Change in self-concept as a teacher during and after a course of Initial Teacher Training: a longitudinal study

John Devlin Smith

Institute of Education
University of London

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to Gail Patricia Smith and to Olwen Mary Smith.
Abstract

The concept of the self is undergoing a revival of interest part of which centres on its dynamical properties and capacity for change. That self-concept can change is no longer a contested idea, the key question is how? One explanation, examined in this thesis, is that possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986) play a central, systemic, role in the self-regulation of self-concept.

The thesis examines change in self-concept as a teacher occurring during and after a programme of initial teacher training (ITT) in order to contribute to knowledge and to inform educators and trainers about the process of personal and professional change. The research question asks: How are actual and possible selves involved in the development of self-concept as a teacher? What role does self-regulation play in the process of transformation?

Following Sternberg (1997), the many metaphors for self-concept extant were catalogued to create a synoptic overview of the literature. This was refined, using the systemic and dimensional properties of each metaphor, to create a dynamical perspective and presented as a Metaphor Matrix of Self-Concept. The matrix, plus a review of teacher training literature and research studies on teachers’ lives, was used to inform the empirical research for the thesis, a four-stage longitudinal study of 19 trainees completing a course of ITT collecting data at each stage using semi-structured interviews.

Although most trainees felt personally unchanged, reflective and deliberate practice during training stimulated interactive changes in actual and ideal self as a teacher. Once in post as qualified teachers, both constructs became focused on coping with daily routine. Overall, the thesis provides an alternative perspective on the self-concept literature, a revised interpretation of the possible selves construct, a novel explanation of the way self-concept as a teacher develops, and offers practical strategies for supporting CPD in schools post-training.
Declaration and Word Count

I hereby declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own.

Word count (exclusive of appendices, list of references and bibliography):

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John Devlin Smith
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Chapter 1  Introduction

The Tai Chi represents the balance between the opposing forces necessary to produce the world of forms. Each carries within it the seed of the other. (Fontana, 1993, p. 129)

My thesis examines the development of self-concept as a teacher within a group of trainees who started and finished a one-year, full time, PGCE for Secondary School teachers. Within that rather specific research context, the central, and more generic, question addressed by the thesis is: How are actual and possible selves involved in the development of self-concept as a teacher? What role does self-regulation play in the process of transformation? My professional role as a teacher trainer, over many years, has brought me into close contact with adults who experienced change, who sometimes embraced or resisted change, and who varied in their awareness and understanding of the changes that happened to their sense of self, their self-concept as a teacher. My own reflective experience too, as an adult learner, was that my understanding of ‘what is possible for me’ changed as I grew older and those changes in turn influenced my behaviour. I became interested in the seemingly self-regulating nature of different kinds of personal change and resolved that one day I would examine how self-concept is capable of change at all. This thesis presents the outcome of my research and findings.

In order to introduce the study and to provide a bounded context for the discussion, the thesis begins by briefly examining ideas and understandings about change in general, and considers transformational changes within educational settings.
For many millennia, change and the ever-changing nature of all things has been a constant preoccupation of both Western and Eastern traditions concerning the nature of the world and of human existence (Blenkin et al, 1992, p.2). Many of the world's great Eastern esoteric traditions, for example, teach that every human action is a cause that carries within it an equivalent effect, that there is a cosmic balance between opposing forces (Fontana, 1993, p.129); in that context, I adopted the Tai Chi as a personal metaphor for thinking about change, in particular the relationship between self-concept and possible selves. On a more global level, however, despite intense scrutiny, a comprehensive understanding of change has remained illusive. More recently, during the transition between modernity and post-modernism, scientists and citizens have been engulfed in a "furious storm of change" without a consensus about how to deal with it (Del Rio and Alvaraz, 1995, p.15). Postmodernism is a complex and contested term, but most will acknowledge that post-modern enquiry is now focused on "local and narrative knowledge, on acceptance of the openness of practical knowledge, on the study of the heterogeneous, linguistic and qualitative knowledge of the everyday world and on validation through practice" (Kvale, 1992, p.51). This shift of emphasis about what is 'knowable' represents a radical move away from Enlightenment faith in progress, and the existence of universal truths, toward a more critical philosophical stance in which 'facts' are now problematic and knowledge is multiple and fragmented and "saturated with perspectives" (Kvale, 1992, p.20-21). Philosophically, dealing with uncertainty, rather than a search for certainty, has become a cultural norm.

Now, from the latter part of the twentieth century onwards, the rate of change appears to have intensified, "several cultural revolutions have occurred and the pace is accelerating" and a significant part of that 'cultural revolution' has concerned the way in which education, particularly for adults, has been reconceptualised as being less to do with the transmission of the known, and more to do with learning as "a lifelong process of discovering what is not known" (Knowles, 1996, p.83). As a consequence, the (post modern) metaphor of adult learning as a journey of exploration, as a quest for self-fulfilment, a search for the 'authentic' self, has become predominant (Usher et al, 1997, p.120).
To facilitate this development of ‘self’, educationalists have traditionally used curricula that attempted a reconciliation of two conflicting goals, one of socialisation, and the other individuation; the education of adults has been mainly involved with the latter though both these tasks require a certain conception of self-concept along with some understanding of the role of experiential learning in the process of change. In each case, however, the available theoretical perspectives are often seen to be, at best, varied; and at worst, contradictory (Usher et al, 1997, p.121). Creating change, and dealing with change as an integral part of continuous professional development, should be an important role of teachers and advisers acting as “change agents” within a process of curriculum development (Stenhouse, 1975, p.189), however, without firm theoretical foundations to work on, understanding how and why adult learners’ self-concept changes over a long or intensive course of education and training remains problematical. In the light of that ‘challenge’, this thesis examines how it is possible to develop an academic understanding of Change in the context of people’s personal and professional lives.

The emerging social science emphasis on the narrative study of lives has thrown new light on the unique problems of the modern self within the cultural context of contemporary modernity (McAdams, 1996, p.128). Reflecting that trend, there has been increasing interest in the place of story in everyday life and in the use of story to explore “experiences of work” particularly in educational settings (Burchell and Dyson, 2000, p.437). Therefore, in line with that development, this research is set within the world of teaching, teachers and teacher training and draws on the experiences of people who undertook, and completed, a one year intensive course of teacher training. It uses their perceptions and understandings about their experiences to examine what it means and what it feels like to go through a process of personal transition and transformation from a Beginning Teacher (BT) to a Newly Qualified Teacher (NQT). The research focus, therefore, is on the development of self-concept as a teacher. Within this research, change is to be understood as “a transition or series of transitions between one social condition and another” (Gould and Kolb, 1964, p.538) and over one person’s lifetime, any long course of education and training would posses the potential to be a major developmental life task. Such a course would offer many opportunities for the participant, to create,
consolidate or transform various aspects of their self, self-concept and their life world; certainly, this research will use the notion of ‘connectivity’ and the concept of a ‘networked’ form of life and living, to examine how and why individuals are able to embrace change, or to resist it, in terms of their understandings about the self.

The remainder of the thesis will be structured as follows. In Chapter 2, the thesis will examine self-concept as a construct and then, through a review of appropriate literature and sources, present the central argument, that self-concept has systemic, self-regulatory properties. This synoptic overview of the field will take the form of a metaphor matrix of self-concept and will be further refined, using ‘possible selves’, to present a dynamic model of self-concept. Chapter 3 will review a number of longitudinal and other research studies of teachers’ self-concept and will also consider important findings from various studies of teachers’ lives; all together, the matrix and the review material will then be used to inform the construction of the research questions and the associated empirical study in the methodology Chapter 4. The findings are presented in Chapter 5 and the discussion and conclusions appear in Chapter 6.
Chapter 2
A Review of the Literature Relating to Self-Concept

Introduction

The concept of the self is said to be undergoing a revival in psychological theory as a major domain of interest (Westen, 1992, p.1), (Lewis, 2003, p.225), and, with self-concept described as "one of the oldest areas of research in the social sciences" (Marsh and Hattie, 1996, p.38) and rated as "one of the greatest discoveries in the history of the social sciences" (Joas, 2000, in Hitlin, S., 2003, p 118); there are many definitions, and ways of researching and conceptualising the construct, extant. Although understandings of what self-concept is have changed over time, current approaches would stress self-awareness, interaction and interpretation as key features (Shavelson et al, 1976, in Marsh, 1993, p.842); also as Byrne suggests, "our attitudes, feelings and knowledge about our abilities, skills, appearance and social acceptability" (Byrne, 1984, in Hoge and Renzulli, 1993, p.449). Research in the last twenty years or so, has confirmed the self as something that is "dynamic - as active, forceful, and capable of change" (Markus and Wurf, 1987, p.299), and that the self is closely connected with moral practices involving agency and responsibility (Harré, 1987, p.41). Self-concept has "cognitive, perceptual, affective and evaluative facets" (Hoge and Renzulli, 1993, p.449) and because it is both stable and dynamic, and combines structural and process properties (Demo, 1992, p.304), it is a complex idea.

Because of its complexity, the domain has traditionally been viewed as conceptually problematic (Westen, 1992), particularly in terms of its conceptualization and measurement (Hoge and Renzulli, 1993, p.450), however, Bruner simplified the scene considerably by suggesting that in the past two or three decades, general perspectives on theories of self have changed in two fundamental respects. Originally seen as largely monolithic and 'individualised', the construct now supports 'pluralist' and 'situated' models and
interpretations; secondly, the field of study now includes ‘interactive’ explanations of development rather than straight ‘nature versus nurture’ dichotomies (Bruner, 1990, p.108). However, in order to make self-evaluation a practical possibility, individuals, such as Beginning Teachers in training, would need to possess ‘a theory of self’ that allows a person to reflect on their own experience so as to become capable of self intervention and control, (Harré, 1989, p.404). Taking these different perspectives together, contemporary theorizing posits a relational, developmental, approach to self, suggesting, for example, that it exists as a “particular kind of reflective, interpretive understanding—an understanding that is always embodied and unfolding within an historical, sociocultural tradition of living (a life-world)” (Martin and Sugarman, 2001, p.104). In coming to this position, the self is not only seen to be in the life-world, the self is considered to be a part of the life-world and therefore the two are merely different facets of the same phenomenon. The term ‘life-world’ has particular importance for this thesis and is defined here as all the material and non-material aspects of a person’s existence, including all their perceptions, memories and imaginings; it is a virtual ‘network’ connecting all of their physical and social relationships with people, places and ideas in the past, present and future.

That self-concept can change is not, nowadays, a contested idea, the question at issue in the thesis is how this can happen? In developing an argument to explain how change in self-concept is possible, the thesis differs from many other approaches in three respects. First, it focuses on the autopoietic properties of the self, as a living organism, and on the associated systemic qualities of self-concept as a dynamical, self-regulating, modular system. The thesis is also predicated on the idea that self-concept and the life-world are analogous constructs that are entirely complementary in the way they are expressed and experienced by the individual. Finally, the thesis consistently uses metaphor as a way to organise and frame thinking about self-concept, developing appropriate concepts by analogy.

The review of the self-concept literature, presented next, engages with three key questions that are fundamental to the organisation and presentation of the thesis:
• The first question or issue concerns the intellectual stance I have taken towards the nature of self-concept, how do I conceive of the idea and why?
• The second concerns my broad understanding of the related literature and sources; from the wide range of literatures available, what particular set of writers and sources have influenced my thinking about self-concept, and what is my thinking about the many ways in which self-concept is dealt with across different fields of knowledge and inquiry?
• The third question centres on the way in which these understandings, taken together, are capable of creating a conceptual framework that is capable of supporting an empirical study of a reasonable and relevant research question about self-concept?

To answer these questions, the review of relevant literatures has been structured into three sections (Parts 1 – 3) and these are presented as a series of arguments concerning key decisions and choices about handling the available sources; in that sense the review is also a chronicle of my personal journey towards self-awareness and understanding of the topic. The review is also arranged in terms of a ‘spiral curriculum’ in which key ideas are revisited in greater depth within each section so as to gradually build layers of ideas and complexity. The chapter ends with my concluding remarks on the literature review and the presentation of the conceptual framework that will guide the empirical study forming the core of the thesis.
Mapping the Literature – Part 1: Core Influences

The formulation of the thesis owes a factual and interpretive debt to a number of individual writers and to several broad schools of thought; however, a particular feature of the thesis is that it draws on a wide range of sources and disciplines to support the central argument about how self-concept is experienced as being capable of stasis and change. In terms of debts to individual writers, Bruner (1990) provided the thesis, early on, with a clear sense of where the main arguments about self-concept had been moving over the past two or three decades. Bruner argued that there had been a decided shift from an ‘essentialist’ view of self, in which the self is regarded as a substance or essence that is there to be uncovered and directly observed, towards a more ‘conceptual’ approach, in which the self emerges as a concept created through and by reflection (Bruner, 1990, p.101). This shift paralleled the growing reaction against positivist paradigms and accompanied the rise of transactional approaches to self that are dialogue dependent. In that way, for example, the ‘dialogical’ self emerged as a major metaphor during the 1970s and 1980s. At about the same time, and from a practitioner’s perspective, Hoskins and Leseho (1996) demonstrated that the very use of metaphor crucially affected conceptual understandings about self-concept and strongly influenced associated professional practice within, for example, therapeutic settings. Their findings provided empirical evidence and support for the idea that the thesis should look to metaphor, and reflective practice, as a way to explore understandings about self-concept across the field of inquiry. In that respect too, the work of Sternberg (1997) had particular importance for me in suggesting how to use metaphor groups as a way to organise a large multi-disciplinary literature review such as the one attempted for this thesis. Significantly, Sternberg and Bruner both used analytical frameworks involving the idea of ‘dimension’, i.e. perspectives running from internal to external (Sternberg), and from individual to culture (Bruner); that dimensional concept has a central role to play too in this thesis.

In addition to individual writers, several broad fields of inquiry were also hugely influential in the development of ideas for the thesis. In the 1970s two major developments took place that had a direct bearing on how scientists might think about living systems, one was the mathematics of complexity, the other was the
emergence of the concept of self organisation. Both of these developments came from the field of cybernetics, the discipline that most closely deals with systems and self-regulation (Capra, 1997, p.51). To begin with, cybernetics used the idea of a homeostat as its basic paradigm for explaining self-regulatory behaviour; however, there remained a continuing and serious problem as to how theories of self-regulation could encompass reflexive explanations of action that involved the observer as a part of the system. The breakthrough came through the work of Humberto Maturana whose key insight was to realise that “if the action of the nervous system is determined by its organisation, the result is a circular dynamic”. To describe this circularity, Maturana coined the term autopoiesis (or self-production); the living system constructs its environment through the interactions made possible by its autopoietic organization (Maturana and Varela, 1980, p.82). Autopoiesis, therefore, became my ‘template of choice’ for working with ideas concerning how self-concept might be thought about, and modelled.

In parallel with these broad sector developments, biologists and geneticists worked throughout the 1970s and 1980s on the specific and long-standing problem of ‘development’ i.e. how an undifferentiated egg can transform into a complex adult, by using two key conceptual tools, self-organisation and modularity. In the course of this work, they created a model and a metaphor of living (developing) systems as comprising a self-organising network of regulatory modules (Smith, 1998, p.18-40). With these broad ideas about living systems in the background i.e. autopoiesis, self-organisation, and networked modular systems, and by directly borrowing from these metaphors, ideas for the thesis began to form. I set out to examine the notion that self-concept could operate as if it was a ‘living’ modular system, in which self-regulation would ‘power’ the process allowing changes to happen in one part, without necessarily altering other parts. A model of self-concept, constructed in this way, would allow change and development to take place, but would also explain the ‘conservation’ of the overall structure over time i.e. provide the conditions for stasis and change simultaneously.

The insight afforded by complexity and self-regulation was not confined solely to the physical sciences, and two examples of direct relevance to this thesis show
how systems thinking was being applied elsewhere in the social sciences. First, in the 1970s and 1980s, Niklas Luhmann and other writers in Germany, and later America, began to study social systems as organised patterns of behaviour involving self-regulatory principles and processes. A central feature of their thinking was that the ‘self-referential’ nature of society permits self-reflexive procedures to operate and it is this process that allows for the “continuous adaptation of a social system to a rapidly changing and increasingly unpredictable environment” (Baert, 1998, p.62). This understanding influenced the thesis directly in that it supported the idea that self-regulation, as a process, appeared to operate at every level (along a dimension) from the individual through to the social, and would be a key concept to explore. Second, systems thinking also influenced post-war educational research in educational theory and practice and focused attention on the ways in which ‘networked mechanisms’ regulated the distribution of power and wealth within society and played an important role in education, for example through the latent role of the ‘hidden curriculum’. The hidden curriculum acted as an alternative way of judging, assessing and sorting institutional members without them necessarily being aware of what was going on; this self-organising feature is reminiscent of Adam Smith’s metaphor of the ‘hidden hand’ operating within market structures. Self-regulation may operate along a dimension from internal to external; however, other kinds of regulation may also be at work at either end of the dimension. Internally, there are biological and cognitive processes that operate without conscious effort e.g. types of learning that are unplanned and accidental; externally there are behaviourist type S-R pressures and forces at work that shape behaviour in ways that are not always recognised immediately e.g. processes involving social learning and acculturation. Self-organisation, therefore, will almost certainly involve self-regulation (SR), however, other forms of regulation will also be at work that may limit or constrain the ability of the individual to fully determine their own destiny. These other forms of regulation also lie on the continuum linking the inner world of the person with the outer world of the environment, therefore change can come from forces within and without and the individual may struggle to know or understand how or why.

In a similar way to Luhmann’s work, the literature on organizational innovation portrayed schools as “self-organizing centres that have to alter their own
structures or traditions and that can learn to accomplish this task” (Vanderstraeten, 2000, p.6). Once again, systems thinking pointed to the autopoietic, networked nature of the life-world, both individually and institutionally, and suggested that ‘self-organisation’ and self-regulation’ were important processes and would be worth further investigation. The literature also showed, however, that caution was necessary in the way these ideas were used. Over the post-war period, systems thinking continued to hold an established place within paradigms in the natural sciences, and also within technological contexts, however, this was certainly not the case within the social sciences. John Puddifoot, in a wide ranging review of “problems and possibilities in the study of dynamical social systems” is not convinced that Dynamical Systems Theory (DST) is “a theory whose time has come in the social sciences”, unless (and this is an important qualification) large numbers of sociologists and/or social psychologists were to take up the challenge and take DST to the heart of their disciplinary areas as a “spur to rethinking core concepts” (Puddifoot, 2000, p.94). The conclusion he draws is that indiscriminate borrowing from DST will make further progress difficult, however, he is more optimistic that the use of DST can be used to challenge orthodoxies and to reconceptualise major concepts.

One writer who has done exactly that, and who certainly influenced the development of ideas for this thesis is Mayer (1998a, 1998b). Mayer acknowledges that systems thinking and the use of systemic models within psychological domains have produced very mixed feelings and responses from academics working in the field, particularly the idea of ‘emergentism’ where “certain qualities of systems at molar (higher) levels are independent of qualities at lower levels” (Mayer, 1998a, p.170). However, in presenting a systems framework for organizing the academic field of personality psychology, Mayer argued that new frameworks seem to arise within his field every twenty to thirty years and that, by his reckoning, the fifth generation (involving systems thinking) was well underway. Mayer listed developments in his field thus:

- The start of the 20th Century – the formulation of global ‘organising’ theories that would encompass all psychology e.g. Freud and Jung.
• The 1930s — personality emerges as a sub discipline of psychology, the new theories are not so general as before e.g. Allport and Murray.

• The 1950s — fragmentation occurs whereby a ‘theory by theory’ framework prevails e.g. Hall and Lindzey.

• The 1970s — the rise of a ‘big-perspective’ approach where psychodynamics, humanist, cognitive and behaviourist etc., are the perspectives used to group theorists and related empirical research.

• The 1990s — a fifth generation of ‘field wide’ frameworks emerges in which ‘systems’ perspectives and writers have an important place e.g. (Ford, M E 1994), (Lester, D., 1995), (Pervin, L., 1996), (Cloninger, S., 1996).

(Mayer, 1998b, p.176-177)

Mayer argues that the current individual frameworks (as formulated by e.g. Funder, Hogan, McAdams, McCrae) are “inadequate to the job of organising the field”. A ‘question by question’ attack on personality issues - for example where the question of individual difference is dealt with by trait theory, behavioural changes by behaviourist theory, and where explanations concerning thinking and planning are answered through social learning theory - preserves historical approaches in isolation, and fosters disciplinary fragmentation through duplication of terminology e.g. psycho dynamic templates versus social-cognitive schemata. In addition, holding on to ‘standard theories’ hinders integration of research. Mayer (1998b, p.176-178) contends that although integration remains illusive, there are writers within the field of personality psychology (e.g. Ford, Craik, McCrae, Singer) who are examining, if not actively promoting, systems based explanations of personality. Certainly, David Ford’s (1987) earlier ‘living systems’ approach resonates strongly with the views of Mayer and Capra, and influenced the development of the central argument within this thesis. Ford noted three ways in which human life may be influenced:

• Intervention directly through procedures and prostheses to influence constraining and facilitating biological conditions.

• Intervention directly through legal and ‘architectural’ processes to influence the social and built environment.
• Intervention directly with individuals to facilitate the development of "governing (cognitive) and transactional (skills) capabilities" in order to influence their life opportunities and trajectories".

(Ford, 1987, p.662)

Ford illustrates very clearly how the individual is networked into the environment (physically, intellectually, socially) and how the reciprocal nature of these relationships constitutes a systemic framework.

Overall, Mayer's determination to question the status quo within the field and to find a new framework that is "acceptable to the expert and engaging to the newcomer" (Mayer, 1998b, p.178), along with John Puddifoot's exhortation for researchers to take systems thinking to the heart of their theories provides personal inspiration for this thesis that is compelling as well as appealing. Mayer likens the systems approach he advocates (macropersonomics) to macroeconomics (Mayer, 1998a, p.140), and that "micro-macro" metaphor informs the view taken within this thesis. By taking a broad, multi-disciplinary stance towards the scientific and humanities literature on systems involving self-regulation, the 'connected' nature of the relationship between the individual and the environment emerged as a theme or motif to be explored in this thesis through what I call an ecological understanding (a macro view) of self-concept.

To complete the first part of this review of important 'debts' to writers and fields of inquiry, the thesis acknowledges the central and pivotal role of the work of Hazel Markus for what is undoubtedly the key idea underpinning the thesis, the notion of 'Possible Selves'. In the late 1980s, two articles appeared that epitomised the post-modernist approach to the issue of self-concept; these were Possible Selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986) and The Dynamic Self-Concept (Markus and Wurf, 1987). Possible selves fit within a more individuated view of self where the focus is on features of self-definition explored through self-schemas (Markus and Wurf, 1987), life tasks, (Cantor et al, 1981), and personal projects (Little, 1983). The Dynamic Self concept, the later of the two key articles, presented an overview of current thinking about the issue and confirmed the self as something "dynamic - as active, forceful, and capable of change" (Markus and Wurf, 1987, p.299). From this perspective, self-concept
was not some 'by-product' of behaviour it actually mediated behaviour. The importance of the possible selves concept, therefore, was that it addressed the question as to: What kind of 'dynamic agent' would be implicated in the regulation of behaviour? Would it be something unitary, cohesive and stable; or something more volatile and fluid? This was the essence of the debate concerning different i.e. unitary versus plural, conceptions of self, at that time. The earlier, and seminal, paper on possible selves, did two things to address the issue that were novel; first, it posited several 'generic' modes or forms (or modules) of self-concept, "possible selves represent individuals ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they fear becoming" (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.954). Positive and negative images of self, therefore, can act as incentives for action, for example, the 'feared future self' (perhaps an image of the self as failing an exam) can stimulate and guide current action e.g. to study and revise. Possible selves that are offset or balanced by a countervailing possible self within the same domain are said to provide "maximal motivational effectiveness" (Oyserman and Markus, 1990, p.112). Second, the concept of possible selves linked motivation theory with learning theory as a way of explaining current behaviors, and, as a consequence, could be thought of as comprising a behavioral blueprint for action (Robinson and Davis 2001, in Kerka, 2003). Putting these two ideas together leads directly to the conjecture that the visualisation of the future self influences the operation of the current 'working self concept' in a reciprocal relationship (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.957). If this conjecture concerning reciprocity is correct, possible selves should play a central, systemic, role in the operation (self-regulation) of self-concept on a day-to-day basis in which, for example, the individual attempts to move towards long-term targets (or avoid feared outcomes) through small planned steps day by day. Markus and Nurius did not present a model showing explicit links between self-concept and self-regulation "for the most part, the problems of self-concept and self-regulation have been pursued in two largely non-overlapping literatures" (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.965), however, the possible selves conjecture overall was a major piece of the jigsaw in the construction of the thesis concerning how self-concept might be capable of change. From the standpoint of the thesis, the concept of possible selves provided more than a description for self-concept; it
provided the ingredients for building a systemic, dynamic, explanatory model of self-concept.

