintained selective grammar school. The school had, only the previous year become a partnership school for training teachers with the institute where Jennifer trained and the PE department, with its staff holding varied lengths of service and experience had one younger member of staff trained as an ITET mentor. Jennifer was twenty-three when she attended her interview for this research following what she described as a highly successful year at the school.

Joe

Joe began the PGCE Core route at the age of twenty-three having achieved a 2:1 degree in Sport and Physical Education, he had previous experience teaching and coaching children and had worked for a year as a teaching assistant. His first and second placements were in contrasting 13 – 18 Co-educational High Schools and he built upon his prior knowledge to complete a successful teacher training year. During the training year, Joe took risks particularly through using technology to enhance learning in his lessons. Joe went on to gain employment in a 13-18 Co-educational academy High
School and Sixth Form Centre and had completed his NQT year at this school before securing a new post in an 11 – 16 Co-educational High School. The school in which Joe had completed his NQT year, and where his stories of risk-taking emerged had a PE department with staff who had varied experience and length of service teaching. Those experienced colleagues had been teaching in the department for a number of years and were mentors for the ITET course at the Institute where Joe trained. They, therefore, had members of the department who were trained as ITET mentors. Joe was twenty-five when he was interviewed and his interview took place during the summer holidays before he started his new job. Joe was very excited and looking forward to the prospect of teaching in a different school.

Sarah

Like many of the other participants, Sarah completed her degree at the University in which she subsequently trained to teach on the PGCE core route. She always demonstrated a conscientious and hardworking attitude towards her studies, which secured her a first-class degree in Physical Education and Sports Studies. Sarah was twenty-four when she trained to teach and she had worked for 4 years as a Teaching Assistant within a PE department at a secondary school local to the university in which she trained. During this time, she developed the skills needed to prepare her for the teacher training course such as behaviour management skills and lesson structure and content. Sarah was also given time to develop her teaching within a classroom environment on GCSE and BTEC Sport courses. During her training year, Sarah’s placement schools included an 11 – 18 High School with sixth form and a 13 – 18 Catholic High School. During the training year, Sarah continued to apply herself to teaching with the highest levels of motivation and aspiration to become an excellent teacher. Upon completing the training year, Sarah secured employment in a partnership 13 – 18 Co-educational High School where she had just completed a highly successful NQT year. Much like Helen’s school, the school and department had been in partnership with local Higher Education establishments for many years, providing training placements for PE teachers following PGCE, GTP and School direct training routes. This department had worked with me as a tutor for many years and was a ‘mentoring department,’ where
each department member eligible to become a mentor had undergone mentor training, attended meetings and been involved in the design and development of the teacher training course at the institution in which Sarah trained. Further to this, Sarah’s school was also unique in that all but one of the seven staff in the PE department had trained at the same institution as Sarah, and for five of them, I had been their ITET tutor in University. Sarah was twenty-seven when she was interviewed for this research.

**Luke**

Luke began the PGCE core training year at the age of twenty-two. He had achieved a 2:1 degree in Sport, Physical Education and Coaching Science and entered the course with high levels of critical self-reflection upon his teaching experiences and practices. Luke completed two highly successful placements, one at an 11 – 16 Co-educational Community School and the other at a 12 – 18 High School and was the first person on the course that year to secure employment at an 11 – 18 Co-educational Academy and Technology College. His subject knowledge and understanding of teaching early on during the course indicated that he would become an outstanding teacher and that he would rise to any challenges that presented themselves. He regularly challenged his practice and frequently took risks to develop his teaching and the learning of pupils. Following a highly successful NQT and first year of teaching, it came as no surprise that Luke had gained promotion and held responsibility for A Level PE development within his employing school. Luke described his department as having teachers with a range of experiences and lengths of service but with each teacher continually striving to improve and develop their practice and share their experiences. Luke’s department engaged as mentors for teacher training but at a different institute to the one where Luke trained. Luke was twenty-four when he interviewed at his school in November 2016.

**Nathan**

Nathan was twenty-eight when he embarked on the School Direct route to teacher training having gained a degree in Sport and Exercise Science. He was one of the more mature trainees on the course at the time as typically most training PE teacher would
begin the training year soon after completion of their degree. Nathan completed his degree at the institution in which he did his teacher training year but prior to this spent time working as a personal trainer at a Health and Fitness club, and as an athletics coach. He entered the course having gained experience observing and teaching children in school and his personal drive and motivation were clear from the outset. His main placement school was an 11–16 Co-educational School with an 11–18 Co-educational School and Language college for his second placement. Nathan completed the training year having become a highly successful and independently thinking teacher, part of his success was due to the ease in which he gained pupil respect and built effective and positive relationships with the children he taught. He continually challenged his practice taking risks to develop his teaching knowledge further. Nathan secured a teaching post towards the latter stages of the course in an 11–16 Mixed Academy School and had been in position for two months when he was interviewed in October 2016 at the age of twenty-nine. Nathan described his department as small and young, i.e. the three staff, including himself were all early to teaching, including the head of department. Luke felt that this had its advantages as they were a close department who engaged in frequent discussion and dialogue about pupil learning.

Thank you for taking the time to do this interview. So, to begin, if you think back to your training year, what do you remember about taking risks?

I think there was a focus within seminars and there was a couple of options where you gave us ideas that provoked thought on taking risks in physical education. That was in both the theory and practical if I remember correctly, and the course gave us ideas for us to take away and to try out in our practice in our placement schools. More towards, second placement, I really took it on board. First placement it was more about getting to grips with everything else whereas second placement we discussed about taking risks. I think one of the things for me, I would say a risk was with learning different types of lessons in the seminars like the TEEP cycle that we learnt. Which I would consider a risk with certain groups as it is very student led and aims to get their attention and involves, I suppose, the teachers having to consolidate after the learning episodes. And that is something I tried in my second placement and something that I use to this day with A level and GCSE and in the teaching and learning reviews in the department it’s something that I have put across and other people have taken on board, so I think the university gave us that platform, here’s ideas, and it was open to interpretation, so thinking how would I apply that. University allowed us and almost opened the door for taking risks, it gave us some ideas to scaffold our practice over the training year and we took it on board and that active cycle, TEEP cycle was one I took on board.

Yes, so how would you define risk?

I think in the training year my first understanding of risk was to prevent someone from getting injured. But once you take that step back from it, it’s not, it’s a pedagogical risk, in the way that you’re not, well you are in control of the learning pathway and the opportunities for learners to go off task, I don’t know, misconceptions of the content, or not fully understand or don’t consolidate well enough. I think risk for me at the time had the immediate connotations of health and safety but then, I suppose in the training year the risk was disorganisation, I suppose how I would have looked at it in the lesson. It’s not going how I want it to go and when I am not fully in control of the learning episodes that are taking place as there has to be something else going on for it to be risky, I think. Or a risk in the lesson there has to be some aspect where you are not really in control of the lesson, I think, at the time, it was all about, risk to me was about a disorganised lesson, and how it looked, to the person who was observing the lesson.

Ok, so did you plan to take risks at that time?

Yes, I did, I think I was systematic about doing a risky lesson, I discussed it with my mentor who was xx at xxx [placement school] and obviously he was very supportive of it, he was almost ‘let’s go through it and see how the class react, we’ve planned it’, we had got things in place that are going to help me negate potential issues with the risky
pedagogy, but my mentor was always very supportive and I think without that, I would question whether as a trainee I would have taken that risk.

**So, without the support of the mentor?**

Yes, I guess, it’s a different type of relationship because as a trainee you want to impress that one person the most and if the lesson doesn’t go well it’s a reflection on you, it’s not a good thing. So, if you planned a lesson that was a risk and didn’t go well you are more worried about what that person might write down in that observation than, I guess now in my position it’s more your time in your lessons you plan a risk and it doesn’t go 100%, you are more reflective upon that and make changes for the next lesson, without that almost external view on it. I think that one thing about your training year you could put off from doing risky episodes in your lessons or different things involved with taking risks just in case it goes wrong. I guess it’s about having the confidence and support around you that allows you to take that risk and that is the good thing.

**And you felt that you had that during the training year?**

Yes definitely, when I was teaching it was modelled as well sometimes and it doesn’t always go to plan, and that’s what you learn very quickly in your NQT year, that’s the way it goes, it’s just having the skill set to reflect upon.

**So, since you have moved into school, have you taken risks and carried that forward?**

Yes, I think so; I think I’ve built on it as well, and I’ve suggested that you are by yourself taking these risks and... it’s just trying different things, at this school I’ve had, when we came back in September two weeks off extracurricular where we are free from three until four fifteen it’s just meetings sometimes it’s just meetings about a different topic around pedagogy for improving our teaching and learning. So, the school I am in has definitely helped that, in the way of the nature of the school it’s more about teaching and learning and a move away from traditional approaches I think. I am lucky in this institution they are into new things; they don’t want to just see the same things going on in lessons. They want to see for example, active pupil learning, where for example some sort of formative assessment occurs in the lesson, but it’s not just box ticking the formative assessment should change the flight path of the lesson and a lot of it is dependent on the data that comes out of that. So, after formative assessment then the pupils then always decide what’s going to happen so you would see what’s happened. I have done a freeze frame, so this group has got three key teaching points and on the first challenging learning objective that group have got that spot on and the other group haven’t so that group would go one way and the other group go a different way but what we have done here is allow themselves to be reflective and to choose the next stage of the lesson. It is as simple as; here is a resource you might have, here is a wipe board, if you want to design a resource for the next part of your lesson. So that is the options for that group and for this group here it is more of a scaffold of their ability task, they are in control of what they do and I would consider that a risk in that that group would go off and design something that could be towards that net wall objective. It could
be towards the first objective, putting them under competitive pressure, whatever they want to do, and that group would do something different whereas traditionally, fantastic, formative assessment, everybody knows, whereas taking risks this is going here and this is going there and it is almost down to them, with pupil lead active phases of the lesson, which I consider a risk for myself?

Why would that be a risk?

I know the outcome, I just don’t know how they are going to get to the outcome, because that’s on them and it could be going so many different ways that it is risky because I could let them control that learning process and it could be in the wrong direction. So, it’s really down to the practitioner to reflect in action on what is happening and if you do see a misconception as a result of the activity you have to address it. Which is risky because if you miss a trick or focus on this part and they are doing something different trying to get to that outcome, when are they going to get there? Which is the big question? You would hope that they would do what you have put into play. But potentially if they are going in their own direction, if they have not understood the task well then, it’s about your clarity of instruction so are they going to get what they should out of that part of the lesson?

So how have you found that has gone? Has it always worked?

No, it hasn’t always worked, I think at the start taking if we should call it a risk, I think I over protected the risk, in the way that I was conscious that yes, I am trying this, it is new to myself and new to the department and I imagine not many practitioners have attempted this. I always bubble wrapped it a bit, and with the groups that I couldn’t really trust, or would find it difficult to have that freedom, I almost over-scaffolded it, for example when I think about, was it basketball, yes, quite a few did a self-assessment for 30 seconds, and if you they thought they were green, they would get this resource, and this ball, and it was quite a nice intro into helping them to become reflective and what I did was benchmark it. So, if let’s say they lost the ball twice then I might suggest that they get this one [resource]. But I suppose it detracted from what I wanted to do, but you know, they are creatures of habit and have to be conditioned into it, don’t they?

Yes, that’s right.

It allows them to be a bit more open in the way that, back to formative assessing episodes, with a year 8 class that I teach, it’s like a one to one. We will do something really basic, formatively assess it and its open ended, with a focus so like ‘use a range of passes in basketball’ that’s their focus and they have to design an activity that is going to contain that learning objective. And then have a learning check that links back that to that so looking at the passes, fantastic, off you go. It has been designed by themselves and has been designed by themselves.
So, have you built up a routine with this group? In relation to the risk of getting them to design their own activities to meet the learning outcome, giving more choice and options?

Yes, I think you have to, because I always think that if you got observed and did something completely new, the learners would be like ‘What’s this?’ [Both laugh]. It would be very transparent to the observer that they don’t do this all of the time. So I think that taking risks in class, it has to be built in to it to have that freedom of choice. The class I have now are open to new ideas, they are open to what they consider, is it freedom? They consider they are in control of their learning process but to me it is just calculated risk that yes you can have that. They are open to it now but at the start they were a bit like, ‘What is going on? Tell us what to do? Why aren’t you telling me what to do?’ It is just getting them out of that thought process I think, and with that group as well, I guess they are a group when you can try stuff out. And that group are all going to take GCSE next year and I have tried different things, for example a time line as part of the lesson, so for example if that was lesson one of the week, I would put on the board a timeline with a student led warm up, and I put the timeline that that is going to happen to, and so I would have for example this part is teacher time, and that’s how I started lesson one. So, as they come in they had to look at the board and could see how the lesson was working out.

So, you showed them a visual of how the lesson was going to pan out really?

Yes, that was like I say the first 10 minutes and then I took them back to what we had been doing, giving them that introduction. So, the second lesson I would just make them aware of what to expect. And there were other times when I would let them know what was happening on the board and the students were really interesting to see they were switched on and would be looking at the clock. So, at 10 o’clock they would be looking at the board and see they had some form of formative assessment and then that choice again of what they were going to do. So, they would have until say 10.20 to design something and when that’d done they come back in. Again, it’s just getting them into the habit. I saw that as a risk, in case anything goes wrong, yes you can scaffold it, but it’s risky saying ‘there is your lesson, off you go.’ I have put the time in to plan different resources yes there is teacher input with the small interventions but it’s pretty much on them to manage their own time and they get on with the activities, formatively assess, reflection as well with progress against the leaning objectives. I wonder how well that would be received if you were a trainee and you rocked up with this, unless you had a mentor who is open to this sort of thing, I don’t know how it would be received, if you were in a different school they would be like ‘What is that all about?’