Central though the concept might be for this thesis, however, the idea of possible selves needs to be examined for ‘possible faults’ and should not be adopted uncritically or without further examination. Finding direct criticism of the Markus and Nurius 1986 paper proved a fruitless task; hostile critiques may exist but do not show up as such in literature searches. This may be because there are none, which is unlikely, or because ‘critiques’, in general, of the paper may be presented in some other more benign form such as developments, variations or elaborations of the original idea, for example Olsen and Einwohner (2001) with their “teaching self”, or Ibarra (2003) introducing the idea of the “provisional self”. In fact, thinking about the way in which the possible selves idea established itself so quickly, and stimulated the development of a huge and expanding, complementary, literature, it is possible to see the connected strengths and weakness of the concept. First, it can be said to be an ‘idea of its time’ in several ways; as an ‘individuated’ view of self, it complemented current social and political concerns with individual achievement and the realisation of personal potential, in that sense it fitted well with the ideological project of the ‘New Right’ that dominated the last two decades of the twentieth century. Second, Markus (1986) achieved a detailed and effective translation of self-concept and self-theory into “contemporary cognitive terms” using the newly emerging notions of schema and self-schemas (Westen, 1992, p.3). Along with the ‘contemporary feel’ of the idea, the possible selves notion was also simple, generic, and seemed to fit with everyday understandings about the human imagination. Set against these undoubted strengths, there appeared to be one inherent weakness with the concept; whilst the idea of possible selves had general appeal and could be applied widely, it seemed to lack explanatory power and could be interpreted in many different ways; possible selves, therefore, could be anything that we wanted it to be. In that sense, if it explained ‘everything’, it really explained nothing at all.

The ‘elusive’ nature of the possible selves concept, and its capacity to be explained and interpreted in many different ways is also a problem shared by the notion of self-concept more generally. Like possible selves, self-concept has
also become heavily loaded with a wide variety of terms and expressions and, as Westen observes, there is a great deal of semantic confusion about ‘what the self is’, there is also the possibility that the role of culture in shaping various domains of the self has been seriously underestimated; and that, “issues of method and underlying paradigmatic assumptions and metaphors inhibit the social-cognitive approach from contextualising cognitive processes in a broader understanding of the dynamics of personality, including affect and motivation” (Westen, 1992, p.6). In other words, there needs to be a cross disciplinary examination of terminology and method so as to establish what it is exactly that is being talked about, measured and analysed. With that cautionary note in mind, within this thesis, the intention is not to track and trace the innumerable variations and ‘off-shoots’ of the possible selves concept, but rather, to return to the original concept as presented in the 1986 paper and to examine how that model can be used to explain current understandings about self-concept, in particular its dynamic nature and its ability to change and yet remain a stable entity.

Whilst Markus, Maturana, Bruner, Capra, Hoskins and Leseho, and Sternberg together initially provided the central core of ideas for the thesis, other traditions and bodies of discourse, such as life course research, proved useful sources for ideas too, and are examined next in Part 2.
Life course research has become very popular over the past 20 to 30 years, particularly for research into teachers’ lives and professional development, and within that tradition biography has emerged as the dominant form of inquiry. At least six broad clusters of inquiry topic/method, that were explicitly biographical in approach, and with a focus on teacher identity and self-concept, have been identified within the genre, (Butt and Raymond, 1989, p.404). These six clusters included:

1. The existence of ‘phases’ of professional development.
2. Life history studies focussing on the conditions of the professional lives of teachers.
3. Reconceptualist studies investigating the ‘architecture’ of self.
4. Phenomenologist studies investigating the ‘lived experiences’ of teachers.
5. The cultural contexts of teachers’ lives and the individual/collective dimensions of innovation and change.
6. Individual and collaborative autobiography to explore the nature and development of knowledge that teachers hold and use.

Although all of the clusters have potential interest for the thesis, the nature of biographical research in this particular field tends towards analysis and description with a view to promoting continuous professional development (CPD), rather than explanation, and so the thesis focused on material falling within topic 3, the ‘architecture’ of self, for two reasons; first, the metaphor is relevant and appropriate to my concerns with the structure of self-concept; second, one particular approach within life course methodology, i.e. Life Span Developmental Psychology (LSDP), offered two interesting and practical ideas about how changes in the ‘architecture of self’ could actually take place. These were:

1. The notion of the life course as an evolving structure, where Life structure is defined as the underlying pattern or design of a person’s life at a given time, and is said to evolve through an alternating series of

2. The concept of the developmental task where Developmental Tasks are described as the issues addressed during each phase of structure building and structure changing; the tasks are associated with particular points in the life course and their resolution contributes towards growth (Chickering and Havighurst, 1981, in Sugarman, 1996, p.298).

Of particular note here is Levinson's idea that the life structure exists on the boundary between the person and the environment; this fits well with Bruner's, Sternberg's, and Capra's notion of interface and dimension discussed earlier above.

The significance for the thesis, therefore, was that LSDP offered a, parallel, structured and interpretive framework for examining the life-world in terms of directions, targets and goals (life tasks interpreted as possible selves), as well as the actuality of the current position (life structure interpreted as current or actual self). Developmental life tasks, therefore, could be viewed as an essential part of the mechanism linking the actual self with various possible selves – i.e. the process of self-regulation. From the perspective of this thesis, becoming involved in developmental tasks, in order to move the life-world along its trajectory of evolution, is equivalent to intentional engagement in a process of self-regulation. This understanding represents an important reinterpretation and synthesis of ideas between hitherto separate bodies of literature.

In summary, life course research offers biological, physiological and historical perspectives on life and living within a largely separate body of discourse focusing on biographical methods of inquiry; however, LSDP offers specific ideas that show convergence with the possible selves literature in the form of the notion of the life-world as an evolving structure, also the idea of developmental life tasks that can either change the structure of the life world or maintain the structure (Sugarman, 1996). The thesis interprets this mindful or intentional engagement with life tasks as a form or manifestation of self-regulation; consequently, Sugarman joins the list of key writers, noted above, that have significantly influenced the development of the thesis.
To summarise so far, the key writers and sources that will be used to create the conceptual framework for the thesis are now in place; they include Markus, Nurius, Wurf, Maturana, Bruner, Capra, Hoskins and Leseho, Sternberg, Sugarman, Westen and Ford. The conversation about the development of a conceptual framework for the thesis, therefore, can now move to a more detailed consideration of the dynamical processes underpinning self-concept and how these can be thought about and modelled.
Mapping the Literature – Part 3: Dynamical Processes

The next task of the literature review will be to consider how major contributors to a number of fields of study associated with self-concept, philosophical, theoretical or methodological, have been categorised and sorted using a system of metaphor labels created specifically for the thesis. Writers and sources dealing with various aspects of self-concept were analysed and sorted or ‘content analysed’ into ten metaphor groups according to the theme or subject matter of their contributions. The resulting categories were then used to construct a ‘metaphor matrix’ providing a synoptic overview of the field of study, this then allowed two important developments; first, the static analysis of self-concept was elaborated so as to produce a dynamic ‘model’ of self-concept. Second, the dynamic model was then used as the basis for the conceptual framework for the thesis and the associated empirical research.

The following material in Part 3 is based on an article that was developed as part of my preparation for the thesis.

*The self-regulated nature of self-concept and the Life-World*

(Smith, 2004, p.45-65)

**Introduction**

Self-concept can be viewed as a dynamic and active aspect of the Self; that not only reflects ongoing behaviour, but mediates behaviour too (Markus and Wurf, 1987, p.299). This kind of multi-faceted, agentive, view of self lends itself to the analysis of personal change and transition by using a form of process-product modelling and this part of the review now examines the systemic (dynamic) nature of self-concept to determine how the experience, and associated understandings, of change(s) in self-concept might be researched amongst Beginning Teachers (BT) undertaking a long or intensive course of education and training.

The review examines the concept of ‘the Self’ in its many forms, by drawing extensively on the psychological literature and is organised as follows:
First, it identifies the major metaphors and descriptors used to express ideas concerning what self-concept is and how it comes to be as it is.

Second, it systematically groups and maps the self-concept metaphors in the same way that Sternberg mapped ideas and metaphors about intelligence.

Third, it examines how the self-concept system is ‘powered’ in order to make it ‘dynamic’ in nature.

Finally, the resulting model or conceptual framework is then used to inform the design of empirical research into the development of self-concept as a teacher.

Self-concept, as a topic or theme, contributes to the literature on psychology at many different levels and in a variety of application areas; within the literature on counselling, for example, Hoskins and Leseho acknowledge the influence of psychological, sociological and anthropological influences on the many references to theories of the self (Hoskins and Leseho, 1996, p.243). Within the biological sciences too, there is interest in how the self is “flavoured and coloured by previous experience” and how this process can happen in the “real brain” (Greenfield, 2000, p.27); therefore, the topic displays extensive vertical and horizontal distribution across a number of fields, see Figure 1 below.

**Figure 1** Horizontal and vertical knowledge concerning self-concept

In the context of understanding how the nature of knowledge itself can be framed and categorised, *horizontal knowledge* relates to the specific contexts or
situations in which it was acquired and was therefore usually bound up with practice and knowledge in use; in terms of self-concept, this will relate to experiential understandings and reflective accounts about the self. Vertical knowledge, in contrast, is defined so as to be 'context free'; it is not so tied to particular situations or contexts and tends to be located within theoretical frameworks developed by specialist research communities. Bernstein referred to the problem of bringing the two types of knowledge together as ‘re-contextualisation’ (Bernstein, 2000). With that in mind, the aim of this review is to bring together different theoretical and experiential understandings about self-concept, within a single conceptual framework, through a process of categorisation and classification.

This categorical approach to self-concept, for example, is apparent in the work of Hoskins and Leseho (1996) who reviewed the use of metaphor to describe the nature and character of the self in specific counselling contexts and how the use of such metaphors affected practice. They found what they described as dramatic shifts between more traditional use of metaphor and those used in more recent postmodern contexts:

"Although some theorists make reference to the cohesive self (Kohut, 1977), authentic self (Moustakas, 1966), or core self (Mahoney, 1991), others refer to sub personalities (Stone and Winkelman, 1989), the saturated self (Gergen, 1991), or possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986)"

(Hoskins and Leseho, 1996, p.243)

Despite the wide range of sources to choose from, Hoskins and Leseho are careful to stress that they have “chosen to focus on some of the more prevalent models that have a direct impact on counselling practice.” Among the traditional metaphors of the Self are those that see the ‘Unitary’ self as an ‘Artichoke’: at the centre of which lies the hard core, surrounded by layers of experience built up over the years (Kohut, 1977; also (Leseho and Howard-Rose, 1994, quoted in Hoskins and Leseho, 1996, p.243). Alternatively the ‘Integrated Self’ approach views the self as a ‘Board of Directors’ with each aspect of self represented by a different director. The Self is the Chair pulling all the disparate pieces together (Hoskins and Leseho, 1996, p.244). Other more traditional accounts of the self include metaphors based on a transactional self,
a constructed self, a self that is located in a cultural context, and a self that is generated from within the person’s own mind. Bruner contrasts these more process-based approaches to Self with much earlier ‘essentialist’ ideas. In these approaches the self was conceived of as a substance or essence that could be inspected through introspection. In the twentieth century, therefore, the Essential Self has given way to the Conceptual Self (Bruner, 1990, p.101).

Postmodern accounts use a range of metaphors for the Self. The ‘Narrative Self’ approach sees the self as a process, specifically a narrative process (Howard, 1991; McAdams, 1993). In the ‘Possible selves’ approach Markus and Nurius (1986) make a distinction between the self in the present moment, and the self in the future and the past, and in developing this idea, Hoskins and Lesho refer to possible selves as a ‘cognitive bridge’ between the plans of the ‘now’ self and the ‘future’ self (Hoskins and Leseho, 1996). The ‘Empty self’ approach sees the self as a ‘holograph’ with amorphous boundaries and therefore unable to ‘contain’ anything of substance; within this metaphor, the client is seen as engaged in a constant search for meaning to fill the void (Carlsen, 1988).

In addition, the ‘Internalised self’ perspective developed by many theorists, stresses the internalisation of various selves within the self-schema (Tomm, 1987). There are two main variants to this approach. In the first, the ‘Community of selves’ approach, is one in which the (multiple) self is seen as a small community who come together to collaborate as a team to complete one unified life project (Mair, 1977). This community is very much a collaborative, cooperative undertaking and is not at all hierarchical, controlling or authoritative, in nature (p.125-149). The second, the ‘Dialogical self’ approach, has the multiple self conceptualised as dialogue, an approach that rules out ultimate unification of the self (Hermans and Kempen, 1993).

The classification system developed by Hoskins and Leseho, described above, has importance for this review, but is still limited in scope, in that the use of self-concept is treated within a restricted area of application and contextualised accordingly. These metaphors are used to describe and explore clinical cases
and are suggestive of therapeutic approaches to behavioural disorders. More useful to this study is their observation that:

“Each metaphor has assumptions about the best way to live within the metaphor; the unified and integrated selves refer to a higher being or self; the multiple selves to a connected, sociocultural being.”

(Hoskins and Leseho, 1996, p.251)

This insight suggests that the system already contains social, cultural and ‘spiritual’ categories, but might be significantly extended to include other metaphor categories for example, Philosophy, Dialogue and Identity.

Combining views from different disciplines and application areas in the way suggested above is difficult; Wertsch et al, remark on the general inability of specialist researchers in different fields to speak to one another. They argue that, with few exceptions, it is almost impossible to produce integrative pictures of complex phenomenon across the different languages of disciplines (Wertsch et al, 1995, p 2) and this tendency towards specialism and fragmentation is no less true for the literature on self-concept. However, it is possible to survey an extensive field of study, such as self-concept and change, and to create patterns for analysing what is being said, by following an approach taken by Sternberg who, in a major review of the literature on Intelligence, used metaphor labels to describe various theoretical approaches to the topic. Sternberg states the case for this approach clearly:

“I believe it is difficult to understand the history of theoretical work on intelligence and how the different approaches to intelligence interrelate unless one understands past and present theories in terms of their underlying metaphors.”

(Sternberg, 1997, p.5)

If this is true for intelligence, then it should be no less true for self-concept; accordingly, the review will next consider Sternberg’s approach to metaphor and then consider how it is possible to address the use of metaphor, in relation to self-concept, across a variety of sources.
Sternberg's approach

To begin with, it is important to note that Sternberg systematically mapped metaphors about intelligence onto a Triarchic framework representing the interior, exterior and boundary regions of an individual’s world (Sternberg, 1997, p x-xi). Sternberg was interested to know how theories of intelligence could vary within, as well as across, different metaphors, in particular he asked: “What is intelligence as viewed from the standpoint of a particular metaphor?” In order to construct a synopsis of the major metaphors for intelligence, Sternberg asked a number of questions and systematically charted his findings e.g. for any particular metaphor; “What is the major supposition or question; what is the major derivative question; what are the typical theories and theorists?” (Sternberg, 1997, p.4).

Table 1 below, shows that Sternberg developed six metaphor groups plus an overall ‘system’ category that he described as: “an attempt to bring together various other metaphors by viewing intelligence in terms of a complex interaction of various cognitive and other systems” (Sternberg, 1997, p.261). In developing this methodology, one of Sternberg’s explicit aims was to clarify what questions could and could not be addressed by particular theories because of the limitations of the metaphors upon which they are predicated.
### Table 1  
Sternberg’s six metaphor groups for intelligence – plus an overall ‘systems’ category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sternberg’s Metaphors</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geographic</td>
<td>A theory of intelligence provides a map of the mind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computational</td>
<td>Mind as a computing device</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological</td>
<td>Intelligence as a functioning of the brain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemological</td>
<td>Intelligence based on Piaget’s method of theorizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropological</td>
<td>Intelligence as a cultural invention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociological</td>
<td>How socialization affects the development of intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems</td>
<td>Intelligence in terms of the interaction of multiple Systems</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Self-concept: mapping metaphors and meanings using Sternberg’s methodology

The review now addresses the use of metaphor, in relation to self-concept, across the wider social sciences literature. The aim is to attempt a grouping or classification of the metaphors in order to express ideas about a possible meta-
theoretic contextualisation of self-concept. This would be one that can, eventually, involve the idea of a systemic form of construction and operation.

The notion of self-concept as something that derives from, or is influenced by, internal, external and interface factors (as suggested above in the context of intelligence) has considerable face validity in terms of self-concept too. Accordingly, this idea will be used, initially, as a basis for organising self-concept metaphors. The social sciences literature contains many allusions and metaphors relating to self-concept and particular schools and writers have developed their own particular metaphors. With Sternberg’s approach, referred to earlier, in mind it is possible to reduce the vast quantity of references to self-concept down to manageable proportions. The process begins by asking how different writers (and their metaphors) address the following three questions:

1. What is the relationship of self-concept to the *internal world* of the individual?
2. What is the relationship of self-concept to the *external world* of the individual?
3. What is the relationship of self-concept to the *boundary* between the two?

By systematically following the method above, it is possible to group together major writers and theories concerning self and self-concept and to give each grouping a 'label' or a name suggestive of a theme, source or field of enquiry within which they are located e.g. metaphor labels such as geographic, taxonomic, dialogical. Whilst it is acknowledged that some of the labelling may be problematic or disputed, overall, a pattern is discernable, and is suitable as a starting point for further discussion and research. A brief description of each metaphor grouping is given below. Following this, a comparison is made between the findings for self-concept in this study with the original metaphor groupings for intelligence used by Sternberg, see Table 7 further below.
Metaphors relating to the internal world of the individual

Three broad categories or groups of writers concern themselves with the internal aspects of self-concept. The first, the geographic metaphor, is concerned with all those approaches to self-concept that deal with the skills and abilities that a person could be said to possess or have developed. Second, the biological metaphor concerns itself with those aspects of being conscious and self-aware about self-concept that have their origins within the ‘living body’ of the person. The third metaphor labelled biographical and narrative, covers all the stories and personal history that the person carries with him/her. These metaphors also suggest three different systemic aspects of the self; abilities and skills as the structural qualities of the individual; feelings and conscious awareness as the holistic or design qualities of the person and the individual life story resulting from a creative process involving biography, narrative and reflection. Representative fields, and contributors to these metaphors are summarised in Table 2 below. A brief description of the key writers and ideas within the internal metaphor group can be found in Appendix 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metaphor (Internal)</th>
<th>Derivative Question</th>
<th>Typical Theories</th>
<th>Typical Theorists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geographic</td>
<td>What form does a map of self-concept take?</td>
<td>Structural Models</td>
<td>(Marsh and Hattie, 1996), (Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton, 1976)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>(Sternberg, 1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological</td>
<td>How do the anatomy and physiology of the brain and the central nervous system relate to self-concept?</td>
<td>Mind Mapping Function &amp; Structure Feelings &amp; Awareness</td>
<td>(Carter, 1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Sacks, 1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biographical /Narrative</td>
<td>How is the personal &quot;story&quot; of self-concept expressed and understood by Individuals?</td>
<td>Biographic Self Possible Selves Life Span Developmental Transition Reflective Practice Narrative</td>
<td>(MacLure, 1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Markus and Nurius, 1986)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Sugarman, 1996)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Lankard, 1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Schon, 1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Bruner, 1990)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Metaphors relating to the external world of the individual

Three broad categories or groups of writers concern themselves with the external aspects of self-concept. The *taxonomic* metaphor covers all those approaches to self-concept dealing with the creation of identity e.g. the classification of self and others in terms of difference and similarity. The *anthropological* metaphor deals with the relationship between culture and self-concept. The *sociological* metaphor is concerned with those aspects of self-concept that are tied into the social roles and performances of individuals.

These three metaphors also highlight the systemic qualities of self-concept; identity as a *structural* component of self; culture providing the broad ‘blueprint’ for the holistic or *design* qualities of the person; the expectations and associated behaviours of others creating a *process* for the performance of roles. Representative fields and contributors to these metaphors are shown in Table 3 below. A brief description of the key writers and ideas within the external metaphor group can be found in Appendix 2.
Table 3  Metaphors relating to the external world of the individual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metaphor (External)</th>
<th>Derivative Question</th>
<th>Typical Theories</th>
<th>Typical Theorists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sociological</td>
<td>How are social processes implicated in making self-concept operational?</td>
<td>Symbolic Interactionism</td>
<td>(Mead, 1934)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dramaturgical Models</td>
<td>(Goffman, 1959)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ethno Methodology</td>
<td>(Garfinkle, 1967)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropological</td>
<td>How far is self-concept a cultural artefact?</td>
<td>Construction of Meaning</td>
<td>(Bruner, 1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Individual &amp; Society</td>
<td>(Maslow, 1968)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Culture &amp; Biology</td>
<td>(Malinowskii, 1944)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxonomic/ Indexical</td>
<td>On what basis do individuals lay claim to a social identity?</td>
<td>Social Identity Theory</td>
<td>(Tajfel, 1981)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Identity Theory (Roles)</td>
<td>(Stryker, 1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Taxonomic</td>
<td>(Deaux, 2000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Metaphors relating to the internal and external world of the individual (the Boundary)

Three broad categories or groups of writers concern themselves with the internal and external aspects of self-concept. This way of conceptualising self-concept also employs the metaphor of the ‘boundary’, that region which is partly interior, partly exterior and which opens up further analogies concerning barriers, transfers and crossings.

First, the social-self metaphor covers all those approaches to self-concept dealing with a person’s unique sense of individuality. These theories are structural in nature and are developed using instruments similar to those in the geographic and social-self contexts. Second, the philosophical metaphor is concerned with the construction of meaning and a search for understanding the nature of conscious awareness and self-awareness. These understandings form a kind of epistemological framework that gives meaning and direction, i.e. a pattern for living, to the individual’s life world. Finally, the dialogical metaphor derives from those writers who explore the multiple nature of self-concept, arising out of dialogical processes and therefore this metaphor will stress the dynamic, process driven, aspect of self. Representative fields and contributors to these metaphors are shown in Table 4 below. A brief description of the key writers and ideas within the internal metaphor group can be found in Appendix 3.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metaphor (Internal &amp; External)</th>
<th>Derivative Question</th>
<th>Typical Theories</th>
<th>Typical Theorists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philosophical</td>
<td>How does self-concept emerge from the mind-body relationship?</td>
<td>Consciousness as mind</td>
<td>(Searle, 1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Multiple drafts model of consciousness</td>
<td>(Dennett, 1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Values &amp; Ethics</td>
<td>(Hospers, 1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogical</td>
<td>How is self-concept created through discourse and dialogue</td>
<td>The Plural Self</td>
<td>(Bakhtin, 1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dialogical Self</td>
<td>(Shotter, 1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Positioning</td>
<td>(Hermans, 1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Harré and Van Langenhove, 1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Self</td>
<td>How does the interplay of experience &amp; inheritance affect self-concept in terms of personality and individual difference?</td>
<td>Trait</td>
<td>(Eysenck, 1953)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Psychoanalytic</td>
<td>(Cattell, 1963)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social Learning</td>
<td>(Kelly, 1955)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Humanistic</td>
<td>(Jung, 1923)</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Bandura, 1977)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Rogers, 1967)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>(Maslow, 1968)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Self-concept: The ecological metaphor

A further metaphor of interest, which represents a growing, though disparate, body of literature, explores the idea of the person as a ‘system’ linked into a wider network of systems. Ecology is the science and discipline that explores the *interactive* relationship between people and their environment; its perspective is necessarily systems based, global and dynamic, and for those reasons, this group of writers and writing will be combined within the umbrella of *the ecological metaphor*. This metaphor addresses the question: how is self-concept regulated as a system?

The ecological metaphor contains a number of contributions from seemingly separate fields of study that are, nonetheless, connected. Representative fields and contributors to these metaphors are shown in Table 5. A brief description of the key writers and ideas within the Internal Metaphor group can be found in Appendix 4.
Table 5  Metaphors relating to the ecological world of the individual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metaphor Question</th>
<th>Typical Theories</th>
<th>Typical Theorists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Ecological) How is self-concept developed and regulated as a system</td>
<td>Cybernetic definitions of life</td>
<td>(Korzeniewski, 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autopoietic Self</td>
<td>(Capra, 1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Regulation</td>
<td>(Maturana and Varela, 1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dynamic Self-Concept</td>
<td>(Ford, 1987)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Schunk and Zimmerman, 1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Markus and Wurf, 1987)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Self-Concept Metaphors  Sternberg developed six metaphor groups plus an overall ‘system’ category in his classification of metaphors within the literature on intelligence. Within this study, however, ten metaphor groups have been identified; nine for specific approaches to self-concept plus an overall ‘systems’ category based on an ‘ecological’ view of self-concept as a self-regulating system. The degree of overlap is interesting, both approaches are comparable in five metaphors and both have an overall category based on systemic features.

A comparison table (Table 6) showing the similarities and differences between the metaphor groups for intelligence and self-concept can be found in Appendix 5.
Self-concept: a systems perspective

Sternberg’s triarchic system represents one way of categorising metaphors relating to self-concept, there is another way, however, that has significance for this study. The literature review for this thesis, see Appendix 4 in particular, provides examples of the way in which human life operates as a set of self-organised, self-regulating systems, (Maturana and Varela, 1980), and in this study, self-concept too is presented as having systemic properties, in particular that it has structure, pattern and also process properties. By structure is meant – what is the system composed of, what are its constituent parts? Pattern or design (Gestalt) involves the way in which the parts are assembled or connected; and process refers to the way in which the system overall is ‘powered’ or provided with some form of dynamic in its operation. To suggest that self-concept is a ‘system’ therefore is to imply that it has structure, pattern and process, and that these elements can be expressed theoretically as models and/or investigated empirically. The development of the self-concept metaphor groups, as above, has already introduced these system based concepts by suggesting that writers about self can be grouped according to the way they contribute towards an understanding of structure e.g. abilities and skills, personality and identity; pattern e.g. feelings and conscious awareness, mind, values and beliefs, and culture; and process e.g. narrative, dialogue and social role performance. The thesis suggests, therefore, that Sternberg’s Triarchic Theory can be combined with the generic features of any system to provide a dynamic framework for examining metaphors concerning self-concept. By using this framework for thinking about self-concept, the metaphors derived for self-concept can now be arranged according to their relationship with system features and boundary features; Table 7 below, groups the metaphors accordingly within a ‘metaphor matrix’ that can be used as a synoptic overview of the field or domain of self-concept.