I think it is a great idea.

I am fortunate in the way that if my head of department walked into my lesson she would be like ‘wow that is fantastic’ but we are at that point in our department where everyone is trying new things and doing different things to learn from each other. If you were in a placement school that was maybe a bit more traditional or had I guess
different types of children that would be interesting. Could you do that with a class who you didn’t have trust in. But as a practitioner you would need to build that trust up with the class and I think I have got to that point with my groups.

**So, what impact do you think that lesson had upon the learning?**

The first time I did it, if you took a step away from it, was there was progress towards the learning objectives as explicit as to start with? But then if you delve down actually into the lesson, you have students who are taking the lead, in their learning activities, we have got that conscientious approach to learning, we’ve got them reflecting on their progress we’ve got formative assessment that is pupil led, we’ve got differentiation which occurs through the tasks and each is scaffolded by the teacher. So, at a superficial level, did they move towards their learning objectives as quickly, I guess, probably not? But once you consider that lesson and how in future lessons they would respond to ‘Ok, here is your resource’ then yes it was tenfold. It was just the demands on the learner in that lesson and the challenges explicit throughout, rather than the challenge being now your cones are two meters further apart, the idea with that is that it is a challenge. In your training year you would do that.

Yes, that would be a simple differentiation strategy but what you are saying here is that the learners learnt far more, even about life skills than the outcomes that were set?

I struggle to formulate learning objectives for everything that might come out of a lesson. You would have to have about 10 [both laugh] on top, they are still learning and that is the main thing.

Yes

I think it was a basketball lesson where I was fortunate to be inside where you can try loads of different things. It was a shooting lesson in basketball, I think, and it is like having all of the right ingredients for the lesson. I sometimes thing that the teacher is like the chef where they put all of their good ingredients in and it’s how they are put together. But it’s almost like the ingredients are there but it is on them and how they take to it. Also, the power of groupings had to come through that as well, where you would need to have strong leaders in each group. Is it in literature, the hidden curriculum where they would suggest additional things come through in those type of lessons?

Yes. I just wanted to go back to something you said earlier about you selected that group, so how would you select groups or pupils you would take risks with?

I think as far as the groups go, I think you have to select, I think that every group has the potential to have a go. I wouldn’t sit here and say you couldn’t do this with that group, maybe its year 11 and its core PE would I put a time line on the board? Probably not [laughs]. But as far as key stage 3 go and year 10 then unless they are, I don’t think
there’s a group you couldn’t do it with, it would depend how prepared you are as a teacher to put the time in to condition those groups. I guess the shortfall is that you are more likely to pick a group that you have the best relationship with and who are the better and more conscientious learners. It is about the time, and there isn’t a group that you couldn’t do that with if you condition them. So, for example, if you say learners will peer coach, you have to put things into place for them to have those skills to teach for example a set shot. Even for those who are less able or who are SEN you still can teach them ‘this is how you coach this aspect of that’ and you build it into that. But from a realistic professional point of view, would I use risk with every class? Probably not because there are times when you have to be teacher led because they off task too much. When I reflect on my own practice now it is a downward spiral that the less time you put into taking risks, the learners become more dependent and it goes down again and you have to have more input. When actually, if you start at this point, give them more freedom with that risk to make choices could potentially go in either direction, but as a teacher now you have so many constraints on your time that it takes time to plan the risks.

So, this leads to one of the questions I was going to ask about barriers and constraints to risk taking, you said restrictions of time may be one of them?

Yes, I think resources is a massive barrier to risk taking and the time of year. For a practical it is something that is completely overlooked, so for example between December and February if you are teaching outside learning and teaching is bound to suffer. Because there is no way that you can do certain things, like you do with shot-putt, or tennis that you could do playing rugby. It is a different ball game and you have to recognise that, if the heating goes off at school and it is below 2 degrees, then everyone goes home and if you are on the field and its 2 degrees, then the kids are on the field in t-shirts and how can you expect them as learners to be that on board with what we are trying to teach them. You have to be realistic.

So that is more about keeping them warm and [together] their basic needs.

It’s like if they haven’t had a drink for three days, if it’s minus 2 and you are on the field, you have to take that into consideration. So, the weather is definitely a constraint. I think, professional socialisation is massive, so I think would I be doing that if the head of department didn’t want me to?

Yes, can you just expand on what you mean by professional socialisation?

I think you, and what literature would suggest is that you adapt your teaching and it is reflective of almost what is going on around you because that is the nature of people and socialisation. The head of department I would suggest is a role model and a significant other and if you see them doing things and not taking risks then it is very one directional and restrictive teaching. That is the standard, and especially as an NQT coming from PGCE year, from a very open to professional socialisation I think in a way that you would almost be a chameleon and fit in with what is going on around you. I
think here, since all of the changes have gone on, we are very transparent and do discuss things and we have teaching and learning reviews within our department and within all of our performance management it is all transparent so if you say this is what you will see, they will observe against that. We set personal goals and the ethos of the school is so transparent that professional socialisation is helping you take your career wherever you wish to and take your teaching further, and the CPD that is on offer so as a result of that is that teachers do take risks.

So, it’s your own personal, individual decision?

Yes.

So, are you allowed times of reflection for that?

They don’t build in time to be reflective, I think the type of school this is, they don’t employ people who aren’t reflective on their lessons, you find time. Everything is developmental and you get pointers to take your teaching further. I would say there is an extra tension, I think from the school that you are reflective on your lessons but if you are aiming to be an outstanding practitioner, you have to be reflective anyway. I was fortunate enough to be employed at a school where their results are the top performing of non-selective schools. The quality of teaching around you is good to see. People go around school to different schools, do different talks and offering advice on practice, there is so much here that I can just steal almost and use in my own lessons. I think being reflective is a professional responsibility of the individual, yes, it is an expectation but to progress you would need to be reflective. I teach a year 9 group, the new spec, on Tuesday, where I teach year 9 exactly the same lesson on Friday. Those two lessons, yes, they are similar but they are taught in so many different ways just because I am reflective. But I think that is the individual point rather than the expectation. If someone asked you, ‘What did you do that for? Why did you do that? I think you would be expected to say ‘I did this because… and I will do that next time.’ But I think that is just because of the teachers who are around us really.

So, this school has given opportunities or not put up barriers to you taking risks? So, have they influenced you to take risks?

I think so, they haven’t said ‘don’t take risks’ I think it is that ethos that is created that you don’t feel you are being judged against anything, you’re obviously judged against your performance management data and if that isn’t good enough you would be asked about it. I think you are asked to set goals and take risks outside of that but if you do something absolutely ridiculously random, then you would be asked ‘what are you doing that for?’ They want you to have a purpose but I think the ethos of the school allows you to try different things and speak to different practitioners about it and be transparent about your practice. Thinking of the PE department, subject specific, then none of us would have issues with observing each other. One of the NQT’s regularly observes my GCSE lessons, she will just come in and I might say ‘This might not go very well,’ maybe I am trying the TEEP cycle or active learning, maybe they are playing each other and are
reflecting on something, it might not go very well but she will say ‘it sounds great.’ That is a good atmosphere to be in. I wouldn’t want to be in another one, and if I were to get a position of responsibility in another school and I was a head of department then I would want things to be the same.

**Ok, so do you think what you did on the training year has influenced you in the type of risks you have taken as you have continued through NQT and Year 1?**

Yes, I think I did. I think it did all start in the PGCE year, one thing I have used is the TEEP cycle with theory lessons because it allows you to do that. It did open the door to what risk taking is and I think there were lots of ideas but then again it is down to you as a practitioner to put that in practice and expand what you know. I think it definitely gave the baseline to taking risks, I doubt if I would be doing these things if I hadn’t have had the input from the course.

**Ok, so we have talked about influences on taking risks. How do you feel overall about teachers taking risks?**

I think, I wouldn’t say it is a necessity, I think if a situation allows you to do it then there are really different ways to take a lesson. I think if you can take risks it allows different types of development, I would suggest that the Active TEEP cycle has more scope for that [learning] stickability and that retention, but I think teachers taking risks and doing different things rather than being prescriptive and teacher led I think it is a positive and you should attempt to do it and as a professional you want to improve your practice and risks are how you develop. It gives you a chance to have some certainty on your own practice you are almost heightens your awareness to reflection, if you do not then you be wondering what to do next time. The learners receive benefits from it as it is holistic all towards the curriculum, which obviously it should be geared towards. The learning objectives and it is really down to personal preference with the teaching.

**What you said, it heightens your awareness to reflection, can you expand a little on that?**

It’s like sometimes you go to a lesson and you’ve not really invested in the lesson and you know it’s not going to be a very good lesson because you haven’t had time to plan it or you have been on a fixture, or you have had to mark assessments, or whatever is going on. You are almost like, let’s just get through the lesson because you know what to do. I have done this many times and I don’t really need to think about it, I’ll ask these questions to differentiate. Whereas there are other types of lesson where you are out of your comfort zone, so naturally you are thinking ‘why did they choose that,’ ‘what made them make that decision, what influenced that decision?’ You allow progress and facilitate more progress, I think you are more inclined to be more reflective of something when you are a bit on edge, or have that, well it’s not really, but anxiety of teaching a risk, it’s almost thinking ‘this could go anywhere’ because of what I have done. I remember a classroom where I was Maths teaching, I had half of the class out of their seats and with that information it’s like ‘what’s going on?’ So, I think you are more
switched on than ‘turn to page 24’ and everyone is sat down. Taking risks allows you just to improve your practice and be reflective on action and in action of what has actually occurred, you have to be more switched on, and it means that you don’t always do the same thing.

We have covered everything from me, we have heard your story. Is there anything else that you think may be useful or important to take back into the PGCE course based upon your knowledge and experience?

I think, presenting them with the challenges of taking risks to the trainees, also the clear advantages of taking risks. Even having it on their timetable ‘risk taking’ Making sure that it is a viable option and bringing it to life with stories. You know, like this is what someone has done and it has worked for them. If I get observed, I usually use some sort of risk, there has to be, the TEEP cycle, and freeze framing, where it is like different things that we do. I have never had a bad observation when I do these things so it is like bringing them to life to the PGCE student. I think we did have a variety of things to choose from and a variety of things for taking risks, so lots of ideas. People find themselves comfortable with different things. I found myself comfortable with doing TEEP cycle and researcher tasks and this may not be the same for everyone so different types of ideas. I think it would be interesting to see the relationship between the mentor and the student and the level of risk that is taken and then to see what the PGCE mentor’s thoughts on taking risks were. And if they have been teaching, for example 3 years, are they still taking risks? In 5 years, are they still taking risks? Are there other things going on? Have they got different responsibilities in the school? Are they traditional? It would be interesting to see chronologically who takes risks as they go into their career.

Ok, thank you for your time.
Appendix 10: Ethical Approval

Application for Ethical Approval (Student)

To be completed by students proposing to undertake ANY research involving humans [that is research with living human beings; human beings who have died (cadavers, human remains and body parts); embryos and foetuses, human tissue, DNA and bodily fluids; data and records relating to humans; human burial sites] or animals.

Section A: Researcher and Project Details

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Student:</strong></th>
<th>Kerry Whitehouse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Email:</strong></td>
<td><a href="mailto:k.whitehouse@worc.ac.uk">k.whitehouse@worc.ac.uk</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Institute:</strong></td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student status:</strong></td>
<td>Professional Doctorate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supervisor/Tutor/Module leader:</strong></td>
<td>Maggi Savin-Baden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Project Title:</strong></td>
<td>An exploration into the impact of the Risk-Taking PD programme undertaken by physical education trainee teachers during their training year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Project funding:</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section B: Checklist

1. Does your proposed research involve the collection of data from human participants?  
   - Yes [x]  
   - No [ ]

2. Does your proposed research require access to secondary data or documentary material of a sensitive or confidential nature from other organisations?  
   - Yes [ ]  
   - No [x]

3. Does your proposed research involve the use of data or documentary material which (a) is not anonymised and (b) is of a sensitive or confidential nature and (c) relates to the living or recently deceased?  
   - Yes [x]  
   - No [ ]

4. Does your proposed research involve participants who are particularly vulnerable or unable to give informed consent?  
   - Yes [x]  
   - No [ ]

5. Will your proposed research require the co-operation of a gatekeeper for initial access to the groups or individuals to be recruited?  
   - Yes [ ]  
   - No [x]

6. Will financial inducements be offered to participants in your proposed research beyond reasonable expenses and/or compensation for time?  
   - Yes [ ]  
   - No [x]

7. Will your proposed research involve collection of data relating to sensitive topics?  
   - Yes [x]  
   - No [ ]

8. Is pain or discomfort likely to result from your proposed research?  
   - Yes [x]  
   - No [ ]

9. Could your proposed research induce psychological stress or anxiety or cause harm or negative consequences beyond the risks encountered in normal life?  
   - Yes [x]  
   - No [ ]

10. Will it be necessary for participants to take part in your proposed research without their knowledge and consent at the time?  
    - Yes [x]  
    - No [ ]