The self-concept metaphors can now be looked at in several different ways, along the rows, up and down the columns, or as ‘blocks’ of ideas either in total, the whole matrix, or as smaller groups of cells. Each way of reading Table 7 should stimulate ideas and perspectives about self-concept.
Table 7: A conceptual framework encompassing metaphors concerning self-concept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inner World of Self</th>
<th>Interface</th>
<th>External World of Self</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Abilities &amp; Skills</td>
<td>Personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEOGRAPHIC METAPHOR</td>
<td>SOCIAL SELF</td>
<td>METAPHOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern (Design)</td>
<td>Feelings &amp; Conscious Awareness</td>
<td>Mind, Values &amp; Beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIOLOGICAL METAPHOR</td>
<td>PHILOSOPHICAL METAPHOR</td>
<td>ANTHROPOLOGICAL METAPHOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Individual Life Story</td>
<td>Dialogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NARRATIVE METAPHOR</td>
<td>DIALOGICAL METAPHOR</td>
<td>SOCIOLOGICAL METAPHOR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 can be used to express ideas and understandings about different aspects of self-concept. Displayed like this, the interconnected nature of self-concept becomes very clear, each part impacts on all of the others, there is no 'top' or 'bottom' and it resembles a matrix more than a hierarchy. Whilst it is acknowledged immediately that the coding and allocation process of metaphors to a position within the table can be challenged, what it does is to present a more holistic, global and unified perspective on self-concept than is usually managed within specialised literatures. Within this analytical framework, the dimension running from internal to external connects, rather than divides, specialist literatures on self-concept; at the same time, the allocation of literatures between structure, pattern and process, focuses attention on the
interconnected and networked (modular) nature of the ‘architecture’ of self-concept. The matrix in Table 7, however, represents an essentially ‘descriptive’ view of self-concept. If the ‘process’ properties of self-concept are to have real meaning in its operation, then the systemic nature of self-concept will need to be examined in more detail in order to understand what it is that will power the system and give it a dynamic life of its own. To explore the dynamics of self-concept, therefore, the systemic properties of the self are reviewed next.

The systemic nature of self-concept

The foundation ideas for this chapter are examined in detail in Appendix 4, the Ecological View of Self-Concept. In this chapter, the systemic nature of self-concept is reviewed briefly as a way of linking Table 7 into the conceptual framework for the research and to set the scene for a more detailed review of self-regulation.

All living things are examples of unitary, organised, dynamical systems in which “the product of its operation is its own organization” (Maturana and Varela, 1980, p.82) and a defining feature of all dynamical systems is self-organisation, a process that enables the system to exist and maintain itself, in a stable state, away from equilibrium, for long periods of time (Capra, 1996, p.112), (Korzeniewski, 2001, p.279). These views and understandings derive from systems work by Bertalanffy who suggested that “living systems are ‘open’ systems which maintain themselves in a ‘steady state’ far from equilibrium by a continual ‘flow/exchange’ of energy with the environment” (Bertalanffy, 1968, p.84). Because the natural equilibrium state for a human is death, over an entire lifetime, from conception to old age, the individual has to work very hard to stay alive; the ‘process of daily living’, therefore, is an important idea in this thesis and the term is used to describe all those actions and intentions designed to satisfy individual, and collective, daily needs and to ensure long term survival, (Roper, 1985). The process of daily living is how the self and the life-world are kept together; however, the process of daily living is concerned with much more than just keeping ‘body and soul’ together. Biologically, the human system is dissipative in nature; if left alone, it will literally disintegrate (Prigogine and Stengers, 1984, in Korzeniewski, 2001 p.275). However, in the case of human
existence, the opposite appears to be the case; psychologically, humans grow, develop and reconstruct themselves, people are not only self-organising, they are self-constructing, living systems too (Ford, 1987). Self-organising, self-regulating, self-constructing, these are the signature properties of the human condition physically, cognitively and meta-cognitively; for that reason, self-regulation is examined next.

Self-regulation

Self-regulation (SR) provides explanatory power within the natural and the social sciences, however, within the two domains, the emphasis as to how the concept is used is different. In the natural sciences, SR is closely allied with self-organisation (SO) and is concerned with the developmental and maintenance aspects of living and non-living systems, e.g. maintenance of larger scale ecological systems at or near equilibrium, or the unfolding process involved as an embryo transforms into an independent adult organism. The concept is clearly systems based, applications are explored using feedback models, and its theoretical foundations lie within control theory. The theory of control is an information science that bridges the natural and social sciences and thus has been termed “the art of being and doing, it is inseparable from life itself” (Gosling, 1994, p.7).

Within the social sciences, the literature on SR and self-regulation of learning (SRL) is extensive and growing fast; Boekaerts (2003) notes the ‘explosion’ of models of SRL in the last decade and Eekelen et al, (2005) suggests that definitions of SRL have become more ‘encompassing’ over the last 30 years although they still tend to locate the core of SRL within “a conscious and independent effort to direct the process of learning towards selected learning goals” (p.452). Undoubtedly, SR has established itself within social theory and psychological theory over the past 40-50 years; its development, however, has been fragmented rather than uniform, with applications appearing within specialist literatures that do not, usually, communicate easily with one another (an issue noted earlier above in the discussion of possible selves).
Two examples in the field of social theory illustrate the situation. First, the work of Anthony Giddens on Structuration Theory presupposed a relationship between social structure and human agency in which the relationship is driven by SR and is autopoietic in nature. Giddens acknowledged the influence of the biological sciences, generally, on his work, and Baert rates the similarities between his theories and the work of Maturana as “striking” (Baert, 1998, p.103); although Giddens’ terminology was different and did not explicitly make links to the root ideas, both Giddens and Maturana “drew attention to the mechanisms by which systems or structures ensure their own reproduction” (Baert, 1998, p.104). The second example relates to the work of Niklas Luhmann on functionalist theories of society; Luhmann’s starting point was the system and his contribution was in the form of systems-theoretical arguments about structural functionalism. Luhmann’s application of systems theory, and his extensive use of SR mechanisms founded in autopoietic principles, was more deliberate and explicit than Giddens, however, the complexity of his writing and the fact that his work was in German, inhibited the spread of his ideas, more generally, into the English speaking world (Vanderstraeten, 2000, p 2-5). More recently, and in contrast to the access issues concerning Luhman’s work, Mary Mavrinac has undertaken a comparative study of her grounded theory, Protecting Self: Experiencing Organizational change, with autopoiesis, a biological theory of living systems, (Mavrinac, 2006). This work demonstrates a growing theoretical and philosophical interest in the self as system, in the context of self-referentiality, self-maintenance, circularity, individuality and the maintenance of identity.

In psychological research, SR theories and references have been appearing more frequently across the literature since the 1960s, however, the use of systems theoretical views remains sporadic, specialist and contested. In some respects, the situation for SR resembled the emerging trajectory of ideas about self-concept in that the literature was growing fast, there were overlapping and yet contradictory views about fundamental issues, and the perspective across the field appeared confusing and confused. As a direct response to the situation, Boekaerts et al, (2000) reviewed and consolidated a wide range of views on SR and organised the field into three areas; SR as applied to many or most aspects of human behaviour, domain specific research in the fields of
educational, health and organisational psychology, and SR constructs used to improve practice in some way (Boekarts et al, 2000, p.4).

Looking first at educational settings and contexts, self-regulation was associated with particular personal characteristics e.g. goal attainment, motivation, efficacy and autonomy; typically, SR would be explained as systematic efforts to direct individual behaviours towards the fulfilment of personal goals, (Zimmerman, 1994, 2000); or, as in a recent review of Learners and Learning, Judy Ireson links self-regulation, motivation and meta-cognition within the overall proposition that “learners are thinkers and problem solvers who are able to take control of their own learning” (Ireson, 2008, p.19). This emphasis on goal oriented behaviours, learner autonomy and independence reflects a position on SRL that has developed over the past 20-30 years and has been chronicled and developed along the way by Pintrich and Schunk (2002), Zimmerman and Schunk (2001), Zimmerman (1998, 2002) and Garcia and Pintrich (1994).

Meta-cognition, in turn, involves reflection and some skill in carrying out reflective practice. In the context of examining literary character, in a project he calls the “invention of the human”, Harold Bloom captures very well the reflective essence of self-regulation in his proposition that in Shakespeare, characters develop, rather than unfold, and they develop because they reconceive themselves. This happens because they sometimes overhear themselves talking, either to themselves or to others, and in so doing find their own “royal road” to individuation (Bloom, 1999, p.xvii). In the context of self-regulation within a particular learning activity, for example, it is here that the difference between ‘unfolding’ and ‘development’ becomes evident, one is automatic in nature, and the other involves a degree of meta-cognitive action and activity. Zimmerman makes the point explicitly:

“Self-regulation refers to the degree that individuals are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active participants in their own learning process”

(Zimmerman, 1994, p.3)
This is the equivalent of learners ‘overhearing’ their own engagement with the learning task and changing (reconceiving) their behaviour accordingly. In educational settings and situations, therefore, self-regulation ensures a core ‘stability’ that is capable of holding the system together, whilst still allowing change to happen (Markus & Wurf, 1987, p.306). Overall, the importance of meta-cognition and reflection within models and applications of SR is now well established.

Within the organisational behaviour literature, Klein (1989) reviewed a wide range of motivational and control theory models presenting an integrated theory of work motivation with explicit use and references to systems and control theory. The meta-theory that Klein developed incorporated cognitive components, attribution and expectancy theories that made the framework less mechanical and more flexible and dynamic; the model views goals and feedback as dual processes, and focuses on self-regulation and the underlying cognitive mechanisms of motivation, a useful way of thinking about change in relation to self-concept (Klein, 1989, p.169).

Overall, theories of self-regulation make use of self-concept to link motivation and learning theory in order to provide dynamic explanations for learners’ behaviours. Self-regulation, as a term used in this thesis, however, encompasses more than just the strategies and approaches used in learning tasks in academic settings as described by Zimmerman as above. Self-regulation has a much broader, fundamental role across the internal – external dimensions of self, also the individual – cultural dimensions of society. Self-regulation is seen as a cognitive and physical process by which the self and the life-world are maintained and changed. Self-regulation can operate without conscious effort (as in the homeostatic regulation of the body) but also at a conscious level through the process of reflection, reflexive action and some form of recursive decision making: (Argyris and Schon, 1974), (Schon, 1983) (Kolb, 1984), (Boud et al, 1996), (Riding and Rayner, 2001). It is significant that my knowledge about self-regulation within the humanities/psychology literature was stimulated by the literature within the biological/physical sciences (described earlier above) as well as more academic reading and understandings concerning learning styles and cognitive styles. In that respect,
the thesis offers an integrative view of self-regulation across the natural and the social sciences. There are, however, issues concerning the relationship between SR and SRL, and these are considered next.

In the literatures dealing specifically with academic learning, self-regulation (SR) and self-regulated learning (SRL) have been treated as if they are interchangeable concepts or topics. This may be unproblematic in many cases; however, this thesis envisions a wider and more encompassing role for SR in the process of every day living and across the life span, and suggests that SR can be viewed as a more generic, multi-agency, process. Deci and Ryan (2000), for example, differentiate between regulatory processes, goal contents, and the satisfaction of different needs within their exposition of Self-Determination Theory (SDT); furthermore, in line with other theories of SDT, they make a clear distinction between "the content of goals or outcomes and the regulatory processes through which the outcomes are pursued" (p.227). This separation is important and highlights the idea that there are a number of regulatory processes associated with life and living and not all of these may be linked with the accomplishment of academic type tasks. Whilst reviewing a number of theories of motivation, and their points of convergence and divergence, Deci and Ryan credit Social-Learning Theory, Terror Management Theory, and Control Theory, as three important contributors to the recent rebirth of motivation theory generally and self-regulation in particular, (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p.256-259). They also note that cybernetic focused control theories, particularly as formulated by Carver and Scheier (1998, 2000), tend to be more concerned with the how of goal pursuit, rather than the what or why of goal selection (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p.258), this makes the work of writers such as Carver and Scheier particularly relevant for this thesis. The thesis has a strong interest in regulatory processes as applied to the development of self-concept, e.g. the how of personal goal management as applied to the relationship between the actual and the ideal self; and whilst all interactions with the environment promote some form of learning, this should be considered in a more inclusive context than simply ‘academic’ learning. The thesis, therefore, locates the discussion about SR within a broad context concerning self-concept, a context in which SRL plays an important, but not the only, role. The close
relationship between SR and self-concept is the focus, therefore, of the closing sections on self-regulation.

A notable feature of recent SR models (as evidenced in the converging nature of a number of theories and meta-theories mentioned above) is the growing emphasis on self-construction and maintenance, and also the role of affect (Boekaerts, 2003). In a study that has relevance for this thesis, Morf and Rhodewalt (2001), formulated “a conceptualization of narcissism as a self-regulatory processing system that is socially intelligent in that it specifies goals and strategies” (p.192). Their model attempts to understand the strategic interplay of a number of interpersonal and intra-personal elements (cognitive, affective and social units) and the way in which these can be organised into ‘relatively stable configurations, i.e. the self as a system. Their framework explains “how apparently paradoxical and contradictory components can coexist coherently within the same person in a meaningfully organised pattern”. The ability of self-concept to hold contradictory views, and for some parts to change whilst other aspects remain unchanged, is a topic of particular interest within this thesis and their model, reproduced below, suggests how self-knowledge about self-concept operates as a system.

**Figure 2** Self-regulatory processing frameworks for the study of personality dispositions (or type).

Source: Morf and Rhodewalt, 2001, p.182, with permission from Taylor & Francis
The model shows intra- and interpersonal self-regulation operating through reciprocal interaction; the (narcissistic) self is “shaped by the interplay of dynamic self-processes and the larger social system within which it functions.” (Morf and Rhodewalt, 2001, p.182). This dynamical view of self-concept, with internal, external and boundary features, plus reciprocity and feedback, fits well with the conceptual framework developed in this thesis. Where the frameworks differ is that the Morf and Rhodewhalt model is developed for a specific study of narcissism, whereas, the thesis posits self-regulation more generally as the way of holding together actual and (many) possible selves, whilst allowing each of these to develop and change independently.

In recommending directions and challenges for future research into self-regulation, Zeidner et al, (2000) highlighted a number of issues that needed urgent attention:

- A structured taxonomy for self-regulation constructs.
- Identification of the elements and steps involved in the process of self-regulation.
- Mapping a nomological network of self-regulation and other constructs, such as intelligence.
- Construction of more processual based models.
- The determination of the optimal unit of metric to measure components of self-regulation.
- The construction of valid measures and research designs.
- The impact of sociocultural factors and context on self-regulation.
- The transfer of self-regulatory skills from one situation to the next.
- The development of self-regulatory skills over time.
- Examining individual differences in self-regulatory skills.

(Zeidner, Boekaerts, Pintrich, 2000, Ch 23)

There are two aspects of this list that are germane to this thesis; first, many of these issues apply equally well to self-concept research, for example, Demo argued that:
“We must measure self-concept as both a structure and a process i.e. a dynamic structure that responds to situational stimuli, incorporates new elements, rearranges, adjusts and stabilizes temporarily before encountering new stimuli and undergoing further revisions” (Demo, 1992, p.322).

This definition requires self-regulation to be an important, if not central, part of the operation and Zeidner’s action list would still make sense by substituting the term self-concept for self-regulation for a number of the items. Much is known about what SR and self-concept are capable of doing, the question is, how do they do these things? Second, the inclusion of key concepts such as meta-cognition, goal orientation, valence, expectancy and evaluation, within the remit of studies on self-regulation, draws SR and self-concept ever closer together, both conceptually and practically. Meta-cognition, for example, plays a major role within both constructs. In many respects, a study of self-concept essentially becomes a study of self-regulation.

In summary, we can note that Capra (1996) elaborated on the concept of self-regulation and self-organisation and developed his notion of a ‘web of life’ supporting living things, especially human beings, through structural coupling with the environment. Structural coupling suggests that each being or person is a system that has its own boundary, and exchanges across the boundary will involve physical, social and intellectual dimensions that are needed to support the process of daily living. Exchanges across the boundary are also synonymous with learning. This is the essence of the autopoietic self (Maturana and Varela, 1980 in Capra, 1996, p.214) and it finds resonance in the 3 X 3 self-concept matrix, used to examine the systems, internal, external and interface properties of self-concept, as shown above in Table 7. If self-concept and self-regulation are both part of the autopoiesis, what is required now, is to introduce the element that will link the two and provide the power for the autopoietic process.
Introducing dynamics (process) into self-concept: Revisiting possible selves

Up to this point, the literature review has established a framework for examining self-concept that is comprehensive though essentially descriptive in nature. In this final section, the review now revisits and re-introduces possible selves as the mechanism that has the capability for ‘powering’ the system and thus providing the dynamic (process) element to complement structure and design.

Possible selves can be used to show how self and the life-world operate in terms of agency, transformation and direction. Inside the life-world, the idea of possible selves provides a powerful mechanism, or ‘incentive’, for influencing individual action (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Possible selves represent imagined possibilities and potential states of being and some of these will be desired and others less so, or actually feared. Accordingly, individuals will regulate their behaviour and actions in order to achieve desired possible selves and to avoid other, less desirable, possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.954). Possible selves have been described as a cognitive-bridge between the plans of the now self and the future self (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.961), (Hoskins and Leseho, 1996, p.247); this bridging or regulatory connection between the two domains plays an important role in the conceptual framework developed for the thesis. The visualisation of the future self influences the operation of the current ‘working self-concept’ (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p.957), therefore, possible selves should play a central, systemic, role in the operation (self-regulation) of self-concept on a day-to-day basis. The idea of self-regulation and its connection with possible selves is illustrated below in Figure 3.
In Figure 3 the autopoietic self operates within its own ‘boundary’, which can be taken to be the life-world, and at the heart of the process, self-regulation holds together actual self and one or more possible selves. As time goes by and the life-course moves through infancy to old age, windows of opportunity will open and then close for a whole constellation of possible selves. Not all possible selves will be equally desirable, or even if desirable, considered worthwhile or achievable; therefore, the regulation of possible selves will need some form of evaluative criteria to help in making choices e.g. choices concerning developmental life tasks. How is choice exercised?

One set of ideas drawn from a study of the process of motivation theory is particularly relevant here; Vroom and Lawler in the 1960s examined workers ideas about the perceived realities of their working lives and developed what became known as “Expectancy Theory”. The core of Expectancy Theory relates to how a person perceives the relationships between three things – effort, performance and rewards. The strength of the attraction of a particular outcome (e.g. some possible self) is termed valence, whereas the degree of belief that a particular act (e.g. a developmental life task) will produce a particular outcome, is termed expectancy. Valences and expectancies will depend on the individual’s perception of a situation particularly the estimation of effort required (Vroom, 1964), and this perceptual, reflexive, understanding about the chances of a life task leading or contributing to, a desired possible self is an important part of the self-regulation process. Valence and expectancy, therefore, would provide the evaluative component of possible selves necessary for decisions.
concerning choice of action. In that sense a possible self is also a probable self because some futures are desirable but thought to be unattainable, whereas other futures are (more) easily attainable but are not wanted. Valence and expectancy, therefore, would provide the evaluative, probabilistic, component of possible selves necessary for decisions concerning choice of action, for example, in terms of becoming a teacher and pursuing further professional development as a teacher. Valence, expectancy (and calculations about effort) would also constitute key components of a 'Theory of Self' e.g. understandings about how the person came to be who and what they are.

Finally, Figure 3 also shows self-concept (schematically) as a 'modular' system; actual self is one module, possible self is another. Each module is composed of a number of sub-modules e.g. various facets of the actual self, various kinds of possible self. Each can change independently of the other, however, changes in one can affect the other interactively. The totality of interactions is managed through the process of self-regulation, that is, engaging with developmental life-tasks so as to affect the evolving nature, and trajectory, of the life-world. Changes to parts e.g. skills, roles, identity, can take place, whilst allowing the individual to maintain a consistent, integrated, sense of self. In this kind of system, stasis and change are both possible.

The conceptual framework: Accommodating stasis and change in a dynamic, explanatory model of self-concept

In summary, and taking the broad sweep of all these ideas together, the thesis proposes a conceptual framework portraying self-concept as an autopoietic, networked and modular, structure (involving actual or current self-concept plus a number of possible selves, as the 'modules') that is held together as a dynamical system, through a process of self-regulation. See Figure 3 above. Within this framework, actual and possible selves can change independently, or together, in such a way that changes to the parts can lead to changes elsewhere, but need not necessarily change the structure as a whole. The associated life-world of an individual can be thought of as an evolving structure.
that is maintained and/or changed through engagement in various kinds of developmental life tasks linked to a process of self-regulation. An imagined ‘morphology’ of self-concept defined in this way would involve a *dimension* ranging from the internal (the person) to the external (the environment) passing through some interface, or intermediary, position. As a *system*, like any other system, self-concept would also be characterised by structure (components), pattern (design) and process (dynamic). Self-concept, (and the associated life-world) therefore, can change and develop and yet ‘stay the same’, thus providing the individual, in a reflective and reflexive way, with a personal sense of history, growth, continuity and change. These are the vital ingredients for any generic ‘theory of self’ that would allow a person to reflect on their own experience so as to become more capable of self-intervention and control (Harré, 1989).

This chapter has reviewed the literature relating to self-concept and presented a conceptual framework (Figure 3 above) that will inform the creation of a research question and an associated methodology. Chapter 3 will now examine how studies in the field of inquiry have approached the issue of researching self-concept. Chapter 3 ends with a statement of the main research question, and associated questions, and acts as the ‘link’ between the main review Chapter 2, and the description of the research methodology in Chapter 4.
Chapter 3
The Development of Self-Concept as a Teacher - Research Issues and Directions

Chapter 2 explored the way self-concept, as an idea in itself, has been researched, modelled and thought about historically, across a broad range of sources and disciplines. Chapter 3 will now focus on the way in which the development of self-concept as a teacher has been researched both conceptually and methodologically over the past 20-30 years and specifically within educational contexts and settings. The aim of this chapter is to show how other research and researchers’ have approached the topic generally, to identify studies that have particular relevance for this thesis, and to explain the choice of methodology and procedures adopted for the empirical study. The objective is to maintain an appropriate balance between methodological and theoretical issues so that the chapter can act as the ‘bridge’ between the theoretical review in Chapter 2, and the research methodology in Chapter 4.

Chapter 3 is organised into five sections that will show how the research literature was organised, analysed and used to inform the development of the thesis conceptual framework and the associated research questions.

Section 1 Deals briefly with concepts, metaphors and models relating to self-concept which contributed directly to the development of a research agenda for the empirical study.

Section 2 Reviews a number of longitudinal studies, with regard to method and topic, set in the context of teacher training and development of identity.

Section 3 Provides a detailed examination of selected studies dealing with self-concept and identity as a teacher.

Section 4 Proposes a practical strategy for researching the development of self-concept as a teacher.

Section 5 Summarises the key findings of Chapter 2 and proposes the conceptual framework and associated research questions that will inform the Research Methodology discussed in Chapter 3.
Section 1
Developing a conceptual framework from the literature

This section begins by examining two particular sources that provided important ideas about the way self-concept and identity as a teacher could be conceptualised, and ways in which the empirical study for the thesis might be shaped. In the first, Demo (1992) integrates social psychological, sociological and developmental research, to present self-concept as "a moving baseline with fluctuations across situations ... and life stages" (p.304). In the second, Stryker and Burke (2000) integrate two aspects of Identity Theory, one stressing the internal dynamics of self processes, the other how social structures impact on the structure of self and hence on social behaviour, in order to arrive at "behaviour that expresses identities, often in interaction with others" (p.288). This integrated view provides a focus for identity salience (internal view of self) and situational relevance (external view of self). The section then moves to a 'middle way' of conceptualising the self as teacher by assuming an equivalence between the terms self-concept and identity, (Oyserman, 2001 p.499) and then ends with a return to an important theme of the thesis, the use of metaphor as a way to conceptualise the self (Martinez et al, 2001).

Demo (1992) argued that self-concept possessed both structural and processual qualities and, whilst the structural properties of self-concept had received a good deal of attention, suggested that very little was known about the "social conditions responsible for change and stability in self-concept" (p.304). The reasons Demo gave for the continued shortfall in understanding were largely 'methodological' in nature e.g.

" (i) a pre-occupation with one shot measures of self-esteem
(ii) an overreliance (sic) on samples of adolescents and college students, and
(iii) the tendency to measure self-esteem in detached classroom and experimental situations"

(Demo, 1992, p.304)
In this way, (traditional) research methodologies had failed to address the paradox of stasis and change, i.e. that self-concept was both stable and dynamic; it also failed to address the way adult self-concept changes (or fails to change) in the world outside the research laboratory. By contrast, Demo offered a concept or proto-model of self-concept as a complex, dynamical, phenomenon that is both structure and process; “a moving baseline with fluctuations across situations ...and life stages” (p.304). The implications for methodology that I took from this analysis was that research into the development of self-concept as a teacher should (ideally) be longitudinal with multiple points of intervention, it should certainly focus on the real world of adults (teachers), it should also incorporate Demo’s idea of the ‘rolling baseline’, some kind of measure that could be tracked over time. Interestingly, although Demo stressed the twin systemic properties of structure and process as being important in the study of self-concept, he did not explicitly present self-concept as a ‘system’ in its own right.

Stryker and Burke (2000) also examined the way in which identity can be thought of as comprising structural and processual properties. In a move towards integrating the two parts of identity theory, Stryker and Burke suggested an interesting symmetry between internal and external origins of identity in terms of situated and cognitive explanations:

“The structural approach conceived identity in cognitive terms and understood that identities sought confirmation by finding or creating situations in which they could be expressed. The cognitive approach understood that identities were imbedded in and affected by social structural contexts. Both understood self as partially a structure of multiple identities. Both understood identities as linked to roles and to behavior (sic) through meanings.”

(Stryker and Burke, 2000, p.289)

The linking mechanisms suggested by Stryker and Burke operate in two ways; first, social structures affect the structure of self, which in turn affects social behaviour. The other approach is to focus on the internal (cognitive) dynamics of self-processes and the way in which these affect behaviour. These two perspectives informed the way in which the empirical study approached the development of teacher identity as something that is driven by internal and
external factors, also as something that is both structural and processual in nature. *Identity* as a concept has been favoured historically with two theoretical frameworks, Identity Theory and Social Identity Theory (Stryker and Burke, 2000, p.289), however, further consideration of the similarities and differences are beyond the scope and remit of this thesis and are not pursued here.

What was salient for the thesis, however, was Daphna Oyserman’s observation: “*Self-concept* and *Identity* provide answers to the basic questions “Who am I?” “Where do I belong?” and “How do I fit (or fit in)?” *Self-concept* and *identity* are what come to mind when we think of ourselves” (italics in original) (Oyserman, 2001, p.499).

These questions were considered relevant for a study of the development of self-concept, and the formation of identity as a teacher; and, following her example, the terms self-concept and identity are used interchangeably in this thesis. In line with Demo, and Stryker and Burke, Oyserman also presents self-concept as having structural and processual properties; “Developmental research suggests that self-concept is both a *basic tool* of cognitive and social development and an important *consequence* of this development” (Oyserman, 2001, p.504) (italics in original); Oyserman, however, does not explore self-concept as a system.

The ideas of Demo, Stryker and Burke, and Oyserman, accord not only with the idea of self-concept having structure and process properties, but also with the notion of an associated continuum of regulatory activities and processes linking the inner world of the person (involving self-regulatory activities through biological and cognitive processes) with the social or outer world of which the person is a part (involving external or environmental regulation of which the person may be aware or unaware). The idea of a continuum of regulatory processes matching a continuum of self-concept – from the inner to the outer world – is re-examined later in chapter 6.

With these basic terms clarified, the thesis turns now to examine a range of longitudinal studies set in the context of teacher training.
Section 2
A review of longitudinal and other studies set in the context of teacher training and development to identify aspects of method and topic content that have relevance for this study

In the light of the observations above, it was apparent that the empirical research for the thesis would need to consider the ways in which beginning and newly qualified teachers expressed their ideas about teacher identity and self-concept, in terms of cognition and situation, structure and process, perhaps using metaphor as a way to carry the ideas. Demo’s model or metaphor of self-concept as a ‘moving baseline’ added to a personal interest in ‘metaphor’ generally and this affected the way in which I was reading and interpreting the literature (see for example the impact of Sternberg’s work on the literature review in Chapter 2 above). In that context, therefore, the study by Martinez et al, (2001) concerning metaphors as blueprints for thinking about teaching and learning, was also influential in the development of this study. Martinez employed a metaphor to explain metaphorical thinking i.e. the idea that metaphors function as blue prints for professional thinking, and further, that the prevailing images and understandings contained in these blue prints constrain and channel our thoughts in a way that is like a “self-sustaining whirlpool”, itself a metaphor for self-regulation (p.965-966). In addition to the ideas about metaphors and the way they might ‘self-regulate’ thinking, however, the methodology had relevance for the study too. Martinez et al, (2001) undertook an extended, comparative, study of the way in which 50 experienced teachers, and 38 pre-service ‘prospective’ teachers, used and understood metaphors about teaching and learning. Martinez used group work and collaborative tasks to investigate situated and symbolic models of thinking and learning, and the study itself is an interesting example of how prospective teachers can be ‘inducted’ into the ‘community of teachers and teaching.’ The findings showed marked differences between experienced and prospective teachers in their use of metaphors to answer the question: ‘How do you understand learning?’ The experienced teachers used mainly behaviourist models of teaching and learning
with very few references to situated/socially-based metaphors; in contrast, the inexperienced teachers used fewer behaviourist and more socio-historic metaphors (p.973). Martinez et al, interpreted the findings in terms of the prevailing ‘competence based culture’ of teacher training, the differences in use between craft knowledge and prepositional knowledge; and the way in which teacher training favoured and elaborated explicit knowledge, whereas trainees were still guided by tacit knowledge. The study also showed the way in which understandings about learning were heavily influenced by the teachers’ ‘favoured educational metaphor’ e.g. the captain versus the entertainer (p.974).

Overall, the Martinez et al, study provided important ideas for ways to approach the design of an empirical study of self-concept as a teacher and the issues/questions that might be important e.g. how the structure of the training course impacted on the beginning teachers over time, what kind of metaphors (blue prints) beginning teachers use and how these might shift in the light of experience, how would the balance between craft and prepositional, explicit and tacit knowledge, shift over time? Alerted to these issues about method and metaphor, the wider search for appropriate methodologies to guide the thesis’ empirical study examined a number of studies that could be used to guide the construction of a research agenda.

(1) Larger-scale, narrative-based, longitudinal studies of teachers’ lives and professional practice: These tend to focus on the whole life of teachers, their career paths and particularly how they think about teaching, (Goodson, 1991, 1994, 1995); (Kelchtermans, 1993); (Gudmundsdottir and Kelchtermans, 2002). Of particular interest to this thesis, however, was a three-year study by So and Watkins (2005). This involved a longitudinal study placed in Hong Kong of how beginning primary school science teachers thinking changed from pre-service through to first year as classroom teachers. Data was gathered through interviews, concept maps describing lesson planning, lesson observations to assess practice, and analysis of reflection of teaching. So and Watkins found that their beginning teachers (BTs) believed in learners learning by observation and interpretation; however, they also believed that teachers should transmit knowledge. So and Watkins did not see this as a ‘contradiction’ more as “espousing complex and multiple views, which are described as predominant views and secondary views” (p.535). This duality resembles the contrary views
of the teacher trainers in Tillema and Kremer-Hayon (2002) who had to teach SRL strategies but did not always use SRL themselves believing that the needs of the course should have precedence. So and Watkins found that their BTs became more constructivist in their conceptions about teaching practice but needed mentoring support to continue that progression; most were able to undertake “confronting” reflection but only a few moved towards a “reconstructing” view of reflection as a way of improving their teaching practice. The personal tutor and supervising mentor were the most influential actors on the BT’s practice and there was evidence that BTs understood what was required in teaching practice but found it difficult to translate this into practice once in post (as NQT). The concluding remarks had considerable relevance and importance later for the interpretation of the findings in the empirical study for this thesis:

“The less desirable findings were that on entering the classroom the beginning teachers became more simplistic in their planning and less integrated (‘coherent’ in our terminology) in the different aspects of teacher thinking which were the focuses of the study. Further longitudinal research is necessary to see if these were just initial setbacks or if the realities of teaching may lead to further deterioration in their thinking and practices.”

(So and Watkins, 2005, p. 538-539)

There are a number of issues in this research that have relevance for this thesis:

- Why should BTs and NQTs views diverge on how they should teach vis a vis how students should learn?
- Why should BTs and NQTs views on how they would like to teach, and the way they actually teach, change once in post?
- Do NQTs invariably ‘regress’ in the way they think about teaching once they start teaching – why should their thinking become more simplistic and less coherent?
- What happens to reflective practice once NQTs are in post – does it inevitably decline and cease to drive improvements or changes in teaching practice?
- How important are the mentors and tutors who supervise teaching practice?
These questions are used to inform the thinking and background to data analysis and the discussion.

(2) **Smaller scale studies of beginning teachers in training:** The next three studies examined the progress of Beginning Teachers (BTs) through a variety of courses and situations connected with teacher training; they illustrate the broad focus of research on teachers' professional lives and learning, however, each one has a topic of particular interest for this research. First, Calderhead and Robson (1991) tracked 12 BTs through a BEd course charting the changing nature of 'teacher knowledge'. An important conclusion of the study concerned the way in which teachers' self-knowledge could be influenced and changed through the process of observation (of teaching practice). This underlined the central role of supervised teaching practice in the overall process of professional development and 'personal change'.

Next, continuing the theme of the importance of teaching practice, McNally et al (1994) examined the progress of 22 BTs on a ten-week course on teaching practice in terms of their teaching technique and performance. Their key finding was that belonging to a 'teaching community' had a dominant influence on self-concept, also, that teaching practice was perceived as a kind of 'initiation' into 'teacherhood'. These internal-external ideas about identity (i.e. rites of passage, initiation, community) are important to this thesis about the development of self-concept as a teacher, however, the whole notion of 'initiation' and 'teacherhood' has resonance with the experiences of other recruits joining close-knit communities such as the armed forces and the police. In the third study, Burke and Noller (1995) followed the progress of 25 BTs on a two-year teacher-training programme (Australia) focusing on the changing nature of the present and ideal self. Burke and Noller used teachers' perceptions of themselves, both inside and outside educational institutions, as elements for a repertory grid that was administered five times; interviews were also conducted. The 11 elements used have interest for this thesis in that they encompassed:

*Myself as a teacher, as a person, at work, as a student, as a family member, the teacher I’d like to be, the person I’d like to be, the*
student I'd like to be, the family member I'd like to be, my past self, Technical and Further Education (TAFE) students.

(Burke and Noller, 1995, p.217)

Whilst the methodology has professional interest for this study, it is the topic and the findings that have most relevance. The fact that research into aspects of actual and possible selves (referred to as present and ideal self by Burke and Noller) was happening in 1995 is interesting and encouraging, however, their study was focused on the notion of transition and change generally, and on “the content of self-construing of a group of people undergoing the same transition” in particular. Their findings, that trainees generally did not follow the stages of the Hopson and Adams (1976) model of transition, or the ‘usual concerns’ of BTs suggests that transition (change) does not have to follow, or be, a predetermined process; also, their tentative conclusions concerning the importance of social support from the group and the ‘collective’ experience, once again highlighted the importance of the community of practice concept in the development of self-concept (Burke and Noller, 1995, p.225).

The research interests and findings of these three smaller scale studies of BTs are all pertinent for this thesis, however, two issues stand out; the idea of a ‘teaching community’ or ‘teacherhood’ and the related notion of teaching practice as ‘initiation’. This perspective should alert the researcher to the significance and ‘meaning’ of teaching practice beyond that of skill acquisition; ‘initiation’ is a powerful idea involving belonging, insider status and acceptance, rather like baptism. It is not an aspect of ‘teacher training’ that is overtly emphasised by the training providers, but represents a part of the BT’s rite of passage to NQT and as such will be an important part of identity formation as a teacher.

(3) Smaller scale studies of experienced teachers in post: Although the thesis focus is on the development of self-concept in BTs, it is useful to see how other research with more experienced teachers presented different issues and findings.
In a study of teachers conceptions about the nature of teaching and learning, Boulton-Lewis et al, (2001) found that the dominant metaphors used by teachers to explain their understandings about what they could and should be doing, could also be detected in their classroom practice, for example, if teachers were working with a model of ‘transmission’ or ‘transformation’ as a way to think about teaching and learning. Munthe (2003) also worked with experienced teachers to examine their understandings of ‘best professional practice’. Munthe found plenty of evidence of teacher collaboration in the planning and preparation of lessons and lesson resources; in contrast, there was very little evidence of similar collaboration undertaken specifically to promote or enhance reflective practice. Where teachers did engage with reflective practice, this helped to integrate the different dimensions of teaching; this more holistic view of teaching was found to be a characteristic of the ‘excellent’ teachers studied by Kane et al, (2004). Another study of experienced teachers by Conway and Clark (2003) re-examined Fuller’s concerns-based model of teacher development, (Fuller and Case, 1969), and concluded that Fuller’s ‘outwards’ journey (from a concern with self as teacher to a greater concern with the learner) could be extended to include the ‘inwards’ journey (from concerns about managing classes to concerns about personal growth). The study introduced the notion that teacher ‘concerns’ may evolve in a cyclical way in the first few years of teaching and that studies with long intervals between measures may “have missed the subtle and more frequent variable and cyclic changes in teacher concerns both within and across years” (Conway and Clarke, 2003, p.478). This finding reoccurred later in the Watzke (2007) longitudinal study of BTs’ development from induction to joining the profession; Watzke found teachers concerns occurred in a cyclical, not chronological, way and that as they became more experienced they became increasingly concerned with managerial aspects of teaching. Taken together, these findings suggest that: staged developmental models of personal development should be challenged; that phases of development may well be cyclical or perhaps ‘spiral’ in nature with ‘concerns’ re-emerging or being revisited at intervals; that experienced teachers, for various reasons, become more concerned with managing (perhaps at the expense of pedagogy?). Timing and intervention too will need careful consideration when planning longer-term studies.
To conclude this selection of studies, it is useful to highlight two reports on SR and SRL because of their importance in understanding possible ways in which the development of self-concept can be managed. First, Tillema and Kremer-Hayon explored the way in which two groups of experienced teacher trainers (one Dutch, the other Israeli) understood and used SRL in their own practice, and the dilemmas and problems they had when introducing SRL into teaching contexts i.e. instructing BTs. Using in-depth interviews, transcripts and content analysis, the researchers found similarities and differences in the two groups. Both agreed that SRL was closely associated with reflective practice, however, the Dutch trainers saw SRL as a way of developing self-concept and therefore promoting professional development, whereas the Israeli trainers used meta-cognitive strategies and more collegiate activities to develop professionally (Tillema and Kremer-Hayon, 2002). These differences were interpreted as belonging to two different mirrors of SRL i.e. phenomenological vs. constructivist (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). There were also differences in the way the two groups perceived their own students’ SRL. The Dutch saw SRL as a way of developing practice theory; whereas, the Israeli teacher educators "stressed the self-efficacy and social cognitive aspects of learning" (p. 604). What is of interest to this thesis is the fact that experienced teacher trainers differed widely in the way they saw SRL operating, the way they practiced SRL themselves, and in the way they construed its value to students. Given the nationalities of the subjects, there may be cultural differences affecting the way self-concept is valued and interpreted e.g. as part of an independent or interdependent continuum (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). Tillema and Kremer-Hayon stressed the need for teacher trainers to be more self-aware of their own position on SRL (Tillema and Kremer-Hayon, 2002, p.605), and, in a reflexive way, this applies to the way that this thesis places SR and SRL within a particular meta-theoretic framework.

The second study of interest involving SR shows how experienced teachers in HE approached self-regulation in their every day practice. Eekelen et al, (2005) examined the use of SRL amongst experienced HE teachers using interviews and electronic diaries (email). The main aim of the study was to "empirically characterise the learning events of these teachers" (p.452) and one of the specific research questions was: How do HE teachers regulate their learning?
Van Eekelen reported that the study itself influenced the respondents' self-awareness of their own study habits, a strong reminder of the way in which the act of research affects the phenomenon under investigation. They found that most of the respondents learning experiences were unstructured and unplanned, and did not conform to the text book version of ‘experiential learning spirals.’ These subjects differed in their ability to self regulate their learning, not all showed ability to consciously self-regulate their learning experiences, all teachers were involved in spontaneous and non-linear learning and whilst they did not (generally) self regulate their learning, they did self regulate their teaching practices. (p.466-467). Overall, the findings were not what they expected:

“Our teachers seldom participated in training, reading, or other types of study...They seldom reported that they were engaged in conscious en (sic) structured reflection in order to construct practical knowledge...None of the teachers wrote us about intentional (systematic) investigation... Teachers learn by all kinds of day-to-day teaching experiences without planning this...These processes might not be self-regulated in order to learn as such, but firstly regulate (their improvement of) their teaching practice. Besides this self-regulation of their teaching practice with learning as a result, teachers also deliberately set aside time for self-regulated learning experiences.”

(Eekelen et al, 2005, p.466-467)

A recurring factor in these studies is the continuing uncertainty about the role of reflective practice generally and in relation to SR and SRL in particular. One of the key developments of the 1980s and 1990s teacher-training milieu, for example, was the rapid and comprehensive spread of the ‘reflective practitioner’ as a metaphor and model dominating both the learning process and the learning outcomes on teacher training courses. At this time, reflective practice had become the new orthodoxy and in 1993, Christopher Day described the teaching profession as being “at a cross roads” meaning that there was an opportunity for professional development to change focus, away from a preoccupation with content and knowledge, and towards new concerns for pedagogy and learning. In setting out the issues and the choices for the profession, however, Day also identified a major philosophical and practical problem — “We do not know how reflection leads to change” (italics in original). (Day, 1993, p.90-91). Overall, that uncertainty remains despite the continuing
importance of reflective practice within Initial Teacher Training (ITT) and Continuing Professional Development (CPD). A key topic to be addressed within the empirical study, therefore, would be the role of reflection in the training of teachers, and its impact on perceived changes in self-concept, and identity, as a teacher.

Being a student teacher is a demanding personal experience, a kind of ‘identity project’ that is ‘affectively charged’ (Hobson et al, 2008, p.427). Recognising that emotion is an important though problematic characteristic of the trainee teachers experience at work does not mean that the researcher is necessarily in a position to measure emotion. It is possible, however, to research emotion without measuring it (Fineman, 2004, p.736), and to explore how trainees are supported (emotionally) along their career trajectory by developing a ‘community of teacher learners’ to enhance collegiality and reduce isolation (Thomas et al, 1998, p.21) and through the development of quality mentoring programmes to support the professional development of beginning teachers through training into employment (Hobson et al, 2009, p.216).

Taken together, these studies of beginning, experienced (and excellent) teachers suggest that there are considerable variations in conceptions of teacher development and teacher thinking about good practice, also in the evidence used to support theories and ideas. The salient features of this brief review of interest to this thesis, therefore, include the following:

1. The idea that teachers’ ‘concerns’ would emerge in a cyclical rather than a linear or chronological way (Conway and Clarke, 2003), (Watzke, 2007).
2. The concept of a teaching community with associated notions of insider and outsider status, also, that teaching practice might serve as ‘initiation’ into the community (McNally et al, 1994).
3. That teachers’ would become increasingly concerned with managerial aspects of teaching as they became more experienced (Watzke, 2007).
4. That teachers’ would collaborate more readily for lesson planning than for lesson evaluation and reflection (Munthe, 2003).
5. Teachers’ dominant ‘metaphors’ about teaching and learning could be detected in the way they practice (Boulton-Lewis et al, 2001), (Martinez et al, 2001).

6. That there are different conceptions and understandings about SR and SRL and the way these should be used in teacher training and development (Tilema and Kremer-Hayon, 2002).

7. That experienced teachers’ own study habits were unstructured and unplanned, and that experienced teachers differed in their ability to consciously self-regulate their own leaning. (Eekelen et al, 2005).

8. There remains continuing uncertainty about the nature of reflective practice and its role in the change process (Day, 1993).

9. That becoming a teacher is an affectively charged experience in which emotion plays a role in the development of a professional identity (Hobson et al, 2008)

These studies of beginning and experienced teachers, using longitudinal and other methods, and the identification of a variety of issues as above, suggested there would be merit in exploring what happened to teachers thinking and practice whilst they were in training, and afterwards when they were in post as NQTs, using a systemic model of self-concept as a teacher. The notion of self-concept behaving as a ‘moving base-line’ having structural and processual properties offered a way to draw together, and engage with, a number of important ideas concerning teachers thinking and practice. What was also needed, however, was a review of studies that dealt specifically with the development of self-concept and identity as a teacher, and this is dealt with later in Section 3; before that, a brief closing note on cross sectional studies.

(4) Cross sectional studies: Cross-sectional studies collect survey information at a point or moment in time (Creswell, 1994, p.119). Arnon and Reichel (2007) report on a study carried out in 2002 comparing differences in conceptions of the ideal teacher between two groups of teachers, student teachers and beginning teachers, at an academic college in Israel. The study used questionnaire and focus groups to explore positive qualities of the ideal teacher, qualities that should never characterise a teacher, qualities that would characterise them as teachers, qualities they had improved on in training. Arnon
and Reichel were interested in exploring two images of teachers held by student and beginning teachers, self-image and ideal image, within the context of the then, current debate in Israel concerning disciplinary versus pedagogical education in preparation for teaching as a profession (p.441). The study showed similarities and differences between the two groups in the way they formed their images; however, the study showed those differences at a moment in time and was not able to track the changes over time. In their conclusions, Arnon and Reichel state that they “assumed that students of education already have an image of the ideal teacher when they reach teachers’ colleges” and ask a number of questions concerning the way the research could be taken forward to explore those assumptions, including “Does the teacher education process make changes that research may reveal by comparing the characteristics of the ideal teacher at the end of the teachers education to characteristics at the starting point? What change occurs in characteristics of the ideal teacher when entering the real world of teaching?” (Arnon and Reichel, 2007, p.462) It is precisely those types of questions that can be answered by a longitudinal study and are addressed in this thesis.
Section 3
A critical review of theoretical and empirical studies dealing with: self-concept and identity as a teacher, self-regulation and reflection

In 2004, Beijaard et al, examined a wide range of studies on teachers’ professional identity under three category headings: teachers’ professional identity formation, identification of characteristics of professional identity, and professional identity as expressed in teachers’ stories. The conclusions on formation of identity were most salient for the thesis in that Beijaard et al, (2004) identified four features considered essential for professional identity.

First, development as a teacher never stops; development is an ongoing process involving interpretation of experiences. Anticipatory reflection is concerned with the actual self as teacher “Who am I at this moment?” and possible self as a teacher “Who do I want to become?” This way of framing the issue of identity as dynamic and encompassing ‘possible selves’ confirmed the general thrust of the conceptual framework developed for the thesis.

Second, professional identity involves both person and context; teachers’ are expected to think and behave as professionals, however, being professional means showing individuality too in that they do not have to accept the prescribed culture within a school but may also develop his or her own teaching culture.

Third, professional identity consists of sub-identities relating to teachers’ different contexts and relationships. Some of the sub-identities may be central, some peripheral; what is important is that these are in balance.

Fourth, professional identity involves agency meaning that teachers learn through doing; they also use identity to make sense of themselves as teachers (Beijaard et al, 2004, p.122-123).
Beijard does not refer explicitly to the possible selves literature; Beijard does, however, refer to anticipatory reflection, this process incorporates thinking about the actual and (ideal) possible self. Beijard’s four factors, therefore complemented the earlier review findings in Section 2, were compatible with the possible selves concept, and proved useful for the eventual analysis and interpretation of the empirical study for this research.

These four features in the Beijard research also appeared in a series of articles in 2006 concerned with the development of teacher identity, the ‘Variations in Teachers’ Work, Lives and their Effects on Pupils’ (VITAE) project, in particular (Day, Stobart, Sammons and Kington, 2006a); (Day, Kington, Stobart and Sammons, 2006b); also, in a separate article (Flores and Day, 2006). These articles adopted a particular approach to the question of identity and because Christopher Day is closely associated with recent and large-scale longitudinal studies into teachers’ professional lives, and the concept of professional identity, in the UK, it would be important for the thesis to take account of this approach. The three articles (or studies) are discussed next.

**Study 1**  
Day et al, (2006a) describes some of the findings from the VITAE project, a four-year collaborative longitudinal study of 300 teachers in 100 schools, funded by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). VITAE aimed to identify factors that may affect teachers’ work and lives over time and impact on their pupils’ progress and learning outcomes (Day et al, 2006a, p.169). The research design was very large scale; phase 1 (2001-2002) involved an audit of all Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in England to identify seven LEAs to participate in the study. 7,500 teachers completed questionnaires to provide a base line of attitudes and issues and these were then examined qualitatively to identify emerging themes and topics for further investigation. Phase 2 involved the selection of case study schools and teachers and the collection of data through questionnaire surveys, interviews, case studies, base line and outcome measures. The initial conceptual framework for the study was based on the ‘4 Ps’ (pupils, policy, practice and personal) (p.175) and encompassed four key components:
1. Implicit connections between internal and external school contexts.
2. The view of pupil learning as being about attitudes, attainments and achievement.
3. The importance of teacher identity in relation to teacher effectiveness.
4. The importance of investigating effectiveness over real time (project duration) and over the careers of teachers (through narrative).