11. Does your proposed research involve deception?  
    - Yes [ ]  
    - No [x]

12. Will your proposed research require the gathering of information about unlawful activity?  
    - Yes [x]  
    - No [ ]

13. Will invasive procedures be part of your proposed research?  
    - Yes [ ]  
    - No [x]

14. Will your proposed research involve prolonged, high intensity or repetitive testing?  
    - Yes [x]  
    - No [ ]

15. Does your proposed research involve the testing or observation of animals?  
    - Yes [x]  
    - No [ ]

16. Does your proposed research involve collection of DNA, cells, tissues or other samples from humans or animals?  
    - Yes [ ]  
    - No [x]

17. Does your proposed research involve human remains?  
    - Yes [x]  
    - No [ ]

18. Does your proposed research involve human burial sites?  
    - Yes [x]  
    - No [ ]

19. Will the proposed data collection in part or in whole be undertaken outside the UK?  
    - Yes [ ]  
    - No [x]

20. Does your proposed research involve NHS patients, staff or premises?  
    - Yes [x]  
    - No [ ]
If the answers to any of these questions change during the course of your research, you must alert your Supervisor/Tutor/Module Leader immediately.

Signatures

By signing below we declare that we have answered the questions above honestly and to the best of our knowledge:

**Student:**

Date: 14th February 2016

**Supervisor/Tutor/Module Leader**

Date: 15/2/16

If you have answered NO to all questions you should now submit this form to your Institute Ethics Coordinator.

If you have answered YES to one or more questions you must now complete Section C (below) and submit to your Supervisor/Tutor/Module Leader, unless you have answered yes to q.20. In this case you should first contact Dr John-Paul Wilson (j.wilson@worc.ac.uk) to discuss whether you will need to submit to NHS ethical approval processes.
Details of the research

Outline the context and rationale for the research, the aims and objectives of the research and the methods of data collection

For the past five years, as a teacher educator, I have offered an optional professional development (PD) programme for training physical education teachers. This PD programme was entitled ‘Taking risks to develop practice’ and developed in terms of content and structure over five years. For the purpose of this research it will be called the Risk-Taking PD programme. The aims of the programme were to challenge trainee teachers to continue to develop when they became competent in their teaching. The inspiration for the Risk-Taking PD programme emerged from one of the Ofsted descriptors for outstanding practice, where trainees ‘take risks when trying to make teaching interesting, are able to deal with the unexpected and grab the moment’ (Ofsted 2008, p. 1). The Risk-Taking PD programme focused upon supporting trainee teachers to reflect upon problems in their teaching or professional learning and challenge their routines and practices, taking a risk when trying something new and different to develop practice further (Clarke et al 2012). This notion of challenging their routines and practices will be referred to as a professional risk.

The Risk-Taking PD programme encouraged trainees to work at times independently, and also to engage with peers, school mentors and other colleagues, encouraging sharing of ideas and discussion of problems. Trainees who engaged with the programme experienced positive benefits in developing professional knowledge and enhancing pupil learning, they completed the course gaining high outcomes and were the first to secure employment (Clarke et al 2012). This programme offered opportunities for training teachers to work within the realms of uncertainty and contingency, whereby the outcome could not be predicted with certainty, encouraging them to problematise their own practice, to focus not only on the what and how of practice but also on the why, and, to systematically develop skills of critical and reflective practice. All of which are elements of practice that have been arguably lacking in both teacher training and professional development (Capel and Blair 2007a, Chappell 2014, Kelly et al 2000, Williams 2012).

This programme has been delivered to around 100 physical education trainees in one HEI since 2010, many of whom chose to follow the reflective process and take professional risks to develop their practice. Some trainees wrote case studies of their experiences to help course tutors conceptualise the process of risk-taking (Clarke et al 2012), with others sharing their experiences with tutors and peers or reflecting upon them within written evaluations of practice. Trainees who chose to take professional risks told stories of their successes and have now been teaching in schools for between one and five years. Examples of professional risk taking have included;

- giving pupils greater responsibility to be independent in their lessons through use of a sport education approach to teaching team games
- learning how to dissect a heart in order to teach a GCSE class of disaffected boys about structure and function of the heart and the impact of physical activity on the heart

- leading on wider professional responsibilities with the trainee delivering an assembly about the war in Afghanistan

- using new technologies, including Apps and performance evaluation software to enhance learning

Rationale for the Study

This Risk-Taking PD programme appears to support the development of practice for trainee PE teachers, having a positive impact upon pupil learning and professional development. However, much of this evidence is anecdotal, stemming from conversations, written stories, practice evaluations and course evaluations. The continuation of the programme and its underpinning aims; to reflect upon problems in practice, to challenge routines and practices and, to take risks when trying something new and different to develop practice further, once teachers begin teaching in schools, has yet to be explored. If the Risk-Taking PD programme is to continue and develop further then evidence of its impact and longer term relevance in schools will be both useful and necessary. This study is therefore important because new knowledge will be found that will inform the existing programme and inform future policy and practice about initial teacher education PD programmes for physical education teachers. Likewise, insights from a methodological approach, of narrative inquiry, that has had limited application in the context of physical education (Schafer 2013, Casey and Schafer 2016) may offer a different and useful viewpoint.

Research Aim:

This research intends to explore the impact of the Risk-Taking PD programme undertaken by physical education trainee teachers from one HEI during their teacher training year. It seeks to offer insights into both the future of the Risk-Taking PD programme and Physical Education Teacher Education Programmes.

This study seeks to:

- Explore the participants’ experiences of the Risk-Taking PD programme and the impact of this on their own professional development

- Present narrative accounts that illustrate the value and influence of the Risk-Taking PD programme on practice during the training year and once teaching in schools
- Examine the participants’ reflections of the influences on professional risk taking once in a school setting

- Examine participants’ perspectives about the notion of professional risk

**Methodology**

This research will use narrative inquiry, which is a way of understanding human lives and experiences and considers these to be important knowledge (Clandinin 2013). ‘It records human experiences through the construction and reconstruction of personal stories’ (Mertoova and Webster 2009: p. 16) and explores the social, cultural, familial and institutional narratives within which individual’s experiences are shaped (Clandinin 2013). This methodology argues that it is important to situate both the researcher’s and participants’ meanings and experiences centrally and acknowledge that the stories of each will have an impact on the other.

**Participants**

**Type of Sampling:**

A purposive sample (Flick 2014) will be adopted because the research is exploring the experiences of a particular group of people who engaged with the Risk-Taking PD programme. In aiming to explore the impact of this programme the participants need to have undertaken the programme to have the understanding necessary. Flick (2014) asserts that qualitative research may select participants if their views are meaningful and they have the necessary knowledge and experience for answering the questions posed during interview.