The initial analysis (phase 1) showed that "the overwhelming number of responses centred upon the self, in particular the effects of reforms, personal events and school context on motivation and commitment, beliefs and professional values, efficacy and job satisfaction". These factors were then incorporated into the framework for the second round of interviews (p.185). In reporting on the first two years work, Day et al, (2006a) reported three sets of "new understandings": (i) relative and relational effectiveness – where relative refers to variations between teachers, and relational as factors impacting internally on teachers. (ii) The second set of understandings position the teachers’ identities (their commitment, motivation, self-efficacy, job satisfaction) as central in the mediation between structure and agency (p.186). Teachers’ sense of professional identity, and context, are key factors in motivation, job fulfilment, commitment and self-efficacy; these are also affected by the teacher’s need for agency. (iii) The third set of understandings concerns teachers’ life and working contexts within and between schools (p.188). In broad terms the paper suggests there may be “an evolving transition in teacher professionalism towards the more outcome-focused, technical aspects” of teaching (p.185). The (2006a) large scale nature of the VITAE study is unusual, and it gives an authoritative overview of teachers conceptions, however, whilst many factors are described as linked or associated, there are no dynamic models or processes offered at the level of the individual that explain how or why identity is a key factor in effectiveness, or how and why identity is “affected positively and negatively, by classroom experiences” (p.190). The model and explanation, however, follows in the next 2006 publication by the VITAE team, and that is dealt with next.

**Study 2** In Day et al, (2006b), dealing with the concept of ‘stable and unstable identities’, the writers discuss a range of theoretical and empirical
studies on identity and draw on existing research and the findings from the VITAE study (see above) to conclude that teacher identities are:

"neither intrinsically stable nor intrinsically fragmented, as earlier literature suggests. Rather, teacher identities may be more, or less, stable and more or less fragmented at different times and in different ways according to a number of life, career and situational factors."

(Day et al, 2006b, p 601)

Day et al, refer to the paradox of self-concept, that it is both stable and capable of change; they note that for all teachers “identity will be affected by external (policy) and internal (organisational and personal experiences past and present), and so is not always stable” (p.610). They note too that previous studies have been hampered by a lack of longitudinal ‘real time’ data and claim that the VITAE project addresses these issues. VITAE identified four groups (kinds) of teachers and related these to effectiveness in relation to four kinds of factors. By associating these sub groups with particular pupil data on attitudes, behaviour and attainment, the study has enabled “hypotheses to be made between identities and effects on pupils” (p.611). The authors present a model hypothesising certain relationships between teacher variations and teacher effectiveness in which ‘tensions between Agency and Structure’ are portrayed as the dynamic element in the process. Agency is explained as an ability to pursue valued goals, manage critical incidents, and to live with contradictions and tensions between identities. That would also be an appropriate way to view the (self-regulated) relationships between possible selves as hypothesised within this thesis. The Day et al, model is reproduced below as Figure 4.
The Day et al, (2006b) model is, in broad terms an 'input-output' process in which the input consists of mainly external factors (variations in teachers work and lives) and the output consists of positive or negative direct/indirect teacher effects on pupils. The heart of the model is a 'black-box' mechanism within which "tensions between Agency and Structure" arise and are dealt with by the use of various strategies that are instrumental in the formation of teacher identity (Day et al, 2006b, p.612).

There are several interesting features about this model and the way that it derives ideas from the literature as well as from the process of data analysis. First, Day et al, (2006b) present a substantial section (p.608-613) called ‘fragmented selves’, this section begins: "The concept of an 'active' agential teacher self, as suggested by Reynolds through her metaphor of the 'landscaper', was also proposed by Maclure (1993)." They go on to say that Maclure proposed a post-structuralist understanding of identity which is formed and informed through individuals discursive practices (Day et al, 2006b, p.608). ‘Fragmented selves’ is a very particular kind of metaphor and it certainly has connections and connotations with multiple selves and possible selves that predate MacLure. A number of post-modern metaphors describing self-concept in terms of parts and fragments, rather than as a substantive entity, were reported by Hoskins and Leseho (1996, p.248) e.g. a 'community of selves'
(Mair, 1977), a dialogical self (Hermans and Kempen, 1993), selves as family members (Schwartz, 1987), a decentralised government of selves (Sampson, 1985) and of course, possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986). An active, agential, teacher self is a teacher specific example of a more generic position i.e. self-concept is a dynamic entity that is “active, forceful and capable of change” (Markus and Wurf, 1987, p.299). This more generic position had been established at least five or six years before Maclure and included the possible selves idea from Markus and Nurius proposed earlier in 1986. Whilst Maclure’s (dynamic) idea that teacher identity is something that is used to explain one’s life, rather than categorise one’s self, there are precursors to the dynamic, agentive, idea of self that could also be mentioned.

Second, in their section titled ‘Variations in Identity’, Day et al, (2006b) write, “Teachers will define themselves not only through their past and current identities as defined by personal and social histories and current roles but through their beliefs and values about the kind of teacher they hope to be” (p.610). This statement could be taken as an expression of the dynamic relationship between current self and possible self, although, the possible selves literature is not mentioned directly.

Third, they go on to suggest that the effects of the interaction of biography, experience and context on identity are disputed in terms of whether or not identity is stable or unstable (p.610-611). Stability is a systems concept and is associated with equivalent terms such as equilibrium, feedback and control, structure and process, however, systems thinking and terminology (other than structure) is not used explicitly by Day et al. For example, the reference to Giddens (1991), in the context of presenting identity as “a shifting amalgam of personal biography, culture, social influence and institutional values which may change according to role and circumstance” (p.613), leaves unsaid the connections between Giddens’ theories and systems theories involving feedback, e.g. that people need structures to carry out the process of daily living, and that by drawing on structures they inevitably assist in the reproduction of those structures. Baert notes that “Structures are unintended consequences of our practices, and they feed back into our practices as unacknowledged conditions of further acts” (Baert, 1998, p.104). He makes clear that Giddens
acknowledged the influence of biology and systems thinking, e.g. autopoietic properties of social structures, on his work, but there is no explicit reference to systems thinking in the Day et al, (2006b) model or supporting material.

It is interesting that Day et al, create a 'family tree' of sources, informing their position, that begins conventionally with Cooley (1902), Mead (1934), Goffman (1959), Erikson (1959), Sikes et al, (1985), but then 'branches' to follow the line of Maclure (1993), Reynolds (1996) and through to Kelchtermans (1993, 1996). The emergence of the possible selves literature in 1986, and the explosion of interest in the application of the concept, is not mentioned; neither is there any direct reference to the associated body of literature on self-regulation (SR) or self-regulation of learning (SRL) that was developing over the same time frame. Clearly there are important and influential schools and traditions of research methodology on teachers' selves and identities, including (Day et al, 2006a, 2006b) and (Beijaard et al, 2004) that are guided or constrained by particular disciplinary boundaries and conventions on sources, and therefore do not make use of possible selves, SR and SRL, or systems thinking, when dealing with the phenomenon of stasis and change in identity and self-concept. Further work investigating the possibilities for some form of integration and synthesis of positions in the field, for example the possible relationships between the Day et al, model in Figure 4, and the conceptual framework in this thesis, would be a fruitful and interesting path to follow.

Study 3 The third paper from 2006 on professional identity, and involving Christopher Day, (Flores and Day, 2006, p.220), is of direct interest to the thesis as it examines the identities of a new cohort of teachers over the first two years of teaching. Flores and Day understand identity as “an ongoing and dynamic process which entails the making and (re)interpretation of one’s own values and experiences”; (trans)formation of identity is a process that is “open, negotiated and shifting”. Following Maclure (1993), they also conceive of identity as something that is used as “an organising principle in teachers lives” (Flores and Day, 2006, p.220). The study involved 14 teachers who had completed a four-year teacher training degree at a University followed by a one year teaching practice in two schools. All were first-time teachers and were teaching primary and secondary level pupils in a variety of rural and urban locations in Portugal.
The methodology involved a longitudinal design and the methods and procedures included semi-structured interviews with the teachers at the beginning and end of the school year (four interviews in total), questionnaires were constructed after the first interview and given to all the teachers in the schools, also, pupils were asked to write about the ways their teachers changed. The annual school report on teachers was used as a data source; respondents were also asked to write a reflective account of their first two years of teaching. The description of procedures used to analyse the data is very full and detailed and is a model of clarity for other researchers in the field. The authors conclude that there are three main influences on the reshaping of identity: prior influences, initial teacher training and practice, plus contexts of teaching. Teacher identity is shaped and reshaped according to the relative strengths of “key influencing contexts of biography, pre-service programs and school culture” (Flores and Day, 2006, p.230). The relationships are expressed in the form of a model reproduced below as Figure 5.

**Figure 5**  Key mediating influences on the formation of teacher identity: Reproduced from Flores and Day, 2006, p.230, with permission from Elsevier Limited
The model presents the key elements in such a way that every element interacts with every other element. Miles and Huberman describe this situation as a “no risk framework” in that it “defines variables at a very global level and has two-directional arrows everywhere” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.22). What is important, however, is that the model suggests the existence of relationships that merit further elaboration in terms of dynamics. Whilst the Flores and Day study is extremely useful for the present research in terms of methodology, theory building and analysis, the discussion and the model lack a definite ‘dynamic’ or power source and therefore is largely descriptive in nature. As in the (Day et al, 2006a, 2006b) and (Beijaard et al, 2004) studies, Flores and Day (2006) makes no mention of possible selves or SR, as dynamic models, sources, or understandings of self and identity that would be part of the internal ‘power supply’.

To conclude this section on identity and self-concept as a teacher, the idea of ‘identity as argument’ merits special attention because of its important practical implications, and the way it is used in large-scale studies by Day et al, and by others. Life course research involving the use of autobiographic and narrative based methods for studying teachers lives and conceptions of teaching became very popular during the 1980s and 1990s and was linked to the use of reflection as a part of the research process. ‘Biographical attitude’, as Maggie MacLure termed this approach to research, could be used for different purposes - ‘self-revelatory,’ ‘administrative,’ ‘emancipatory’ and ‘methodological’ respectively, (MacLure, 1993, p.312), (italics in original), there was, therefore, good reason to consider a ‘biographical’ stance, rather than ethnography or grounded theory, as a part of the intended research design for this thesis so as to capture aspects of the respondents life stories prior to and during the research. MacLure’s 1993 study suggested that teacher identity was not a stable entity, rather it was “something that people have”, it was a “continuing site of struggle” for teachers and was a concept that they used to explain and make sense of themselves and the contexts in which they operate (p.312), (italics in original). This finding, and indeed this metaphor of identity as an argument, as something dynamic, dialogical and utilitarian, fitted well with Demo’s idea of the ‘rolling base-line’ within self-concept and so became part of the conceptual framework underpinning the thesis design. Other studies within this genre, for example Butt
and Raymond (1989), suggested how researchers might use various meta-
interpretive frameworks, "adult developmental, linguistic, literary,
psychoanalytic, feminist, or neo-Marxist" to investigate and interpret teachers
stories, however, Butt and Raymond recommended a more inductive approach,
allowing the respondents to create their own frameworks and for researchers to
adopt a more eclectic approach to interpretation (Butt and Raymond, 1989,
p.415). This leaning towards inclusiveness fitted in with the wide-ranging nature
of the literature review carried out for the research study and with my own
inclination to look for broad patterns and pictures across a number of fields and
domains once the empirical study was underway.
Section 4
Developing a practical strategy for researching the development of self-concept as a teacher

In reviewing the literature above, and reflecting on my own experience in the field of teacher training provision in the post-compulsory sector, it was apparent that there were two different ways of thinking about the research that would be needed for the thesis. First, that the ‘stock in trade’ of teacher trainers and training courses generally was the ‘Concerns of Teachers’ model of curriculum development and delivery (Fuller and Case, 1969). Frances Fuller’s stage model of teacher development provided a ‘journey’ metaphor – a journey outwards from concerns about self through to concerns about students – that was intuitively, and practically, appealing for course providers and could also be a model for the empirical study. This was familiar territory and offered a known way forward. The second realisation was that the literature on methodology, see examples above, showed an eclectic mix of topics and themes e.g. self-efficacy, community, the nature of knowledge, reflective practice, self-regulation, that were also teacher ‘concerns’ but did not fall neatly into a staged model of development. These topics, however, were integral to the flexible and dynamic model of self-concept that was emerging in the literature review for the thesis, and there was a possibility that a different perspective could be built from these elements. How was the thesis to proceed? In a review of life-cycle research and associated methodologies, Huberman (1989) provided an important contribution to my thinking about the way the thesis should proceed, particularly in relation to concerns about the validity of a ‘stages’ model within life-cycle research, also, the importance of a longitudinal approach to the notion of ‘career’. Huberman provided a useful set of criteria to think about longitudinal methodologies generally, and these are considered in detail next.

Huberman suggests there are several important caveats to working with a "linear, deterministic, highly psychological stage-developmental model" of teachers’ careers:
• Teachers (all adults?) are not reactive ‘marionettes’, they interact, through planning and shaping, with their environments, stages may be manufactured rather than natural.
• Phases might imply periods of order but also involve discontinuities, chaos and surprises, the latter are often minimised in recall.
• Hindsight creates a sense of ‘inevitability’ whereas alternative scenarios were equally possible in past times.
• Clustering individuals with common characteristics is ‘perilous’ when their antecedents are different.
• Many longitudinal studies are perceptual in nature, accounts are (usually) unverified, uncorroborated.
• Memory is fallible and more to do with construction than reconstruction.
• The past is often (re) aligned to match the present.
• Changes at transitional periods are often presented as decisive.

In terms of methodology using longitudinal studies, again Huberman urges caution:

• Many studies of teaching are “cross-sectional studies from which longitudinal inferences are drawn”, there is a possibility of confounding effects e.g.
• Descriptions of ‘similar’ accounts by different teachers only have meaning within specific contexts.
• A shared cultural history may have more affect than the characteristics of a profession or of individuals who have self-selected to that profession.
  (Huberman, 1989, p.357-359)

Huberman ends by suggesting that a longitudinal study following a group of teachers in real time over a 40 year career would be the best but not the most feasible way of proceeding!

All together, the sources reviewed in this chapter suggested a number of approaches and guidelines that were capable of shaping the methodology and procedures for carrying out the empirical study as follows:
• The research would take the form of a longitudinal study of at least a year, carried out in ‘real time’, tracking some form of ‘moving base-line’ of experience associated with self-concept as a teacher, using repeated measures (Demo, 1992), (Huberman, 1989).

• The context for the study should be located within a credible and valid context e.g. adults on a teacher-training course, and would follow a single cohort through from the start, as a Beginning Teacher (BT), through to a conclusion, hopefully in post, as a Newly Qualified Teacher, (Calderhead and Robson, 1991), (McNally et al, 1994).

• The data gathering instruments suitable for a study of this kind would include semi-structured interviews, some form of rating scales, diary type material (Mulholland and Wallace, 2001); perhaps also some projective measures using simplified repertory grid techniques (Burke and Noller, 1995).

• A number of studies involved direct observation of teachers, however, my own experience of lesson observation suggests that these need to be followed up with extensive debriefs to elicit the underlying rationale for actions, therefore, for practical reasons, classroom observation would not be a part of this empirical study.

• The broad topic areas to be investigated should match with the concerns raised in the literature review in Chapter 2 but should also reflect some of the related, wider, current concerns of existing research: e.g. reflection and reflective practice, when used and to what effect, (Day, 1993); the metaphors and models that teachers use and the way that these change over time, also the idea of a teaching community (Martinez et al, 2001); the idea of teacher identity as ‘argument’ and the way identity develops and is used over time (MacLure, 1993); the idea of teaching practice as ‘initiation’ into a ‘teacherhood’ and as some form of ‘rite of passage’ (McNally et al, 1994); also the idea of transition in relation to actual and ideal self as a teacher (Burke and Noller, 1995), (Mulholland and Wallace, 2001).

• The conceptual framework developed for the research should also reflect issues raised in other models used to explore teacher identity (Day et al, 2006a, 2006b), (Flores and Day, 2006).
With these broad considerations in mind, the methodology for the empirical study was developed and is described next in Chapter 4. To conclude this review of literature reflecting both methodological and conceptual issues, however, the chapter ends with a brief summary followed by the underpinning conceptual framework and the associated research questions to be addressed in the thesis.
Section 5
Summary, conceptual framework and research questions

The purpose of the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3 was to examine the dynamic nature of self-concept in order to determine how the development of self-concept as a teacher might be researched amongst BTs undertaking a long course of education and training.

Chapter 2 demonstrated that self-concept has been extensively described and researched across a number of fields, and that the many metaphors underpinning the various theoretical frameworks can be ordered and classified according to their relationship with generic system properties i.e. structure, pattern, process; and also boundary features involving internal, interface and external facets. Chapter 2 suggested that:

- Self-concept operates as a self-organising and self-regulating system using feedback in order to create orderly cognitive structures and to learn as it grows (Johnson, 2001, p 121).

- Self-concept is analogous to the life world and both are 'powered' by a process of self-regulation applied to the domain of possible selves. This mirrors the proposal by Lewis that the self is a construct “generated in dialogue that is structured around metaphors of embodiment in space and time” (Lewis, 2003, p 234).

- Changes in self-concept can be explored through the respondent’s understandings and perceptions of the way their actual and possible selves change over time (Markus and Nurius, 1986).

Chapter 3 examined how teacher thinking, practice, and self-concept has been researched in order to clarify what these empirical studies have found methodologically and conceptually and to determine how a longitudinal study of the development of self-concept as a teacher could be framed and carried out. Chapter 3 suggested that:
A longitudinal study following a group of BTs, through a one-year PGCE course of training and then into post as an NQT, would be a suitable and feasible vehicle for tracking the development of self-concept as a teacher.

Multiple points of intervention using semi-structured interviews would allow the structural and processual aspects of self-concept to be examined.

The dynamic qualities of self-concept and identity could be uncovered by examining what strategies BTs used to regulate and evaluate their own perceptions and experiences e.g. reflection, SR and SRL and meta cognition.

The conceptual framework that would inform the empirical study for this thesis is reproduced below as Figure 6.

Figure 6  The development of self-concept as a teacher

The conceptual framework that would inform the empirical study for this thesis is reproduced below as Figure 6.

The Life World as an Autopoietic System (Maturana and Varela, 1980)

The Dynamic Self-Concept (Markus and Wurf, 1987)

Examination of the relationships shown and suggested within this framework can be used to further the scope of theories concerning self-concept and change; and to aid in the formulation of research questions of interest (Kukla, 2001, p.79). The questions to be examined in this thesis are shown in the next section.

To conclude, the purpose of the thesis is to understand more clearly how change(s) in self-concept as a teacher can take place during and after
engagement in long and/or intensive programmes of training and education. This understanding can be used to inform educationalists, educators and trainers, and curriculum and programme managers, about the process of change, and what they can or might do to influence the process more directly.

In line with that purpose, the overall research question for the empirical study is:

**How are actual and possible selves involved in the development of self-concept as a teacher? What role does self-regulation play in the process of transformation?**

From this starting point a number of associated questions can also be investigated, informed by the literature review completed above. By reflecting on, or as Bloom (1999) might put it, overhearing, how they choose to answer some or all of these questions, the BTs involved may well be helped along their own personal road to individuation and to develop, rather than unfold, in the process.

How is the Ideal Teacher concept first formulated and described by the BT as a particular form of Possible Self?

Do BTs have a ‘feared’ possible self as a teacher concept, does it stay the same or does it change?

What happens to the Ideal Teacher concept over the lifetime of the PGCE course, does it stay the same or does it change?

How are perceived differences between actual self and ideal self (as a teacher) expressed and evaluated over the course of the PGCE and particularly during their first months of teaching? What use do BTs make of these evaluations?

How is the claim to be a teacher, i.e. the BT’s identity as a teacher, formulated and expressed at the start of the PGCE course, and what happens to it subsequently over the lifetime of the course, does it stay the same or does it change?
How do BTs understand and use the term ‘reflection’ in their personal and professional life? Do they use reflection as a way of guiding or changing their behaviour as a teacher?
How does self-regulation show itself?

Do the experiences of the BTs on this PGCE offer any useful insights to the way in which ITT courses could or should be designed and delivered?

How do BTs report changes in their overall sense of self over the course of the PGCE? What form do these changes take?

How do BTs explain their decision to join the PGCE and train to become a mainstream teacher?

In Chapter 4, the thesis explains the methods and methodology adopted in this study in order to answer the research question(s) as above.
Chapter 4

Methodology

The thesis examines the various ways in which 19 people experienced the development of their own self-concept as a teacher over a three-year period starting with a one-year intensive course of teacher training as Beginning Teachers (BTs), followed by up to two years in post as Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs). The research focused on the ways in which actual and possible selves were formulated and understood to be involved in the process, and what role self-regulation played in the overall transformation from beginner to qualified teacher. It explores how reflective practice was thought about and carried out, and the extent to which reflection was supported by the course and by schools generally.

To capture the essence of ‘change’ and ‘development’ in the context of BTs learning their craft, the empirical research for the thesis was planned as a longitudinal study of at least a year, carried out in ‘real time’, tracking a ‘moving base-line’ of experience associated with self-concept as a teacher, using repeated measures (Demo, 1992), (Huberman, 1989). By ‘essence’ is meant the description of a phenomenon and in that sense the research was conducted as a phenomenological inquiry of the development of identity as a teacher as a lived experience, (Van Manen, 1997, p.39). To provide credibility and validity, the study involved adults on a teacher-training course, and followed a single cohort from the start of the course, joining as a BT through to a conclusion, in post, appointed as an NQT, (Calderhead and Robson, 1991), (McNally et al,1994). Data were gathered through semi-structured interviews using open and closed questions, rating scales, also projective measures using simplified repertory grid techniques (Burke and Noller, 1995). It was noted that direct observation of teachers teaching had featured in some observational studies, (Day et al, 2006a), but not others (So and Watkins, 2005), (Watzke, 2007). This research made no claims concerning the relationship between the development of identity as a teacher and pupil learning or other behaviours, therefore, only self-report data on teaching experience would be gathered and practical observations would not be a part of this empirical study. The eventual choice of
research/interview questions (see Chapter 3 and Appendix 6) reflected the meta-interpretive framework developed in Chapter 2 based on the possible selves literature, and a conceptual framework (see Chapter 2) in which self-concept is theorised as having systemic properties. Data analysis of the interviews, however, would utilise an inductive approach to coding and category formation in which it would be important to try to keep an open mind about the emerging issues (Butt and Raymond, 1989). Overall, the research design was characteristic of a case study in which the definition of the case was complex and the case boundary not totally determinate. The case phenomenon would focus on change in self-concept as a teacher during and after ITT and in that sense would be a study of a sustained process of personal change. The case context would be bounded clearly by time and process but not so clearly by place or institution (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.25-26).

With these broad longer term approaches in mind, a pilot study was carried out in May 2002 as a 'one shot' measure to investigate the 'self-concept as a teacher' of a group of PGCE students completing their one-year course of training. The aim was to trial a set of questions and procedures, to validate the use of the PGCE as a suitable context for the study and as a source of suitable respondents, and to practice transcribing, coding and analysing transcripts of semi-structured interviews. On the basis of this experience, the main study was launched in September 2002. The experience of the pilot study (see Appendix 11) had shown that BTs on a full time PGCE were suitable and accessible respondents for a longitudinal study of changes in self-concept as a teacher, and a decision was made to use course members from the academic year group starting September 2002. By the summer of 2002 I was no longer engaged as a professional tutor on the PGCE course and there were no ethical or technical reasons why the next intake of course members could not be approached.

The full-time Initial Teacher Training course chosen for the study lasted one academic year (September 2002 to July 2003) and involved two separate placements for teaching practice along with attendance at the Institute for key note lectures and tutorial/workshop sessions. The course structure naturally provided five main periods of activity involving a number of natural transition
points e.g. moving from theory to practice, from one placement school to another, finally, from the course to work as an NQT these are shown below in Table 8. The data collection plan therefore was to track a sample of BTs for the duration of the course and to conduct semi structured interviews with the sample at the four significant transition points A, B, C and D shown below in Table 8. Table 8 below shows a schematic outline of the course design and the data collection points.

Table 8  Schematic outline of the course design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period 1</th>
<th>Period 2</th>
<th>Period 3</th>
<th>Period 4</th>
<th>Period 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Induction, Observation &amp; Pupil Shadowing Activities</td>
<td>Training &amp; Practical Teaching Experience School 1</td>
<td>Training &amp; Practical Teaching Experience School 2</td>
<td>Study &amp; Course work Preparation for the end of the course</td>
<td>First Teaching Appointment as NQT September 2003 — Summer 2005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A  This is the period before actual teaching practice begins. The BT is following a process of lesson observation and shadowing, attending lectures and tutorials. The research focus here is on the experience of joining the course and preparing to teach, and the meaning this has for the BT.

B  This is the period between the first and second teaching practice placement; the focus here is on the experience of teaching, for the first time, and the meaning of this experience for the BT.

C  This is the period after the end the second teaching practice placement and the start of the consolidation phase of completing assignments and records of achievement. The focus here is on the experience of teaching on a regular basis and the meaning this has for the BT.
This is the period after the end of the course, the NQT is in post and teaching as a qualified professional. The focus is on the experience of teaching full time as an employed member of a school or college. The nine stage 4 interviews were conducted in the period February to July 2005.

The practical subject matter of this dissertation, therefore, came from the experiences of a group of people who joined a one-year PGCE and having to manage the process of everyday living as an adult student. The key activities involved dealing with the PGCE course, developing their teaching skills whilst being assessed as a BT, before finally obtaining a post as an NQT. The research focus, therefore, was concerned with the experience of personal change and development, i.e. change in self-concept as a teacher over the duration of the course, and the meaning these changes had for the individuals concerned.

**Procedures**

The PGCE course started in September 2002 and I obtained permission from the PGCE course leader to make an address to the entire course cohort of beginning teachers during the first week of the course, and to make an appeal for volunteers, (see Appendix 12). About 50 people responded ‘in principle’ and 20 indicated positively that they would be willing to take part in the longitudinal study and provided contact details. As in the pilot study, a letter was then sent to interested BTs explaining the background, the procedures to be adopted, and a promise of confidentiality for the participants, (see Appendix 13). Each participant was given an alphabetic pseudonym and, although the research took place at the Institute of Education, the names and locations of the placement schools have been withheld from the report. The conceptual framework underpinning the research made no particular claims concerning the effects of age, gender, ethnicity or subject interest in the way actual and possible selves as a teacher might impact on the development of self-concept as a teacher, therefore an ‘opportunity sample’ based on volunteers was considered an appropriate way to recruit participants and proceed. The actual age and gender profiles of the group are shown in Table 9 below:
Table 9  Summary details of the sample for the longitudinal study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Numbers starting the study</th>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Mean Age</th>
<th>Prior Teaching Experience?</th>
<th>Numbers completing all 4 stages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23 - 44</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10 Yes, 4 No</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27 - 32</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2 Yes, 3 No</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the research, a number of participants dropped out from the study altogether, whilst some missed an early stage(s) and reappeared later. The notified reasons for drop out and intermittent appearances varied e.g. pregnancy, pressure of course work, leaving the PGCE course; others just ‘disappeared’. Phone calls and emails were employed to stay in touch with the sample overall and with individual members. At Stage 2, when it became clear that seven respondents were missing, a decision had to be made whether or not to prolong the stage in order to attempt to contact and interview the ‘missing’ respondents, or to replace the missing respondents with new ones. Prolonging the stage was not considered as an option because the design dictated that interviews were carried out in the ‘window’ between placements. Bringing in new respondents was a possibility, however, at the time it was decided that there would be a significant mismatch between their subsequent developmental ‘history’ and the others in the study. The interview history of the participants in the study is shown below in Table 10.
### Table 10  Total sample: respondents and stages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Name</th>
<th>ID Number</th>
<th>Stage 1</th>
<th>Stage 2</th>
<th>Stage 3</th>
<th>Stage 4</th>
<th>Total Interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annie</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betty</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlotte</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edward</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frank</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Georgina</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<td>Harriet</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julia</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kay</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louise</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Norman</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olivia</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patricia</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Queen</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sue</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Numbers Completing each stage**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 1</th>
<th>Stage 2</th>
<th>Stage 3</th>
<th>Stage 4</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Prior arrangements for all interviews were made by appointment at all stages. The interviews took place in the private office of the researcher at the Institute, and or at the school where the BT was placed or working. Each interview lasted approximately 30 to 40 minutes. All the interviewees agreed to be interviewed privately one on one and all interviews were tape-recorded using a micro-cassette hand held device; a full, verbatim, transcript was prepared later using voice recognition software on a PC. The actual questions asked at each stage are included as Appendix 6; an electronic copy of all the transcripts recovered is provided on the CD-ROM attached as Appendix 7; an example of a full set of transcripts for Olivia (stages 1-4) is provided in Appendix 8.
The experiences of the BT’s, later as NQTs, were captured as ‘text’; therefore, the coding procedures and the process of text analysis used in the study are described next.

**Coding Procedures**

To begin with, the 48 interview transcripts were saved as Word documents in Rich Text Format and imported into an NVIVO Data Analysis Software Package. The coding and analysis procedures utilised three types of coding category as follows (Richards, 2005, p.88):

1. **Descriptive codes** for attributes e.g. age, gender, ratings. An Attribute Table was created to record details of each Case, a case being one respondent. Attributes were then used later as a basis for conducting searches within and across cases. See Appendix 9 for the Attribute Table.

2. **Topic codes** for allocating whole passages of text to a single Topic e.g. Ideal Teacher, Self as Teacher, Reflection, Change in Self. The actual questions asked across the four stages were grouped under 12 topic headings and used as a way of tagging complete answers to a whole question. See Table 10 below.

3. **Analytical codes** for concepts identified in the text arising out of interpretation and reflection on meaning. For example, within the topic of Ideal Teacher, there was a clear distinction between respondents who expressed ideas about what an ideal teacher *does*, and those who talked about who or what an ideal teacher *is*. The first form can be termed the *Intensional Notion of the Ideal Teacher* and this mostly consisted of descriptions about what a teacher does, or should be doing, practically, in the classroom or when working with learners. The second form can be called the *Extensional Notion of the Ideal Teacher* and this approach focused on the desired qualities and attributes of the Ideal Teacher as a person.
Overall, the coding procedures were designed to move stepwise from unsorted data, through topic coding, towards the development of more refined categories, themes and concepts e.g. from initial, open coding, through to the emergence of theoretical concepts from saturated categories and themes (Hahn, 2008, p.6). The details of how topic and analytic codes were formulated are shown below in summary Table 11.

During the process of content analysis, an inductive approach was used and topics and themes were defined as they emerged from the data. The link between research questions, interview questions, topics and themes is shown below as Table 11.

Table 11  Matching the interview questions (topics) against the research questions
(RQ = Research Question, S = Stage; Q = Question Number)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ</th>
<th>How do BT's report changes in their overall sense of self over the course of the PGCE? What form do these changes take?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Topic 1 The personal narrative – the life story up to the start of the course, and from the end of the course into employment, and future possibilities S1Q1, S4Q0, S4Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Topic 2 Ideas about self at the start of the course e.g. qualities, attributes, personality, ways of thinking, behaving S1Q2&amp;5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Topic 3 Perceptions of change in self as the course progresses and then post-course S2Q1, S3Q1, S4Q1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Topic 4 Perceptions of changes in the life-world as the course progresses and then post course</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ</th>
<th>How is the claim to be a teacher, i.e. the BT's identity as a teacher, formulated and expressed at the start of the PGCE course, and what happens to it subsequently over the lifetime of the course, does it stay the same or does it change?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Topic 7 Conception (identity) of self as a teacher, insider or outsider S1Q8, S2Q2 &amp; Q5, S3Q5 &amp; Q8, S4Q4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ</th>
<th>How is the Ideal Teacher concept first formulated and described by the BT?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RQ2</td>
<td>Topic 8 Ideas about the ‘Ideal Teacher’ S1Q3, S2Q3, S3Q6, S4Q2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

98
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question (RQ)</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher concept over the lifetime of the PGCE course, does it stay the same or does it change?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RQ3</strong></td>
<td>How are perceived differences between actual self and ideal self (as a teacher) expressed and evaluated over the lifetime of the PGCE? What use do BT’s make of these evaluations?</td>
<td>Topic 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RQ5</strong></td>
<td>How do BT’s understand and use the term ‘reflection’ in their personal and professional life? Have they ever used reflection as a way of guiding or changing their behaviour as a teacher?</td>
<td>Topic 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RQ7</strong></td>
<td>Do the experiences of the BT’s on this PGCE offer any useful insights to the way in which ITT courses could or should be designed and delivered?</td>
<td>Topic 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RQ6</strong></td>
<td>How does self-regulation show itself?</td>
<td>Topic 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that:
- Topic 5 Ratings on change in Self S1Q7, S3Q2
- Topic 6 Ratings on change in Life S1Q6, S2Q6, S3Q3&4

The topic headings, derived from the interview questions, formed the basis of the initial coding process. From the start it was clear that successive ‘waves’ of inspection across the transcripts would be necessary to revisit codes and earlier interpretation in order to accommodate changing and more detailed understandings about the meaning of the data. As patterns and ideas emerged from repeated analysis of the transcripts, analytical concepts were identified and coded initially as Free Nodes and later as Tree Nodes within a hierarchy of meaning. See Appendix 10 for the table of Nodes.
Analytic Coding  Topic coding consisted of identifying blocks of text with an identifying label or code as explained above. Once the initial topic coding had been completed, various blocks of text were then brought together, e.g. all texts about ideal teacher, all texts mentioning current self as a teacher, and analysed in various ways e.g. what was being said at stages 1, 2, 3 and 4. The aim was to discern any meanings or themes emerging from the topic coding e.g. the relationship between the possible self (ideal teacher) and current self as teacher at each stage of the study. Through analytic coding, a number of ‘stories’ were then constructed about the BT’s experience of the PGCE course. As a further check on the internal consistency of the analytical process the topics were matched to the Conceptual Framework; Figure 7 below makes this comparison.

Figure 7  The relationship between topic codes and the conceptual framework for the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CURRENT SELF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Topic 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROCESS OF SELF-REGULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSSIBLE SELF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that Topic 11 (The PGCE) was used to create the ‘story’ about the role and importance of the PGCE within the ITT framework.
To complete the audit trail linking the research questions, interview questions and the emerging themes and codes described above, Table 12 below shows how the topics were used as the basis for coding the transcripts. Using NVIVO, each topic was used as a tree node, groups of nodes were then organised using placeholder nodes.

Table 12  Definitions of 12 topics used as nodes

Questions coded initially using the topic headings are identified, for example, as S1Q1 = Stage 1, Question 1 etc.

---

**Topic 1  The personal narrative**

**Definition**  This node will record comments about the BT’s life story up to the start of the course, from the end of the course into employment, and future possibilities. It records their ‘story’ about what has happened to them and why they believe these things happened e.g. how they became interested in teaching as a career or profession. S1Q1, S4Q0, S4Q3

**Topic 2  Ideas about self at the start of the course**

**Definition**  This node will record comments made by BT’s about their personal qualities and overall sense of self e.g. qualities, attributes, personality, ways of thinking, behaving S1Q2&5,

**Topic 3  Perceptions of changes in self over the course**

**Definition**  This node will record comments by the BT’s about perceived changes in their self as the course progresses and then post-course e.g. more confident, more skilled, and able to form different relationships. S2Q1, S3Q1, S4Q1

**Topic 4  Perceptions of changes in life world over the course**

**Definition**  This node will record comments by the BT’s about perceived changes in their life-world as the course progresses and then post-course S1Q7, S3Q2
Topic 5  Ratings on change in Self  
Definition  This node will record the results from the 9-point rating scales and will be used in conjunction with topic 3 and other topics as appropriate S1Q7, S3Q2

Topic 6  Ratings on change in Life  
Definition  This node will record the results from the 9-point rating scales and will be used in conjunction with topic 3 and other topics as appropriate S1Q6, S2Q6, and S3Q3&4

Topic 7  Conception (identity) of self as a teacher  
Definition  This node will record comments by the BT’s about the way they see themselves as a teacher, this will include their strengths and weaknesses, their progress in training, their skills, also the way they relate to the other teachers and the profession as a whole e.g. insider or outsider status S1Q8, S2Q2,5, S3Q5&8, S4Q4

Topic 8  Ideas about the ‘Ideal Teacher’  
Definition  This node will record comments by the BT’s about the kind of teacher they aspire to, or want to be. This represents the BT’s possible self. The ideal teacher concept can be expressed as a set of skills and/or qualities possessed by teachers they know or have known, or as an abstracted set of ideals not related to any one or real person. It is expected that the Ideal Teacher concept may change during the lifetime of the PGCE course. S1Q3, S2Q3, S3Q6, S4Q2

Topic 9  The gap between current self and ideal self as a teacher  
Definition  This node will record BT’s comments about how they perceive the gap between their current self as a teacher (pre course, then throughout the various stages of the research) and their ideal self as a teacher. S1Q4, S2Q4, S3Q7

Topic 10  The reflective process  
Definition  This node will record the BT’s comments about reflection, what they understand reflection to be and whether they consider themselves
reflective or not. The node will record any incidents when they have been reflective and how the process of reflection altered or shaped their subsequent behaviour.
S3Q9, S4Q5&6

**Topic 11  The PGCE Course – comments and evaluations**

**Definition**  This node will record the BT’s comments about the PGCE course concerning its structure, and delivery and its value for them as beginning teachers. The node will also track any thoughts and suggestions BT’s might have about how the course could be delivered differently.

No specific questions were asked about this, comments would be coded where they occur.

**Topic 12  Self-Regulation – how does it show itself?**

**Definition**  This node will record BT’s comments about ways in which they want to, or actually, self-regulate their behaviour. Self-regulation in this context means more than just self-regulation of academic behaviours, it refers to the way in which the whole life-world consists of interlocking factors that constitute an autopoietic system. NB No specific questions were asked about this, comments would be coded where they occur.

---

**The Ideal Teacher – an example of the coding and analysis process/procedures used in the dissertation**

In order to establish the integrity and the provenance of the entire coding and analysis structure, a detailed example of the coding and analysis procedures adopted in this research is given next.

Respondents were specifically asked about their ‘Ideal Teacher’ at every stage in the research e.g. in question 3 stage 1, question 3 stage 2, question 6 stage 3 and question 2 stage 4; in addition, the topic emerged at other points during the interviews. The first step in the coding and analysis process therefore was to identify and code these segments of text using the coding facility within NVIVO. The code description used was:
NVIVO Topic code: *Ideas about the Ideal Teacher*

Note: This code records comments about the kind of teacher they aspire to or want to be. This represents the BT's possible self.

Using the attribute feature ‘stage’, a search was then carried out for all instances of the code for all four stages of the study and these were then printed for detailed examination. This process involved attribute and topic coding. After reading the various accounts of the ideal teacher within and across stages, the data showed that BTs had two ways of describing the ideal teacher. Some would talk about what the ideal teacher would do in the classroom e.g. planning and controlling, whereas others talked more about the personal qualities of the ideal teacher e.g. being inspirational and passionate about learning. In order to check that this dichotomy was really there in the text, the transcripts were re-examined by hand and instances of the descriptors used by BTs were highlighted and noted. The analysis confirmed that there were indeed two particular ways of talking about the ideal teacher and therefore two new analytic codes were created for more detailed searching using NVIVO.

These were:

**NVIVO Analytic Code:  Ideal Teacher Intensional Form**

Note: This code represents a way of talking about what the ideal teacher does: it is a dynamic, action based, representation of the Ideal Teacher.

**NVIVO Analytic Code  Ideal Teacher Extensional Form**

Note: This code represents ideas about the Teacher as a person. This code describes the Ideal Teacher in terms of attributes and personal qualities.

The working titles for the two nodes were based on an idea by Mark Baker who used the metaphor of *sample* and *recipe* as a way of distinguishing between approaches to understanding human languages (Baker, 2002, p.52). By analogy, the intensional form of the ideal teacher concept was like a ‘recipe’ for producing ideal teacher actions and behaviour; whereas, the extensional form of the ideal teacher concept described a ‘sample’ what an ideal teacher is as a person.
The next step involved coding and entering the ideal teacher quotes, highlighted in the transcripts, into the NVIVO project as either intensional or extensional in form and producing a coding report for each type across the four stages. To illustrate the output from this process the identified pieces of text, ‘quotes’ from Stage 1 Ideal Teacher – the Intensional Form, are reproduced in full below.

Ideal Teacher: The Intensional Form – Stage 1
Text identified in the coding process:
a teacher who instils confidence in someone to answer a question, to believe that they are in charge of their learning (Indiana S1)

when I was teaching in Chicago it was the specific aim of every teacher to have everyone participating (Indiana S1)

Probably quite strict but without having to shout, hopefully good and interesting lessons reliable and someone who knows the subject quite well who knows the people as well (Kay S1)

I also don't have any illusions about I want them all to love me and think of changing their lives I'm interested in getting them what they want to achieve so if, as in the school I am in at the moment, it is all about exam results then let's get the exam results and teach them what they need to get those results (Louise S1)

If I teach a class for a year, national curriculum exams aside, if they got only a little bit of science but learned how to assess things and how to think things through that's the kind of teacher I want to be (Norman S1)

very polite, treat you with respect, don't humiliate people in the class so don't act sarcastic, try and keep calm don't shout at people (Olivia S1)

I want to be fair to everybody; it doesn't mean actually treating everybody the same, which is the main thing that I've learned over the last few weeks, different people have different needs and they need to be treated differently (Patricia S1)
I think they want you to know your stuff they just like a teacher who is going to teach them and keep them in order, kids will try it on a bit with having a bit of a chat in your lesson, but when they walk out they'd like to see that they've achieved something, and I've had kids who said 'I liked that miss', I'd like to be the kind of teacher where the kids say yes I'd like to know that, or maybe things they would never have thought of doing with their lives, like travelling, I'd love to see them go places because that's what I would get out of teaching lessons, just someone who broadens their horizons (Sue S1)

The text represents a direct ‘cut and paste’ from the transcripts, and reproduces the actual words of the respondents. The next step in the coding process involved reducing the full quote to a phrase or key word; this process used the BTs’ original words wherever possible. The outcome from this process is shown next:

At Stage 1, the ideal teacher is someone who can do the following:

Instils confidence in students to believe that they are in charge of their learning  
**autonomy**  (Indiana S1)

Has everyone participating  
**participation**  (Indiana S1)

Is quite strict but without having to shout  
**control**  (Kay S1)

Helps the students to get what they want to achieve  
**facilitation**  (Louise S1)

Shows students how to assess things, how to think things through  
**critical judgement**  (Norman S1)

Treats students with respect  
**respect**  (Olivia S1)

Is fair to everyone by treating different people differently  
**differentiation**  (Patricia S1)

Broadens students horizons  
**encourages aspirations**  (Sue S1)
Finally, the key words were then used as the basis for constructing a *definitional statement* about the Intensional form of the ideal Teacher. This is shown next:

**The coding process for Ideal Teacher (Intensional Form) at Stage 1 resulted in the formulation of the following statement:**

‘The ideal teacher Stage 1 (Intensional Form) is able to control the classroom situation, practice differentiation, establish a climate of mutual respect, allow full student participation, facilitate student achievement of personal goals, develop critical judgement, broaden and encourage student aspirations’.

Within this coding process, the main aim was to stay as close as possible to the actual words and meanings of the respondents so as to be consistent and transparent in the selection of text and the creation of the concept. The process involved moving from full quotes taken from the text, through to key words or phrases taken from the quotes, arriving at a constructed definition using the key words. In order to check on coder reliability, samples of text and the derivative codes were analysed and discussed with the writer’s supervisor.

**Ideal Teacher: The Intensional Form – Stages 2, 3, 4**

The process was repeated exactly as above for stages 2, 3 and 4 and the following definitional statements were produced:

**The Ideal Teacher Stage 2**

The Ideal Teacher at Stage 2 (Intensional Form) is good at multitasking and can work under pressure; this teacher can demonstrate firm discipline and very strong classroom management skills but is also committed to establishing mutual respect between teacher and pupils. The ideal teacher will get to know how the authority and discipline system works *before* they start to be the ‘friendly’ teacher type. The ideal teacher has an interactive style, can be flexible in their approach to classroom management but is also very focused and action orientated in order to achieve intended learning outcomes. The ideal teacher is independent minded and, when necessary, is able to take risks by breaking away from the conventional curriculum framework; this teacher can also adopt unconventional approaches when dealing with students they know well, and is able to provide honest and critical feedback in a direct manner.
The Ideal Teacher Stage 3
The Ideal Teacher at Stage 3 (Intensional Form) is rooted in the reality of fairness, consistency, routine and discipline, as basic starting blocks for practice. This teacher has observed a lot of teachers and teaching, and knows the difference between bad and good teaching. This teacher is professional, very organised, and comes to the classroom prepared to teach a good lesson; she can customise the class by setting up her own long-term routines and is aware of what needs to be in place, for everything else to happen. The ideal teacher knows the pupils, their names, how they interact with each other, and how they might behave in that class, as a basis for managing the situation properly. The ideal teacher is also involved in the whole life of the school and accepts the idea of continuous personal growth.

The Ideal Teacher Stage 4
The Ideal Teacher at Stage 4 (Intensional Form) has full control, at all times, is well-organised, has a sense of humour, makes lessons interesting, adopts a fine line between being scary and being soft. This teacher has structured subject knowledge and the organisation that comes from thorough preparation. The ideal teacher knows how to react to mistakes, how to react to kids who try or don't try, and knows what to praise and what not to praise. She is always fresh and has plenty of new ideas, she doesn't teach the same things over and over again, but if she did, she would introduce new ideas e.g. inspirations gained whilst on holiday. The ideal teacher is tough and resilient, has self-confidence and coping strategies and so is able to manage and succeed when pushed and stretched to the limit.

Ideal Teacher: The Extensional Form – Stages 1, 2, 3, 4
The process described above was repeated exactly so as to explore respondent’s ideas about the Ideal Teacher Extensional form. The following definitions were produced:

The Ideal Teacher Stage 1
The Ideal Teacher Stage 1 (Extensional Form) is someone who is inspirational, memorable, a teacher who can animate the subject and bring it to life, and a
communicator who is enthusiastic, approachable and fair in her dealings with people.

The Ideal Teacher Stage 2
The Ideal Teacher Stage 2 (Extensional Form) is someone who is inspirational in terms of her interest in the subject, has a sense of humour and is able to show some of her personality in class.

The Ideal Teacher Stage 3
No finds

The Ideal Teacher Stage 4
The Ideal Teacher Stage 4 (Extensional Form) is someone who has real passion and vigour for the subject knowledge, and can share this enthusiasm in a democratic and empowering way. This teacher also needs to be tough and resilient to cope with difficult students and classes, but in addition, self-confidence and a sense of humour will help her succeed in her career.

The Ideal Teacher — From coding and analysis through to discussion
The procedures outlined above resulted in the compilation of a series of definitions of the ideal teacher, definitions that changed throughout the course of the longitudinal study. In order to conclude this series of sections demonstrating the coding and analysis procedures, an abbreviated ‘discussion’ is given below to illustrate how the research moved from coding and analysis through to interpretation and discussion. A full treatment of the findings of the Ideal Teacher Concept is to be found in the Findings Chapter.

Discussion

The changing definitions of the ideal teacher, created from the actual words of respondents, together tell a story about how BTs on the longitudinal study reformulated their ideas in line with their experiences and understanding of what teaching was all about. From the very beginning of their course of training, BTs used two forms of the ideal teacher concept to inform their understandings about the kind of teacher they would like to be, their possible self, however, the
action based intensional form was by far the most commonly used. The extensional exemplar form stayed broadly static then declined in significance, it stayed focused on inspiration and enthusiasm as the dominant qualities looked for in the ideal teacher. In contrast, the intensional, action based form, the *recipe* for effective teaching, became more complex and elaborated as the PGCE course progressed. The peak of this process occurred in stage three where the ideal teacher concept was contextualised in terms of values, professionalism and lifestyle with clear-cut examples of what these ideas meant in everyday practice. By the time the BTs had become NQTs and were established in their teaching posts, the ideal teacher concept had become focused on a more narrowly defined set of ideas concerning the delivery of the curriculum through efficient and effective teaching practice methods. The ideal teacher was fluid and fluent, making decisions fast and seamlessly, judgement was ‘automatic’ and made without conscious thought. The wider vision, the ‘hesitant’ and reflective awareness, and the more long-term perspectives from Stages 2 and 3 had been replaced by more everyday concerns and ambitions.

**Summary**

This chapter explained how the research design, sampling, coding and analysis procedures were carried out, and how these procedures involved a transparent and consistent approach to data collection, selection and reduction. The initial data handling involved the creation of an attribute table to record information about individual cases, and the broad identification of all the text-based material using broad topic codes. The topic codes were derived from the interview questions and facilitated the recovery and manipulation of selected text using NVIVO. Detailed manual inspection of the text was then used to identify other themes and topics (analytic codes) and further PC based searches to find instances of these were carried out using key words and attributes; analytic coding, therefore, was derived directly from the data. The basic procedures explained by the detailed example given in this chapter formed the basis of the entire coding and analysis operations for the research.
Chapter 5  Findings
The Development of Self-Concept as a Teacher

The research findings are presented in 8 parts grouped together as follows:

Part 1  This introductory section reviews the personal stories told by the Beginning Teachers (BTs) about how and why they came to be on the course, in particular, their decision to join the PGCE and start training to become a mainstream full time teacher.

Parts 2 to 5  Examine the way respondents talked about their actual self as a teacher, and the associated formulation of their Ideal Teacher concept at each stage of the four-stage study.

Part 6  Reports on overall changes in respondent’s self-concept over Stages 2, 3, and 4 of the research.

Part 7  Deals with course members’ thoughts and actions concerning reflective practice over Stages 3 and 4.

Part 8  Reports on comments and evaluations of the PGCE course.
Part 1  Personal stories about joining the PGCE, and ideas about the Self at the start of the course

The PGCE course started in September 2003 and at the Stage 1 interviews respondents were asked how and why they came to be on the course, and about the qualities they believed they possessed that would help, or hinder, them in completing the course successfully, to become a teacher.

Everyone had a story to tell about why they came to join the course and, in that sense, every story contained elements of a personal Theory (or History) of Self. Respondents were able to describe significant situations and events in their life that lead them towards a career as a teacher; they offered explanations and understandings of those past and present experiences, and they were able to make predictions about how things might turn out for them in the future.