**Rationale for sample size:**

Participants will include 8 secondary school physical education teachers who have been teaching in schools for between two and five years. It is intended to recruit one male and one female participant from each year and attempt to reflect, as far as possible, a range of contexts (state / private / academy status schools PGCE / GTP / School Direct). This research intends to consider the depth of experience from this sample rather than breadth, and is therefore more concerned with the honesty and trustworthiness of the findings. Such trustworthiness will be gained by conducting verification interviews whereby participants can provide confirmation of the stories to be reported (Webster and Mertoova 2007). The sample size, due to the depth of detail intended to be gained from interview, alongside verification of the stories, is therefore considered to be appropriate to the qualitative nature of this research.

**Data Collection**
In the first instance, participants will be asked to complete a critical event time line (Mertova and Webster 2009) (Appendix 1) which will enable them to consider and plot visually critical events related to taking professional risks in their practice prior to interview. A critical event is defined as ‘an event selected because of its unique, illustrative and confirmatory nature’ (Mertova and Webster 2009 p. 79). Other events with significance, including ‘like events’ and ‘other events’ will also be considered from the narrative as they intuitively inform the critical events. Following this, participants will undergo a face-to-face narrative interview which will be based upon their personal critical event time line. Alongside the critical event time line participants may wish to include written field notes or a collection of artifacts that may be bought to interview, these will form the basis for discussion of the narrative interview.

Analysis and Interpretation

Each personal narrative will be thematically analysed as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006). This has the advantage of providing a flexible research tool and framework in which narrative inquiry analysis can be developed, to provide rich, detailed and complex data. It also offers clear and concise guidelines for thematic analysis, thus addressing the ‘anything goes’ critique of such research (Braun and Clarke 2006). I will immerse myself in the data to become familiar with its breadth and content, following the phases of:

Phase 1 – familiarisation with data
Phase 2 – generating initial codes
Phase 3 – searching for themes
Phase 4 – reviewing themes
Phase 5 – defining and naming themes
Phase 6 – producing the report
(Braun and Clarke 2006).

The report phase will begin with a ‘narrative sketch’ (Connelly and Clandinin 1990) of each participant as a short descriptive literary sketch of their personal narrative, followed by an analytical report of the thematic analysis related to the research questions.

Once themes have been reviewed, a narrative sketch will be written and themes analysed. In order to ensure honesty, dependability and trustworthiness, a participant validation interview will be elicited so as to verify how true a reflection the narrative sketch and analysis is of their experiences. Participants will be asked to offer additions and amendments if deemed necessary that will be analyses further prior to writing the final report.

Who are your participants/subjects? (if applicable)
N = 8 secondary school early career phase physical education teachers (years 2 – 5). These comprise a purposive sample (Flick 2014) of teachers who engaged with the Risk-Taking PD programme in one institution. The sample will reflect a range of contexts as far as possible (male / female, state / private / academy status schools PGCE / GTP. Year 2, 3, 4, 5). All participants completed their training year at the same university and were tutored by the researcher.

**How do you intend to recruit your participants? (if applicable)**
This should explain the means by which participants in the research will be recruited. If any incentives and/or compensation (financial or other) is to be offered to participants, this should be clearly explained and justified.

Participants are already known by the researcher and thus will be contacted directly via email. No incentives or compensation will be offered to participants; however, the benefits of the outcomes of the research and also the potential risks or discomforts will be clearly outlined through participant information and informed consent (Appendix 2), participants will be informed that participation is totally voluntary and that if they do take part in the research they are free to withdraw at any time, even following the final write up of their narrative sketch (BERA 2011).

**How will you gain informed consent/assent? (if applicable)**
Where you will provide an information sheet and/or consent form, please append this. If you are undertaking a deception study or covert research please outline how you will debrief participants below.

Informed consent will be gained sending the consent form for consideration electronically; this will clarify confidentiality, anonymity data storage and disposal, as outlined below. Cohen et al (2010) argue three main ethical considerations for interviewing: informed consent, confidentiality and the consequences of the interviews. All participants will be given the opportunity to make an informed decision on whether they wish to take part in the research, for which clear and detailed information about the research outlining purpose, assurance of confidentiality and secure storage, anonymity and confirmation that participation is voluntary (Burton et al 2014) will be provided (Appendix 2). As participants are teachers, it is assumed that they will all have the ability to read and understand information outlining written informed consent; however, a clear layout, appropriate language, appropriate font size and the opportunity to clarify questions with the researcher will all be made available to ensure consent is fully informed.

**Confidentiality, anonymity, data storage and disposal (if applicable)**

Provide explanation of any measures to preserve confidentiality and anonymity of data, including specific explanation of data storage and disposal plans.

Data protection is an essential consideration (Thompson and Walker 2010) and the following measures will attempt to ensure that this research will protect anonymity of participants. Interview transcripts will only be identifiable by the researcher and
will be allocated an identification number. No link will be made to participants or the name of the school in which they are teaching. Data will also be checked to ensure that transcripts of interviews do not identify individuals; this will be removed where possible and pseudonyms used. Data will remain confidential with all participants being anonymous and names replaced with pseudonyms.

All data and transcripts will be stored in a locked filing cabinet or on a password protected memory device, and stored for up to ten years, and then destroyed.

Potential risks to participants/subjects (if applicable)

Identify any risks for participants/subjects that may arise from the research and how you intend to mitigate these risks.

The first consideration relates to the purposive sample (Flick 2014) of participants, all being teachers who were trained on the same teacher training course by the researcher, and who engaged with the Risk-Taking PD programme during their training year, thus deeming them able to provide useful data. Ethical considerations may be evident as the researcher was responsible for participant’s assessments during the training year, therefore leading to the possibility of power differentials or imbalance (Moore 2012; Burton et al 2014) between researcher and participants. Even though the researcher is no longer responsible for any quality or assessment judgments, it is imperative that democratic relations exist between participants and that the researcher’s views do not hold precedence over the views of the participants (Cohen et al 2010). Sensitivities to this will be considered along with potential anxieties that participants may have, ensuring that the potential for participant exploitation is eliminated (Moore 2012). There may be perceptions of obligation to participate (Clarke and Braun 2013) due to the previous relationship between the researcher and the purposive sample of participants. This will attempt to be countered by ensuring that written and verbal guidance emphasises the optional nature of participation, participants are able to withdraw at any point, even after interview, and there will be no negative consequences regardless of participation in the research (Burton et al 2010).

This purposive sample will also require consideration when disseminating research findings, placing importance on the relevance of the cases dictating the sample rather than their representativeness to the whole population (Flick 2014). It must also be recognised that the responses of participants are unique, hold subjective interpretation and will be within different contexts and school cultures (Burton et al 2014).
The use of critical event narrative inquiry will necessitate potentially uncomfortable situations whereby successes and failures of practice may be remembered and so disclosed by participants (Cohen et al 2010). These may have negative implications for self-esteem and for self-reflection on learning and practice as participants may become aware of failure or disappointed that the successes they expected did not materialise. The researcher will attempt to minimise the risk to participants by ensuring voluntary participation and informed consent fully communicates the possibility of such implications. This purposive sample will have, during their training year, already reflected upon successes and failures of professional risk taking and so may remember a familiarity of sensitivity applied by the researcher.