Although question one was presented as a semi-open single question, the respondents answered as if there were four broad issues to be addressed: why move from what they were doing previously, why choose teaching as a career, why start training to be a teacher now, and how did all this change impact on, and relate to, their sense of self? These elaborations on the decision to join the PGCE were influenced by their general interest in teaching as a career (valence) and by their calculation of the possibility of making a career as a teacher (expectance), also by their prior experiences of teaching. Whilst all respondents could refer to a range of positive personal factors (including life experiences) that might prove useful in completing the course, a number of respondents also alluded to behaviours and routines specifically associated with the self-regulation of learning and performance that might adversely affect their chances of completion.

Why respondents wanted to join the course

There were four distinct reasons offered for choosing teaching as a career, and they fall within the Attributional dichotomy of ‘want to’ and ‘have to’. Explanations involving an element of ‘want to’ were usually direct in form and
can be summarised as *always wanted to be a teacher, and tried teaching and liked it*. In contrast, other explanations involving an element of 'have to' were often more indirect and discursive in nature and included, *A prolonged reassessment of the life-world and the future, also, a profound dissatisfaction with the current life trajectory, career path or prospects.*

(1) **Always wanted to be a teacher** – Edward, Kay, Mary, Norman and Patricia had been thinking about teaching as a career for a long time but the decision to start training had been delayed for various reasons including worries about money, concerns about personal ability, wanting to try other kinds of work first, also cautionary advice from parents or friends who were also teachers. For this first group, becoming a teacher had seemed almost inevitable; for the next group, however, teaching was a decision that was made more deliberately, after a period of thought and, for some, actual experience of teaching.

(2) **Tried teaching and liked it** – Annie, Betty, Charlotte, Julia and Rose had all tried teaching and found that they enjoyed the experience and were attracted by the qualities of a life in teaching. This second group made a conscious decision about teaching based on their positive experiences of doing it. Teaching abroad was a notable feature of their experience and the decision to go into teaching was usually made after a successful ‘trial period’. The next group, by contrast, came to think about teaching much later in their careers.

(3) **A positive reassessment of the life world** – Harriet, Indiana, Louise and Sue ‘discovered’ teaching after having thought about their lives, and deciding that they had a latent (unsuspected) interest in teaching and perhaps could make better use of their talents in that way. Harriet’s story is unusual and illustrates the ‘serendipitous’ nature of some kinds of decision making:

> ‘We were having a conversation about what we would do with our lives if we had them again I said if I had my time again I would be a teacher, a geography teacher, because it’s a subject that had always come easy to me and I’ve always enjoyed, and they said well hang on a minute you’re only 36 why not go and do it’ (Harriet, Stage 1)

Whilst Harriet’s decision was made ‘naively’ without ever having taught at all, Louise had a definite sense of efficacy and self-belief based on extensive
teaching experience; as a linguist, IT trainer and qualified youth worker, the decision to think about teacher training seemed logical and natural when she returned to England to settle down and consider her career.

This group had all carried out a positive, often philosophical, reassessment of their life world and had made a decision that moving into a career in teaching would be logical, possible and rewarding. The final group, considered next, also had occasion to re-examine their lives, but for quite different reasons:

(4) Dissatisfaction with the current life trajectory, career or prospects — David, Frank, Olivia and Queen had only considered teaching after experiencing frustration, dissatisfaction and disappointment with their existing life trajectory and/or career. Whereas Olivia had ‘drifted’ into a situation that needed change, and Queen found ‘high flying’ in the city stressful and intellectually barren, Frank was ‘forced’ by the economic collapse of his business to reappraise his life:

"Initially it was because of a series of not getting enough work I was a freelance designer and work suffered because of the.com crash and competition got really difficult so I looked around for other kind of work, so that was the initial thing" (Frank, Stage 1)

The connecting theme running through these four respondents’ reflective appraisal of their lives was ‘there must be something better than this?’ That ‘something’ turned out to be a career in teaching.

How respondents would cope with the course pressures

When asked how they were going to cope with the pressures of the teacher training course, respondents generally looked to the past to predict their future performance. Everyone spoke about his or her personal qualities of experience, maturity, resilience and/or determination, almost as a ‘matter of course’. There was also evidence, however, for various kinds of self-regulatory strategies used to manage academic and social performance. These strategies involved Attributional style, defensive pessimism, and descriptions of self-handicapping behaviours such as ‘talking themselves down’, being hard on themselves and
leaving things to the last moment. It is generally recognised that personal goals, self-efficacy and attributions generally interact and are difficult to study in isolation, which is why Schunk and Zimmerman recommended using longer-term longitudinal studies as a way to explore their dynamic interplay (Schunk and Zimmerman, 1994, p.311). The stories emerging in Stage 1 of this longitudinal study, describing how the respondents came to the course and expected to perform, suggest that the development of self-concept as a teacher, although dynamic and complex, is something that can be explored, analysed and examined and set within a context involving the interplay between actual self and possible self.

Respondents prior experience and perceptions of teaching

The initial interview group contained people with widely differing economic and social backgrounds. Of the 19 who took part in Stage 1, seven had prior, overseas, experience of teaching before applying for teacher training in the UK. With a couple of exceptions, the others had very little experience of teaching; however, the personal stories suggest that even a brief exposure to teaching contexts had a positive and motivating impact. Olivia had just one day a week, for a brief period, ‘teaching’ other people when she was studying as an art student, but that was enough for her to know that this was something that she could do that could make an impact on other peoples’ lives.

Before starting their teaching practice placements, these respondents’ perceptions and preconceptions about teachers and teaching, had an important role in shaping their ideas (positive and negative) about a possible self as a teacher. Norman, for example, was excited by the idea of the learning process in children and the intrinsic value of education; Olivia was initially put off teaching by the attitude of her teachers in art school who told her: “if you fail you know it’s okay you can go into teaching”. Queen, too, was adversely affected by current opinions about teaching so she had applied for graduate management training scheme with a city-based firm. Rose, however, had a very different perspective from most of the others in the sample group as to why teaching might have a particular appeal to someone from a working class background:
“I think teaching is a very attainable stable future for people; in my family we are the first generation to go to university, we’re not aiming for some job in the city or some job in management; that is not in our frame of reference, it’s all about getting an education and that we were never pushed to go into a particular career or anything like that. Because of the subject we were doing it seemed like a natural progression, and it is a better-paid job than most of my aunts and uncles ever had.” (Rose, Stage 1)

Across the sample, the emergence of a ‘possible self’ as a teacher varied in terms of the influence of perceptions, experience and context e.g. the role of internal and external factors. For people like Mary, becoming a teacher had seemed a ‘certainty’ from an early age, the interest had always been there, and it was a matter of waiting for the opportune time. For Rose, a first generation graduate in her family, the interest and the opportunity evolved together later in life. For others, like Norman, the long-term interest in teaching had been overshadowed by doubts about the feasibility of it happening and so teaching remained a more ‘uncertain’ prospect for many years. Overall, these examples illustrate how the concept of becoming a teacher, and the eventual decision to enter teacher training, was connected with different degrees and combinations of valence (interest) and expectance (possibility of realisation).
Part 2  Self-Concept as a Teacher at Stage 1

A comparison of the Actual Self as a teacher, and the associated formulation of the Ideal Teacher concept

1  Actual Self as a Teacher

During the first interview at Stage 1, before they had started their first teaching placement, BTs were asked when they would be able to make the claim ‘I am a teacher’ with conviction. Most said that, just by being on the course they were feeling more like a teacher everyday but not yet completely or properly. To feel like a proper or complete teacher they would need to have achieved one or more of the following:

- Completed the course successfully and be awarded a teaching qualification, the PGCE
- Have completed at least two, perhaps three, years experience as an NQT
- Be sure that they know how the system worked
- Have prepared and accumulated lots of lesson plans, and
- Were confident that they had gained classroom control

To make the claim ‘I am a teacher’ with total assurance, they would need to have reached the stage where they were doing things by themselves, wouldn’t need to ask other people what to do, were being consulted themselves, and the pupils had accepted them as teachers and not as trainees. As a proper teacher they would know they were not pretending anymore, they would be able to stand in front of a class and know the kids names, know what they wanted the students to achieve by the end of the hour, and know the way to help them do that.

The ‘criteria’, set out above, for making the claim was future oriented, these were things yet to be done; some BTs, however, claimed to be a teacher already mainly because they had been working as teachers or had taught in the
past. A few argued that, by definition, if you are on contract, or teaching or taking the class, then technically you are a teacher; one drama BT made a distinction between doing the job of a teacher (being in role), and having a core identity as a teacher. For her, ‘teaching’ was not necessarily the same thing as ‘being or feeling like a teacher’.

“So when I’m saying I’m a teacher it just means that’s what I do when I’m at work, it doesn’t mean that I think deep inside me that’s my entire being, I am a teacher” (Patricia, Stage 1).

Overall, there are two interesting features of these responses; first, no one mentioned subject knowledge or having outstanding personal qualities, such as being ‘inspirational’ as grounds for saying ‘I am a teacher’. Second, the majority of the claims were grounded in the context of systems and procedures, knowing what to do and how to do it, also, being self-aware of that knowledge. The claim ‘I am a teacher’, meaning actual self as a teacher, could be made when the teachers themselves ‘knew inside’ that they were doing the job properly.

There were clear echoes here of the intensional and extensional types of definitions that emerged in more detail and depth in the analysis of the Ideal Teacher concept. ‘Intensional’ definitions of the actual self as teacher refer to the way in which respondents talked about what they actually do as teachers. Most of the BT’s referred to the acquisition and use of skills and actions that would practically mark them out as teachers and legitimise their claim to be a teacher e.g. having classroom control, lots of lesson plans, knowing the pupils names, having clear learning objectives and the knowledge and skill to help students achieve them. This was the internal or intensional claim to an identity as a teacher.

Only one or two BTs referred to having ‘qualifications’ as a way of legitimising the claim to be a teacher e.g. being qualified, accredited and having a proper job.

“I suppose when I've got my qualification, Prompt: why is that? I think I'm feeling more like a teacher everyday, but not till I have my qualification will I say to myself 'I am a teacher'.
That’s important to you?

Yes it is, I think it is because I can go out and get myself a proper job as a teacher and I have my accreditation, and recognition.” (Betty, Stage 1)

This appeal to personal status or external approval as a way of defining the actual self as a teacher would be the external or extensional claim to an identity as a teacher. The differences between the intensional and extensional form emerged more clearly and strongly within the ideal self as teacher and this is examined next.

2 Ideal Self as a Teacher

All respondents could express ideas about the kind of teacher they wanted to be; however, the sample divided evenly in the way they went about describing or defining the concept of the ideal teacher.

At the Stage 1 interview, there was a clear distinction between respondents who expressed ideas about what an ideal teacher does, and those who talked about who or what an ideal teacher is. The first form can be termed the Intensional Notion of the Ideal Teacher and this mostly consisted of descriptions about what a teacher does, or should be doing, practically, in the classroom or when working with learners. The second form can be called the Extensional Notion of the Ideal Teacher and this approach focused on the desired qualities and attributes of the ideal teacher as a person.

This categorical distinction between the Intensional and Extensional forms of the Ideal Self is based on Mark Baker’s ideas about the similarities and differences between languages in which he presents a useful analogy concerning samples and recipes (Baker, 2002, p.52). Some respondents gave examples of their ideal teacher as descriptions of people, their attributes, thoughts and actions (the sample); conversely, other respondents talked about what their Ideal Teacher would do in terms of planning, teaching and treating learners on a day-by-day basis (the recipe). For this analysis of the ideal teacher concept, the metaphors of sample and recipe will be borrowed freely to
express the ideal teacher in two forms, the intensional form and the extensional form.

The source for the ideal teacher varied across the 19 respondents; eleven used real people as the basis of their ideas, seven of these based their idea of an ideal teacher on specific people, and four others used an amalgam or 'composites' of several people they had known. Of the remaining eight respondents, two used general principles or ideas gathered on the PGCE, whilst six had no particular model in mind. Where respondents used people or the PGCE as the basis for the ideal teacher they tended to use the Extensional form of the Ideal Teacher; five of the six with no particular model in mind used the Intensional form.

The Ideal Teacher — The Intensional Form
As a recipe for success in the classroom, the following 'definition' would do very well:

"Probably quite strict but without having to shout, hopefully good and interesting lessons, reliable, and someone who knows the subject quite well, who knows the people as well"
(Kay, Stage 1)

The BTs' comments about their ideal teacher (intensional form) were brief, focused and read like a set of PGCE approved lesson objectives, or reminder notes on a lesson plan e.g. establish and keep control, practise differentiation, and encourage participation. The profile described what was required but not how these things were to be achieved.

The Ideal Teacher — The Extensional Form
Most BTs aspired to the following ideal:

"Yes, I want to inspire students" (Betty, Stage 1).

In general, BTs' comments about the ideal teacher (extensional form) were emotive and evocative and the ideal teacher emerged as someone inspirational and memorable, who would bring about learning simply through force of
personality, through their enthusiasm and by the way they would be able to communicate ideas and the decent way they treated people. Teaching technique and methods were absent from this scenario; the ideal teacher profile was a cameo, a distillation of memories, and an essence of qualities.

The Anti Ideal – The Teacher I would dread becoming
In general terms, possible selves provide a link between self-concept and motivation (Oyserman and Markus, 1990, p.113) and in this research the idea of the 'Ideal Teacher' was presented as a way in which BTs could formulate a domain specific possible self. Oyserman and Markus also suggested that there could exist a countervailing possible self, the feared possible self, in the same domain and that a balance between the two, the desired and feared possible self, would be “maximally effective” in providing a strong motivational force (Oyserman and Markus, 1990, p.113). This idea was explored by asking BTs at Stage 1 about the kind of teacher they would dread becoming, this feared 'person' would equate to the countervailing ‘anti-ideal’ teacher. Responses to this question were graphic and uncompromising and the observations by these BTs have a real and urgent tone about them because they were made through the fresh eyes of new entrants to the teaching profession. Two ‘dreaded’ caricatures or profiles emerged for the ‘anti-ideal teacher’: The Shouter and The Resigned.

Respondents mentioned shouters and shouting as something they disliked, or thought of as a sign or symptom of some other problem, for example, shouting was linked with a macho, authoritarian, approach to teaching. Louise, Sue, Julia and Norman had all experienced ‘shouters’ in their schools and linked this characteristic to authoritarian methods and attitudes, to a disdain for children, and for a seeming lack of awareness of children’s feelings. The ‘anti-ideal’ teacher was a fearsome concept and these BTs expressed their feelings vehemently:

[I would dread to become a real authoritarian teacher, for some of them authority is everything, some teachers seem to just like shouting, they can’t be enjoying it’ (Sue, Stage 1)](121)
“A teacher that didn't respect pupils with learning difficulties as a lot of people might... I get so angry with them when they say this is the dumbest class...I’d dread to be so strict and I put terror and fear into the pupils that they forgot their copy book” (Julia, Stage 1)

‘Someone the children feared, someone who would stand at the front and give the lesson and not take into consideration whether various children were picking things up or it finding it difficult’ (Norman, Stage 1)

Charlotte felt furthest away from her ideal teacher concept when she reflected on particular classes and aspects of her own behaviour, particularly when she could recall shouting.

Whilst BTs disliked ‘shouters’ they had also developed distaste for other types of teachers too. Whereas ‘shouters’ directed their ire at the students, ‘The Resigned’ had a negative impact on other members of staff and this was noticed very quickly. The ‘resigned’ teacher had become lazy, had ‘given up’ on the job, was generally unprepared for lessons and would let things go. Some longer serving teachers had become ‘bitter’ about certain kinds of pupils and used inappropriate language:

“I dread becoming bitter, within a couple of days of being in school I heard teachers referring to individual kids as loonies they're just crazy nuts and that really scares me, I don't ever want to use that terminology I want to know what's the matter with them” (Rose, Stage 1)

The feared possible selves described above are of the extensional and intensional kind, they describe what the anti-ideal teacher does, and what he/she is, or has become. Whilst the descriptions of the Ideal Teacher were often outlines and broad-brush caricatures, the descriptions of the Anti-Ideal Teacher were always sharper and more focused. Overall, the behaviours of both these kinds of teacher (where they exist for real) should be a cause for concern not just for BTs, but also for the education sector generally.
At Stage 1, respondents thought that being a teacher was not primarily about subject knowledge or personal qualities, being a teacher was more about doing a job well; because many had not taught or had limited experience of teaching, they would be teachers only when they knew for certain, in their own minds, that they could do certain things. The actual self, as a teacher, 'resembled' the ideal self checklist of competences in terms of knowing what kind of things a teacher should be able to do, e.g. establish and keep control in class, practise differentiation, and encourage participation. The key difference was that the BTs did not yet know how to make these things happen, they knew what but they didn’t know how. For most, the actual self seemed to be in motion, just by being on the PGCE, BTs were ‘feeling more like a teacher every day’ and so self-concept as a teacher had definitely begun a process of transition. There were exceptions to this, people like Louise already thought of themselves as teachers based on extensive knowledge and experience of teaching and training; Patricia reasoned that if she was employed as a teacher then she was a teacher. Generally, no one used qualifications, subject knowledge, inspirational qualities or personality, in isolation, to substantiate the actual self as a teacher.

The ideal teacher self was thought about in two particular ways; the intensional form described what the ideal teacher would do, whereas, the extensional form described what the ideal teacher was like as a person. The intentional form was the most prevalent way of talking about the Ideal and only a few described their ideal teacher self as inspirational, caring, or charismatic. In addition to the Ideal Teacher construct acting as a positive possible self, there was also, for a number of BTs, an anti-ideal, this was a feared or negative possible self. BTs had seen teachers they described as ‘shouters’ or ‘resigned’, teachers who were macho and authoritarian in style, or, who had become cynical, lazy and bitter. They feared becoming like this and would leave teaching if they felt that was happening to them.

In terms of what was holding the actual and ideal teacher forms together, taking the decision to join the PGCE was the key step in a complex process of managing change. For many BTs the change process involved giving up
existing, and sometimes well-paid, jobs, finding childcare, moving home and moving across country; the life-world and the process of daily living changed in a number of significant respects, whilst in other ways, many things remained unchanged. The current or actual self was marked both by stasis and change. For everyone, however, key aspects of self-regulation would be controlled or regulated through the PGCE course process itself. Attending, doing the work and passing the exams would all have to be taken care of and BTs looked to their previous experiences and performance to speculate on how well they would do. Through the process of teacher placements and observations, the PGCE course would be the mechanism for aligning the actual self with the possible self as a teacher. Whilst most respondents thought of them selves as determined and resourceful, a number spoke about various ‘self-regulation’ strategies for motivating themselves that they used in the past and would probably use again on the course.
Part 3  Self-Concept as a Teacher at Stage 2

A comparison of the Actual Self as a teacher, and the associated formulation of the Ideal Teacher concept and the relative movement between the two constructs at Stage 2

“I always feel as though my ideal self is kind of somewhere else and I haven’t quite found it yet but maybe that will be the thing that kind of keeps me looking” (Indiana, Stage 2)

1  Actual Self as a Teacher

The Stage 2 interviews were carried out immediately after the completion of their first teaching placement and BTs were asked in what ways they considered themselves to be the same as, or different from, other teachers they had worked with? As a probe, they were asked if they considered themselves to be ‘insiders’ or ‘outsiders’ in regard to the whole fraternity of teachers?

Comparisons with other teachers at Stage 2

Similarities
The experience of the first school placement had shifted BTs’ attention even more towards a skills and practice-based view of self as teacher. All except one of the BTs now used action based exemplars to show how they were starting to be more like other teachers they had worked with. In finding points of similarity with their more experienced colleagues, they described themselves as good, or getting better, at classroom management, this involved having more structured lesson plans and lessons, being better organised and focused, and having respect for students. Improvements in their day-to-day, operational, characteristics included prioritising, being flexible and having to think on their feet. BTs also felt they were developing more practical attitudes and outlooks on life; for example, feeling tired yet knowing how to focus, to relax and to relate, and how to pace oneself. These BTs noticed that successful teachers seemed to cope with stress by compartmentalising their lives and focussing on one thing at a time, they also appreciated colleagues who could always find the time to
chat and relax, someone to pour it all out to when you had a bad day or a difficult lesson.

Differences

Although BTs were starting to behave more like other experienced teachers in the classroom, the key difference between them and other teachers they had got to know was long experience and all of the things that flowed from having put in many hours (years) of teaching. Generally, BTs realised that long experience was invaluable and although, as newcomers, they might have lots of energy and creativity, by itself that was not enough; with long experience you got to know the curriculum and the subject matter in a way that allowed a certain clarity, and conciseness in explanation. Teachers with long experience also had more than just knowledge and control; they had developed a deep level of understanding of the system so that they just seemed to know what was expected of them at any time. Without long experience, BTs didn’t always know what to do or what to say to the children, in an automatic way, and learning outcomes were not always assured.

BTs knew that long experience was valuable, but they recognised that it could also bring about ‘mental fatigue’. BTs felt differentiated and alienated from long serving teachers who appeared to have ‘given up’ on the job and the children. These were the ‘resigned’ teachers identified earlier in Stage 1:

“I am not like the teachers who sit around and moan about the kids all of the time. The staff room in my last school, I stopped going in there in the end because I thought to it was like a place where you go to die or something, watching the clock, and when is the bell going to go.” (Patricia, Stage 2)

Long service also meant being a long time away from outside or non-teaching work; BTs, therefore, could bring current and relevant experience from a wide range of business backgrounds to their teaching contexts. Long experience, therefore, was a positive differentiator only when it was coupled with positive professional attitudes and superior expertise as a teacher.
Feeling like an insider or outsider at Stage 2

When asked if they felt more like insiders or outsiders in relation to the wider teaching fraternity, the respondents appeared to rate themselves on a ‘dimension’ ranging from insider to outsider and to position themselves along this dimension using two kinds of criteria. First they used short-term factors concerning the immediate context and social situation they found themselves in where the dominant factor within ‘context’ was the way in which other people treated them. Second they used a longer-term factor relating to the amount of teaching experience they had built up (see similarity and difference discussed above).

Insider
Louise, definitely felt like an insider because of how she was treated by colleagues and management at her placement school and through the way she was able to use her own (prior) professional knowledge in dealing with difficult staff and personnel issues. Louise acted as if she was an insider and expected to be treated as such.

Insider and Outsider – In transition
Most people saw themselves as being in a process of transition from outsider to insider and therefore part of both camps. There appeared to be two facets to the transition process; in the short run, the perception of being an insider/outsider was influenced by school based effects in the form of social context, particularly how other staff related to them and treated them. If a BT was treated like an insider, they felt that they were one. In the longer term, the gradual build up of teaching experience would eventually result in a pronounced shift of perception, internally and externally, of the person’s insider/outsider status. Kay felt a ‘bit of both’ but reasoned that once enough time had gone by, there was no reason why she couldn’t feel like an insider. Indiana’s feelings about being an insider or outsider were very much context bound, and depended heavily on the practice of the school and the attitudes of the staff where he was placed. At his first school he felt that student teachers were left to get on with the job and to find their own way. When he thanked the other staff for their help, at an end of term meeting, many didn’t even know he was a
student teacher, this made him feel like an insider. On a visit to his second placement school, however, he noticed that they talked about student teachers this and student teachers that, and when you are a student teacher, and so on, and this made him feel like he was not a real teacher, he was an outsider again.

**Outsider**

Two people definitely identified themselves as outsiders largely for reasons to do with social context. Both of these respondents, however, appeared to have contributed to the maintenance of the context (or the definition of the situation) by acting in a way that 'confirmed' rather than 'challenged' the situation. Olivia defined her 'outsider' perspective quite clearly:

"I think an outsider; I think I do now because I am starting at the new school, I mean previously at my last school I was made to feel very welcome in just things like having my own desk, having a physical space, actually makes you feel part of it, sort of spiritually, then you feel that you belong to a certain extent. It depended really on which teachers I worked with, I still feel a bit on the outside because of the way that I just sit with the other beginning teachers and we are talking about different things from what teachers talk about and yes I just feel a bit on the outside."

Probe: do you think that will change quickly or take a while?

I think that I might take a while really because even in your NQT year you’re still learning so you’re still at the bottom of the pile.” (Olivia, Stage 2)

Sue’s feelings about being an outsider were also context driven, and again, like Olivia, Sue had apparently reinforced the position through her acceptance of the situation. Sue had a placement at a new school site where a group of ‘founding teachers’ had established a kind of ‘in-group’; this had meant that all the other, newer, teachers, including Sue, felt quite separate. Sue also noted that there were many personal relationships established to the extent that she felt uneasy and so Sue had almost excluded herself:

"It was a bit of an incestuous kind of school, with everyone going out with everyone else, I was quite happy to be apart, so I would say no I was a happy outsider.” (Sue, Stage 2)

Patricia was the only respondent who contested the dichotomous nature of the question (she thought that this implied a ‘them and us’) and suggested that the issue was not that cut and dried. Patricia described her feelings about being a
teacher in terms of being on the kids’ side when she first started teaching, and that she still was. However, she felt that she was just like her colleagues, and personal friends, who were teachers, but not quite like other teachers. It seemed as if Patricia wanted to teach but didn’t want to be a teacher.

2 Ideal Self as a Teacher

Two forms of the Ideal Teacher construct emerged at Stage 1, the Intensional Form and the Extensional Form. The two forms were still present at Stage 2; however, the Intensional Form had changed substantially whereas the Extensional form had changed only slightly.