Other ethical issues

Identify any other ethical issues (not addressed in the sections above) that may arise from your research and how you intend to address them.

Due to the nature of narrative inquiry delving deep into participants’ thoughts, feelings and identity, Webster and Mertova (2007) discuss the importance of creating a situation of trust which inevitably will include the researcher’s stories. It is ‘in the telling of researcher’s stories, the stories of the participants merge with the researchers to form new stories that are collaborative in nature. These become the collaborative document that is written on the research’ (Webster and Mertova 2007: p. 88). Likewise, the complexity of the collaborative nature of such research needs to continually consider the questions offered by Clandinin (2013: p. 167) ‘How do we continue to be alongside these teachers as their storylines bump up against the dominant plotline of today’s professional knowledge landscapes?’ As a researcher I will position myself alongside the teachers and their stories, to take a reflexive approach and continually question my responsibilities to the participants, as a researcher and collaborator.

It is intended that participants will choose where they wish to be interviewed, either at University of Worcester or in their own environment, as it is comfortable and familiar to them. If participants wish to be interviewed at their own school, the head teacher of the school will be approached so as the researcher can, out of courtesy, gain consent to conduct interviews on the school site, if and when necessary. An information sheet will be given to the head teacher outlining the aims, objectives and risks of the research (Appendix 3) and the head teacher asked if consent is granted to conduct research interviews on the school premises. Should a participant request not to be interviewed on school premises or a location at University of Worcester an alternative will be agreed between the researcher and participant.

Published ethical guidelines to be followed
Identify the professional code(s) of practice and/or ethical guidelines relevant to the subject domain of the research.

BERA(2011)

University of Worcester Ethics Policy

References:


**Student Declaration**

I have read the University’s Ethics Policy and any relevant codes of practice or guidelines and I have identified and addressed the ethical issues in my research honestly and to the best of my knowledge.

**Signature:** [Signature]

**Date:** 14th February 2016

---

**Supervisor/Tutor/Module Leader Declaration**

(Tick as applicable)

☑ I am satisfied that the student has identified and addressed the ethical issues and grant ethical approval for this research.

☐ I refer this Application for Ethical Approval to the Institute Ethics Committee.

**Signature:** [Signature]

**Date:** 15/2/16

---

**Institute EthicsCoordinator Declaration**

(Tick as applicable)

☐ The Institute Ethics Committee is satisfied that the student has identified and addressed the ethical issues and grants ethical approval for this research.

☐ The Institute Ethics Committee is not satisfied that the student has identified and addressed the ethical issues and refers this Application for Ethical Approval to the University’s Ethics and Research Governance Committee.

**Signature:** [Signature]

**Date:**

---
Chair of the Ethics and Research Governance Committee Declaration

(Tick as applicable)

☐ The Ethics and Research Governance Committee is satisfied that the student has identified and addressed the ethical issues and grants ethical approval for this research.

☐ The Ethics and Research Governance Committee is not satisfied that the student has identified and addressed the ethical issues in this research and does not grant ethical approval for this research.

Signature: ___________________________ Date: ____________
Appendix 1
Event Time Line - Example
This event timeline will form the starting point to the interview.

Step 1. Enter the dates to the left on the time line that align with your training year and experience in schools. Enter the dates sequentially beginning with the training year at the bottom.

Step 2. Using a new text box for each event to the right of the time line, enter the month and year when the event took place. Think of a memory that you have of taking a professional risk and write what you remember about this in the box. You may wish to consider; why you decided to take the professional risk? If there were other people involved, for example colleagues? What the outcome was of the professional risk you took?

| Year 1 | December 2015 – I presented an assembly to all year 10 pupils about terrorism. This was my first assembly and the content was topical yet controversial. I was uncertain of pupil’s responses and speaking in front of whole year group and colleagues made me nervous. The assembly was a huge success with many pupils engaging in the questions I asked and showed genuine interest. Colleagues praised me following the assembly. |
| Year 2 | 2015 - 2016 |
| Year 2 | 2014 - 2015 |
| NQT Year | September 2013 - I tried a new strategy to manage behavior more effectively with a troublesome class. I gave pupils responsibility to identify behavior which supported or detracted from learning. The strategy worked well and led to improved behavior and pupils taking a group responsibility towards learning. |
| Training Year | May 2013 – I used the sport education model with a year 9 all girls group to promote independence and increase lesson engagement. My mentor offered support. Planning was extensive. Whole class enjoyment was evident, increased participation and motivation to learn alongside better class teacher relationships developed. |

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Appendix 2

INFORMED CONSENT FORM AND PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

An exploration into the impact of the Risk-Taking PD programme undertaken by Physical Education trainee teachers during their training year.

I am writing to invite you to take part in a small-scale study that I am conducting which explores the impact of the Risk Taking Professional Development programme undertaken by physical education trainee teachers from one HEI during their teacher training year. It seeks to offer insights into both the future of the Risk-Taking PD programme and Physical Education Teacher Education Programmes.

Please read all the information carefully and consider whether you wish to take part in this study. Participation is completely voluntary. If you decide to take part, you will be asked to sign this form. If you decide that you do not wish to participate, please discard. Regardless of your decision, I thank you for your time.

The main aims of the project are to:

- Explore the participants’ experiences of the Risk-Taking PD programme and the impact of this on their own professional development
- Present narrative accounts that illustrate the value and influence of the Risk-Taking PD programme on practice during the training year and once teaching in schools
- Examine the participants’ reflections of the influences on professional risk taking once in a school setting
- Examine participants’ perspectives about the notion of professional risk

What will you be asked to do?

If you agree to take part, there will be three stages to the research.

1. You will be asked, via email, to complete a critical event time line which plots significant events related to risk taking. This will be used as a basis from which the interview will be conducted.

2. You will then be invited to take part in an interview that will require around 1 hour of your time, in your school setting or at University of Worcester, whichever is most comfortable and convenient for you. You may also wish to bring written notes or a collection of artefacts to further inform the interview
3. A final half an hour interview, at a later date, will enable the researcher to feedback on your written report and your personal story presented as a narrative sketch. There will be the opportunity to verify the report and make any changes before the report is finalised and in the public domain.

Risks and discomfort

During this study you may experience potential discomfort whilst exploring your engagement with taking professional risks if these have been negative or unsuccessful. If you are concerned about this or experience any degree of discomfort at any stage of interview then you are free to withdraw from the study without any future consequence.

Safety

The interview will be conducted at an agreed, private and comfortable location either at University of Worcester, within your school setting or an agreed alternative. As the researcher I must consider your social and psychological wellbeing. If you feel that these are at risk and you wish to withdraw from the study then you can do so at any time without explaining your reasons.

Injury

It is unlikely that you would get physically injured during this study as it does not require you to do anything physical. However, if you feel uncomfortable being part of the interview you can withdraw at any time without explaining your reasons.

Benefits

The benefit from taking part in this study might be an increased understanding of your experiences of professional risk taking. Also, by taking part, you will help to increase knowledge of the area being studied.

Can I withdraw from this study?

You can change your mind and decide not to take part at any time. If you decide to withdraw from the study, you do not have to give any reason for your decision, and you will not be disadvantaged in any way.

What information will be collected, and how will it be used?
You have been selected for this research because you engaged with the Risk Taking Professional Development Programme during your teacher training year at University of Worcester.

The event time line you complete prior to interview, related to your experiences of professional risk taking will form the basis from which your interview will be conducted. At interview you will be asked questions relating to your experiences of risk taking since your training year. A narrative sketch will be written of your story and a report produced on the experiences of all participants. A follow up interview will enable you to verify this information and make any changes or additions.

Interviews will be recorded and data analysed, interpreted and written up as a doctoral thesis. Parts of the thesis may be published at a later date, but the information will remain anonymous with each story presented under a pseudonym. Your anonymity will be carefully guarded and full confidentiality assured.

Should you require further information please do not hesitate to contact the researcher Kerry Whitehouse at k.whitehouse@worc.ac.uk

By signing below, I agree that:

- I have read and understood the information sheet for the above study, have had an opportunity to ask questions about the study and have received satisfactory answers
- I understand that my participation is strictly voluntary, and I am free to withdraw my consent at any time, for any reason I see fit, without being disadvantaged or consequence to myself
- I understand that this research will be written up and submitted as a thesis to the University of Worcester for the degree of Doctor of Education. Selected findings may also appear in future reports/articles/presentations/publications but they will not be linked to me
- I understand that no identifying information about me or any other individual will be included in any of the above, and that all confidential or identifying information (including any digital audio recording) will be anonymized and stored encrypted with password protection, or in a locked cabinet for hard copy items (such as this form), to be accessed only by the researcher. Paper records will be shredded and audio files will be deleted after ten years (in accordance with University of Worcester Ethics Policy).
- I am aware of any possible risks and discomfort and agree to inform the researcher immediately if I feel uncomfortable.
- I know that I will not receive any money for taking part.
- If you have concerns about any aspect of this study you should speak to the researcher who will do their best to answer your questions. However, if you have further concerns and wish to complain formally about any aspect of or about the way you have been treated during the study, you may contact Professor Maggi Savin-Baden m.savinbaden@worc.ac.uk
I have read and understood this form. I agree to take part in the study entitled: An exploration into the impact of the Risk-Taking PD programme undertaken by physical education trainee teachers during their training year.

Name: 

Participant ID #

Signed (Participant): Date:

Signed (Researcher): Date:
Appendix 3

An exploration into the impact of the Risk-Taking PD programme undertaken by Physical Education trainee teachers during their training year.

Dear [Insert Head teacher name]

I am writing to you about a small-scale study that I am conducting as part of my Professional Doctorate Degree at the University of Worcester. This project aims to sample 8 physical education teachers who engaged with the Risk Taking Professional Development Programme during your teacher training year at University of Worcester.

I have outlined the aims of the project below and would like you to consider if you are in agreement for [insert teacher’s name] to be interviewed on the school premises. [Insert teachers name] preferred venue for interview was on the school premises. Findings will be written up and submitted as a thesis to the University of Worcester for the degree of Doctor of Education. Selected findings may also appear in future reports / articles / presentations / publications but they will not be linked to either the school or participant.

This study explores the impact of the Risk Taking Professional Development programme undertaken by physical education trainee teachers from one HEI during their teacher training year. It seeks to offer insights into both the future of the Risk-Taking PD programme and Physical Education Teacher Education Programmes.

The main aims of the project are to:

- Explore the participants’ experiences of the Risk-Taking PD programme and the impact of this on their own professional development
- Present narrative accounts that illustrate the value and influence of the Risk-Taking PD programme on practice during the training year and once teaching in schools

- Examine the participants’ reflections of the influences on professional risk taking once in a school setting

- Examine participants’ perspectives about the notion of professional risk

This research has received ethical approval from the University of Worcester. All data collected will be anonymised and treated as strictly confidential.

**Participants will engage with the following:**

1. Completion an event time line which plots significant events related to risk taking which will be administered via email. This will be used as a basis from which the interview will be conducted

2. An initial interview that will last approximately 1 hour in the participants school setting, University of Worcester or an alternative venue, whichever is most comfortable and convenient for the participant

3. A final interview, at a later date, which will last approximately half an hour which will enable the researcher to feedback on the written report and personal story presented as a narrative sketch and give participants the opportunity to verify the report and make any changes before the report is finalised and in the public domain.

I would like your permission to carry out this research, conducting two interviews on the school premises, if this is most convenient for the participant. If you decide you are in agreement please sign and return a copy of this letter to the address below. You may change your mind and decide to withdraw agreement at any time and do not have to give any reason for your decision.

Thank you for taking the time to read this.

Yours sincerely

Kerry Whitehouse
Head Teacher Consent

Name:

Position:

I give / I do not give (delete one) permission for Kerry Whitehouse to carry out her research on ‘An exploration into the impact of the Risk-Taking PD programme undertaken by physical education trainee teachers during their training year’.

This will involve [insert participants name] being interviewed on your school premises.

I understand that a supervisor from the University of Worcester has given ethical approval for this project.

Signed.............................................................. Dated..............................................

If you have any further questions please contact the researcher Kerry Whitehouse k.whitehouse@worc.ac.uk or research supervisor Professor Maggi Savin-Baden m.savinbaden@worc.ac.uk
Appendix 4

Draft Interview questions

1. From your event time line, think of one memory you have of taking professional risks during your training year, can you tell me about it?

2a. Thinking back over the past [insert number of years teaching] years, can you recall taking any further professional risks [refer to critical events plotted on time line]? If so what do you remember about these? If not, why do you think this is?

2b. (only to be asked if experiences can be recalled for question #2) Have the experiences you recall about taking professional risks changed over time since the training year? If so, how?

2c. (only to be asked if experiences can be recalled for question #2). What role did others play in the experiences you recall?

3. How did the Risk-Taking PD programme influence your practice, if at all, once in the school environment? How would you describe any long-lasting effects?

4. What have been the influences upon you taking [or not taking] professional risks once you began teaching in a school environment?

5. What is your perspective on taking professional risks? How would you define risk-taking?