Intensional Form:
The Intensional Form had changed in several important respects; first, it now reflected the reality of everyday classroom life. There was still a focus on firm discipline, strong classroom management skills and mutual respect, however, the profile now contained suggested approaches and strategies needed to sustain the process of teaching and learning e.g. multitasking skills, flexibility in approach, and strong and direct feedback to students. These would be the kind of process skills that good teachers develop and use.

Second, the profile was now more practical, if not a little cautious; the ideal teacher knows the discipline procedures, the school routines and the micro politics of authority and checks these before taking action. The ideal teacher knows how the system works and can use the available sanctions appropriately and judiciously if they have to.

Third, the profile had become more idiosyncratic and proactive in that the ideal teacher was someone who exercised independent judgement about how they related to students and how they interpreted and balanced the needs of certain students against the demands of the curriculum. The ideal teacher could also use ‘unconventional’ approaches including humour and even sarcasm, based on their close knowledge and understanding of the classes and individuals concerned; also, the ideal teacher may choose to break away from the conventional curriculum framework if that would bring substantive
improvements or benefits for particular learners e.g. decisions about taking examinations and teaching examination based curricula.

Following the first practical teaching placement, the ideal teacher profile had become more ‘practical’ in its depiction of classroom activity; the profile was also quite ‘radical’ in its suggestion that the ideal teacher exercised strong independence of thought and action.

Extensional Form

The ideal teacher profile (extensional form) remained largely unchanged except that now the ideal teacher was a little more ‘human’ and had a sense of humour and was able to show more personality in the classroom situation. Whilst this suggests a little more realism in the concept, there was still no hint as to how the ideal teacher qualities translated into student learning outcomes.

3 Actual and Ideal Self - The Gap at Stage 2

All of the BTs confirmed that there was a ‘gap’ between their current and ideal self as a teacher, and that the gap was dynamic in nature, closing, widening or remaining static:

“It’s definitely closing but it’s also oscillating, it changes on circumstance” (Norman, Stage 2).

“I think the gap is probably narrowing just because I have learned a lot I’ve tried things out in the classroom and I’ve tried ways of reacting with pupils which has worked and that’s how I want to be so I’ve tried to build on that really” (Olivia, Stage 2)

“Hopefully it’s closing, yes because one of the things I said about the ideal teacher was good classroom management, and I think mine is better, so the gap is closing” (Kay, Stage 2).

“I would say yes I’m probably still as far away as when I started” (Sue, Stage 2).

The gap existed as a concept, as an idea that BTs could think about and use in various ways e.g. as a construct within teaching practice, as a motivational tool, as a part of various self-regulatory strategies, or within the process of reflection and self-evaluation. The gap could be used in the following ways:
A Skills Check List: As a construct within teaching practice, the contents of the gap served as a reminder of various skills, activities and processes that the BTs should engage with, a ‘check list’ of things to do or explore. BTs expressed these targets in different ways, as a broad change in behaviour, or as an idea for a particular class, the need to chase up and check homework, or perhaps to develop the pastoral side of things. There was a need to monitor progress with the list of things ‘to do’ and these respondents recognised that the contents of the gap had to be gradually incorporated into everyday practice.

A Motivator: The gap also served as a potent source of motivation. Norman envisioned (hoped for) an ever-moving target that was always being chased; in fact Norman defined the ideal teacher as someone who was always thinking about change and improvement:

“I hope I never get there, in some ways, if I did get there then my ideas will change more I can't ever see myself getting to the stage where oh yes and I'm the ideal teacher, if you're the ideal teacher you never stop thinking about how you can improve, I think your always going to keep moving,” (Norman, Stage 2).

Indiana too, expressed the idea that the gap was important for him, kept him looking, always searching as a teacher, and in that sense he hoped he would never find it or close it. Most BTs talked about this ‘merry-go-round’ of professional development and change in a positive way and linked the process to improvements in practice; some experienced that improvement happening, whilst others still hoped for it:

Self-Regulation: BTs used the concept not just as a motivator, but also as part of a range of self-regulatory strategies. Indiana, for example, was remarkably self-aware about his use of defensive pessimism and was able to articulate the strategy very clearly. First comes the search for perfection in the job, the search for perfection then leads to anxieties about performance as a teacher and this is reflected in the way he would seek reassurance from his tutors. Then, even when Indiana actually performed very well, he found it difficult to take appropriate credit for his achievements:
Reflective Practice: When BTs thought about the gap between current and ideal self, they not only visualised the differences as a ‘check list’ for improvement and change, they often specified the criteria that would tell them when they had achieved their targets. Part of Kay’s ideal self, for example, included always having ‘interesting lessons and making it fun’, something she quickly realised was beyond her at the early stages in her first school placement. Although Kay was aware that she couldn’t achieve this immediately, what was interesting, was her belief that, with practice, it would happen sometime:

“I haven’t really worked that out, I don’t know if some people do manage that, I don’t think I can do that, but I think with more time I could do it. That’s what happens.” (Kay, Stage 2).

To complement the process of target setting, BTs were using reflective logs and diaries to monitor and evaluate their own progress; for some BTs this process of incorporating target actions and behaviours into practice had started to work very well:

“It’s funny actually because I think I probably think about it less, I’m less conscious of trying to match up to the criteria and when I came back to rewrite my reflective record I had to remind myself of what all those things were, whereas at the beginning it was like a tick box, trying to be all of those things. I would hope at this stage you wouldn’t have to think about it consciously” (Patricia, Stage 2).

Patricia’s response suggests that the use of the ideal-self as part of a motivating strategy becomes less significant as the BT becomes more proficient as a teacher.

Overall, the gap between actual and ideal self as a teacher at Stage 2 created a sense of intellectual movement and dynamism that most of the BTs found useful and even exciting. Some hoped that the gap would never close, others could see the gap narrowing, whilst one BT suggested that the ‘need’ for the gap diminished as skill and confidence in the self as a teacher (actual self) improved and increased.

By Stage 2, the PGCE course process had started to ‘shape’ BTs’ behaviour by developing their teaching skills within the school placement. As BTs engaged in
the everyday process of living as a teacher, the Ideal Teacher construct became more focused on practical skills and competences; they noticed how other teachers behaved and were able to draw similarities and differences to their own situation. They could see how their practical skills could be developed rapidly in the short run (similarities with other teachers), but realised the need for long experience of teaching before they could identify fully with their peers (the differences). The way BTs were treated by peers and school managers affected their sense of being insiders or outsiders, e.g. their actual self as a teacher. Short run context was most critical at this point; they felt insiders with close colleagues and department staff, but outsiders to the wider community of teachers. In the long run, their teaching experience would be enough to tip the balance and they would become insiders in their own estimation. The way in which the gap between actual and ideal self was described and used suggests that the construct linked the two other constructs flexibly but securely and allowed relative movement as well as absolute movement.

The overall situation at Stage 2 is summarised in Figure 8 below:

**Figure 8  The conceptual framework at Stage 2**

Actual Self as a teacher  Process of Self-Regulation  Ideal Self as a teacher

BTs are becoming more like other teachers they encountered whilst working in schools in terms of practical classroom management skills but remain different because of lack of long-term experience. Feeling like an insider or outsider depends on context e.g. how they are treated by other teachers, and again on long-term experience.

The gap between actual and ideal self is dynamic and serves as a motivator, a skills checklist and part of reflective practice. It is a vehicle too for self-regulation. The gap is exciting and stimulating and acts as a spur.

The intensional form of the ideal self has changed to become more practice based, more practical, more idiosyncratic, more radical and independent in action. The extensional form is a little more "human" but remains insignificant.
Part 4  Self-Concept as a Teacher at Stage 3

A comparison of the **Actual Self** as a teacher, and the associated formulation of the **Ideal Teacher** concept and the relative movement between the two constructs at Stage 3

1  Actual Self as a Teacher

The Stage 3 interviews took place at the end of the second, and final, school placement. The BTs were in the process of completing course work and getting ready to exit the course, some had secured a full time post to start in the coming September, others had not. Actual self as a teacher was explored using two contrasting questions. The first was relatively closed: At this moment, do you feel as if you are a ‘regular teacher’ now? The second was more open in nature: What kind of teacher would you say you are now?

At Stage 3, ideas about identity as a teacher were framed and presented in terms of the BTs internal *personal perspective*. Two groups emerged at this stage; one smaller group had made the decision they were now teachers, whereas, for the other BTs there remained a question mark in their minds as to their identity as a teacher. One BT had decided that she would leave teaching.

*Decision — I am not a teacher:* Betty, had made a decision not to seek a job in teaching but to return to her previous career in social care work. Betty felt like an outsider, again, like someone ‘looking in’ and talked about ‘using teaching’ rather than ‘being a teacher’. Betty acknowledged that she had learned a great deal from the course in terms of teaching techniques, but other kinds of change had eluded her:

> "I was sort of expecting to have more of a real kind of vigorous passion for teaching, but I don't really have that" (Betty, Stage 3)

Betty attributed this failure to develop a passion for teaching and an identity as a teacher to her deep distaste for the bureaucracy and the institutionalised
nature of schools and teaching. Betty revealed that she had felt pressured all the way through the PGCE and had finally decided to ‘use’ the teaching qualification but not as a teacher:

“I think there is a lot of pressure once you start on the course, to be hurled into a whole career in teaching, it’s very difficult to step outside that, that’s what I found, and I think well you know, it’s not the be all and end all, there are other ways you can use this qualification you don’t have to do go in and automatically start teaching in the classroom” (Betty, Stage 3)

Betty had resisted that pressure, however, for the remaining BTs, their life-path continued on towards a career within teaching.

Decision — *I am a Teacher.* This group of BTs had decided they were now ‘a teacher’; their identity had crystallised and their views were presented as coming from the inside. This situation was quite different from Stage 2 where BTs had talked about their identity as a teacher in terms of context, how other teachers treated them, and experience, i.e. their own relative inexperience and the need to build up a solid base of experience. At Stage 3, these teachers could describe what kind of teacher they were and what they wanted for themselves and their students from the system. They were creating their own context.

Indiana was a teacher and described himself as a facilitator, always using student ideas to drive his lessons. He was friendly, needed to be stricter, was conscientious, and spent a lot of time planning lessons; however, he wanted to change that particular aspect,

“One of my big goals is to try and spend less time and get more out of the whole process” (Indiana, Stage 3)

Indiana was now thinking about teaching differently, he was looking at a bigger picture and was, for example, now more ambitious, not just for himself, but also for the development of the department, for example putting on a school play.

Louise definitely saw herself as a teacher, an insider, as someone self-reliant who enjoyed the autonomy that came with the job and intended to act
autonomously in future. Louise could draw on her long experience of teaching and training and felt that she could have done the job without the PGCE. Louise drew constantly on her experience of teaching adults and this coloured her views about the way to treat all learners, including children. Louise had constantly argued and differed with her PGCE tutors over her approach to teaching, and the ‘teacher – trainer’ dichotomy had played a large part in this conflict of opinions.

By Stage 3, Norman had decided that the transition period was over and he was now a teacher:

‘It’s just a choice you make in your head, I am now clear that I am a teacher.”
(Norman, Stage 3)

Norman saw himself as a teacher who was both calm and slightly excitable, friendly, approachable, a teacher who was inventive and tried to bring out the best in pupils; he was fun, and not entirely successful all of the time. Norman was very clear too about his value base as a teacher, his classroom practice would be humanist, student centred, and dialogical in nature, and his classroom a place where teaching and learning was about tentative enquiry rather than transmission of facts.

*Question – Am I a Teacher?*: In contrast to these, straightforward, declarations of identity status, Patricia, Frank, Olivia and Kay remained tentative about their identity as teachers. They remained in the process of transition and still harboured doubts and fears about their ability; they sometimes looked outside of the world of teachers to other groups with which they could associate themselves professionally.

Patricia presented a complex analysis of her situation. She had certainly developed an identity as a teacher (at her new school she didn’t feel like an NQT, she said she was ‘straight in there’); however, Patricia remained ambivalent about the world of teachers and teaching, she was in the world of teaching but seemingly not of that world. Patricia felt like a teacher, was certain she could teach, but she still identified more with the students than with other
teachers. Patricia rejected the idea of a teaching ‘community’ and referred to teaching as ‘a job’, and she still harboured fears about becoming ‘institutionalised’ becoming just like other teachers, like the ones she met at the ‘school disco’. Patricia had a view about what particular aspect of self was, and was not, a legitimate part of her professional role as a teacher. This was certainly a more fluid and flexible view of identity, the actual self as a teacher, than that presented by other BTs such as Louise and Norman.

Frank shared Betty and Patricia’s distaste for the process of ‘institutionalisation’ that affected people who’d been in the profession (teaching) for a long time; he felt they became ‘regular’ teachers through force of habit and declared that he hadn’t been in teaching long enough for that to happen. Frank still felt on the ‘outside’ although there were times that “I did feel like a regular teacher getting on with my day-to-day preparations while I was teaching”. Frank, however, thought about all the other things he could do, and this encouraged him to think about himself as a member of many groups, not just teaching and teachers:

“I’ve definitely got things in common with teachers in general, and quite a lot of things in common, so I’d say generally I would count myself in that group but then I count myself in lots of groups, of designers of artists photographers of people interested in computers and I think teaching is another aspect which I count myself as part of” (Frank, Stage 3)

Olivia knew how to teach but felt that she was almost, but not quite yet, a teacher because of her age and her acknowledged inconsistent approach to different kinds of classes:

“I’m still perceived as quite young by the pupils and younger than I am, so I think they think they can get away with things and I don’t know how to deal with that sometimes, still a bit unconfident, but it depends on the class as well, I am quite different depending on the children I’ve got, so I suppose I’m maybe inconsistent.” (Olivia, Stage 3)

Olivia described herself as a teacher who tried to keep control, to set boundaries and was quite friendly and approachable. Her classroom was a place where children weren’t afraid to put their hands up and ask a question, however, she had not yet established her personal authority with all her classes and although she knew exactly what she was trying to do, did not have the base
of experience to achieve consistent results. Although Olivia felt like a teacher, she identified more with the ‘scared’ NQTs, who were ‘on their own’, rather than the other more established teachers she met in the staff room. Olivia had visions of creating a democratic and ‘safe’ learning environment for her pupils and in that sense had sophisticated and ambitious aims about teaching and learning; however, because she felt unable to achieve those aims she had not fully internalised the idea that she was now a teacher.

Kay still felt that she needed a much longer experience of teaching before she could take on the ‘mantle’ of teacher and make the claim with inner authority. There was a clear distinction between what she said and what she felt about her self, as a teacher; when asked ‘what do you do?’ she was ambivalent:

"If people ask I say ‘I’m a teacher’ but I haven’t properly started so maybe some time after September, now, no I’ve just finished my training.
Probe: in terms of the teaching profession do you feel like an insider or an outsider?
An insider, but still around the edges a bit
Probe: and what will take you well inside the community?
Probably after my first term I think, yes not straight away, when I’ve got to know people and got my classes sorted.
Probe: so if you met a stranger and they asked you what do you do, what would you tell them?
Teacher,
Probe: and would that feel okay?
No, that would be a little bit misleading; it is true but not quite fully true." (Kay, Stage 3)

Kay’s identity as a teacher remained ‘context bound’ in such a way that if the context changed then so did the identity. When asked what kind of teacher she was, Kay referred to external factors, such as student opinion, rather than to her own, inner, estimation, to frame her response:

Probe: what kind of teacher would you say you are now?
“It’s very hard to say. May be organised,
Probe: if you had a new class and they asked you ‘what kind of teacher are you miss’ what would you say?
I can be strict compared to some teachers, but not compared to others, the sort of average I suppose.
Probe: do you see yourself as scary or as soft?
Probably somewhere in between, I think it depends on the school, in my placement school maybe they would think I was soft, but in the school I am working at now they might see me as scary because they are much better behaved.” (Kay, Stage 3)

## 2 Ideal Self as a Teacher

The ideal teacher profile developed at Stage 3 had changed from Stage 2 becoming more multifaceted and rounded in form. The profile was now more concerned with how things were done and the concept of professionalism. The extensional form had disappeared from the scene and the ideal teacher concept was solely *intensional* in form.

The ideal teacher profile now reflected three particular, though related, ways of thinking about the life and work of a teacher; the values and approaches underpinning practice, the persona or role—like qualities of teachers and teaching; finally, wider issues about lifestyle and how one lived ones life as a teacher.

*Values:* The ideal teacher considered fairness, consistency, routine and discipline as the ‘roots’ of good practice; these values shaped and informed the way the ideal teacher approached classroom interactions and, not surprisingly, these are the qualities that were liked and valued in return by the students. The ideal teacher had observed many kinds of teachers and teaching contexts and therefore had an empirical basis to support his or her value judgements about what constituted ‘good’ and ‘bad’ practice.

*Professional Role:* The ideal teacher was now described as a professional, someone who was organised and knew how to place their own individual stamp on a class. The ideal teacher came to class prepared to teach a good lesson and knew exactly what had to be done, what routines and systems needed to be in place for this to happen. The ideal teacher would know everything about her class, the students, their names, how they react together, and so the ideal teacher was able to manage the classroom situation on the basis of a sound understanding and knowledge of all the key variables.
**Life style:** The ideal teacher was also not just *in* the school, the ideal teacher was now a *part* of the school, involved in the whole life of the school, and the school was an integral part of the ideal teachers' lifestyle. The ideal teacher also knew that, as a part of that lifestyle, they would change and develop and therefore accepted the idea of continuous personal growth.

Overall, the defining quality of the ideal teacher profile at Stage 3 was *professional life style*. Classroom practice was rooted, or contextualised, in terms of a sound and credible professional value system; the teachers' persona or social role was also contextualised as professional with all of the imbedded values that term conveys; finally, the ideal teacher was now part of a wider professional context i.e. the whole life of the school, teaching was not a part of life, it was now a way of life. This represented a rounded and holistic vision of the ideal teacher.

### 3 Actual and Ideal Self - The Gap at Stage 3

After the second school placement, the way in which respondents described the relationship between the ideal self and actual self as a teacher, the gap, became more complex, sophisticated and subtle. Part of this sophistication and subtlety arose out of the way BTs were thinking about the ideal teacher concept itself after going through the experience of teaching. The Ideal Teacher concept became less 'ideal' and more 'concrete' as a result of reviewing and reflecting on their experiences in the placement school.

Increased complexity was reflected in the way that the gap between actual and ideal self was seen to be much more dynamic then previously realised. Relative and absolute distance emerged as a factor, BTs could feel they were getting better at some things and not others, but, overall, the gap could still remain relatively large.

During the second school placement, the 'gap' idea also became less homogenous and more multi-dimensional; teaching itself was seen as a multi-faceted activity, where different skills were developing differentially so that in some instances the gap was static or widening whilst in other areas the gap
was closing. Kay, for example, was very aware of the differences in different aspects of her performance:

Probe: which bits are close now do you think?
“Organised, well prepared for the lesson, control lessons, a range of different activities”
Probe: where is there still a bit of a gap?
“Maybe subject knowledge, maybe because I’m still beginning maybe marking, and levelling and being totally accurate, some things like how to follow up things and do certain things, like I’ve never been a form tutor, I’ve got my own tutor group but I don’t really know how to get the best there, yet” (Kay, Stage 3).

In Stage 2, Norman had associated swings in his own confidence with movements in the gap; in Stage 3, however, Norman had started to focus more on his performance and less on the gap, he realised that he was starting to get close (to his ideal) at times, and understood what this performance felt like, what ‘shape’ it had when he was close. The experience had also confirmed what his targets and expectations should be:

“At the moment the gap is feeling quite wide, because I’m not polishing the basics, but I know that I can get quite close at times, I can’t get there all the time, every so often I get pretty close. I start thinking yes this is what I want it to be like, whether that’s actually that close to being the ideal self but it’s starting to take the shape of what (unclear)” (Norman, Stage 3)

The ‘see-saw’ phenomenon in which the gap opened and closed was also associated with a ‘honeymoon’ effect. At the start of the placement, BTs felt as if they were doing well and making progress, then, later on, difficulties would set in. As the term progressed, BTs were under pressure from the PGCE workload and from the school itself, preparation, marking, attending meetings, the workload built up rapidly and so BTs often had to adopt a ‘survival mode’ of operation, just getting by the best they could. Norman was quite pragmatic about the problem and the way to deal with the situation:

“Yes, and that is never ideal but sometimes you just have to do it, but as long as you realise that it’s not ideal and you’re doing it for a reason, try not to make a habit of it” (Norman, Stage 3).
Perceptions of the gap and its dynamics appeared closely related to the BTs’ perceptions and understandings about what was happening to them and to the self-regulatory strategies they were using. BTs were starting to experience great satisfaction when teaching performance was good and they got a glimpse of what successful teaching was all about. This often increased the anxiety and the depression when the teaching didn’t go so well and attention had to be switched back to polishing the basics. These swings in mood and confidence were closely associated with the more complex and oscillating gap, but which was driving which was unclear. Olivia and Indiana described the yo-yo effect very well and there are clear echoes in their imagery of a system that is oscillating about a norm, ‘hunting’ as the engineers would describe it, but, through a process of negative feedback, gradually settling and closing in on a steady beat:

“I think when I teach I just don't feel I'll get there for maybe two years or something, or three years, but as soon as I have a class and it seems to work really well I think oh that's great, and then another time I think that was just a complete fluke and actually I'm not very good, but I think just my ability to think on my feet and speak to pupils is a lot better it's improved” (Olivia, Stage 3)

I found the short period after the honeymoon period where I thought to myself ‘things seem to be getting away from me here’ I just don't know quite where to begin to put it all back, but as the year has gone on, and especially as I have spent three weeks now in a school where I know I'm going to be working, I'd see the gap closing” (Indiana, Stage 3).

Indiana’s comment is consonant with the idea that time on task of itself (building the teaching experience base) had a universal improving effect.

Olivia’s attributions to ‘fluke’ results were part of her self-regulatory strategy, her way of reacting to relative success and failure and the way the gap was moving. Patricia was also very aware of the ways in which she regulated her feelings and emotions about her pupils when she spoke about ‘allowing’ herself to start liking the pupils more because she knew she was going to be with them for a much longer period of time as their ‘proper’ teacher:
I've noticed already that I like these kids more than I like any of the other kids in any other school, and that's not favouritism I think it is because I have allowed myself to, because I know that I'm going to be with them, and I just didn't want to get attached to the other ones” (Patricia, Stage 3).

As the PGCE entered the final phase, BTs recognised improvements in their teaching arising out of the extended practice effect, there was also increased confidence because many BTs had been offered jobs with the school and knew they would be teaching the students in the future. Paradoxically, as the improvements set in, other frustrations would also arise because BTs couldn’t exercise their full autonomy and this frustration would not resolve itself until the BTs were in post.

“I think one of the very difficult things I found at the end of the course was I didn't have full responsibility for myself I was still a teacher in training I was still to a certain extent being monitored and I didn't feel that I could do my own thing in the classroom, and I think towards the end of your PGCE that's quite a difficult things to deal with” (Indiana, Stage 3).

Overall, however, the BTs awareness and understanding of the dynamic interplay between the actual and ideal self as a teacher was more advanced, complex, and clearly expressed and elaborated at this point, than at the equivalent moment in Stage 2.

**Summary of the gap at Stage 3**

The gap was still relevant as a construct and was perceived to be more dynamic, fluid and changeable than imagined at Stage 2. The gap fluctuated widely as BTs moved through their teaching practice placements and appeared to be related to external influences, the nature of school experiences, as well as to internal changes. The gap mirrored their changing (fluctuating) confidence in themselves, for example as they went through a ‘honeymoon’ period and then encountered the difficulties and reality of longer term engagement with classes. The gap was no longer regarded as an homogenous entity and took on a more fragmented and differentiated form as BTs progressed faster in some areas and struggled with others; however, BTs reported many more moments of pleasure when they felt their teaching performance coming together and they
experienced what teaching was all about. Perceptions about the gap were also tied in with self-regulatory processes; however, as overall skill levels increased, the role of the gap as a motivator and reminder of what needed to be addressed, started to decline. As the BTs came to the end of the second placement they began to feel more frustrated with not being fully in charge or control of their own classes and looked forward to being the regular class teacher for their own classes.

The overall situation at Stage 3 is summarised in Figure 9 below:

**Figure 9** The conceptual framework at stage 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual Self as a teacher</th>
<th>Process of Self-Regulation</th>
<th>Ideal Self as a teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BTs are making up their own minds as to whether they are now a teacher or not. Their frame of reference is internal, a small group have made the decision they are now teachers, but a larger group are still 'in transition'. One BT has decided not to go into teaching.</td>
<td>The gap between actual and ideal self is now more fluid, dynamic, multi-faceted and differentiated than before. The gap depends on both changing school experiences and changes in internal states. As the gap oscillates, BTs begin to experience moments when they are close to their ideal. As performance improves, the gap begins to lose potency as a motivator.</td>
<td>The ideal teacher form is now solely intensional in form and is characterised by a concern with humanist values that underpin classroom practice, with a professional approach to the job of teaching and where teaching is now a lifestyle and more than a job.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Part 5  Self-Concept as a Teacher at Stage 4

A comparison of the Actual Self as a teacher, and the associated formulation of the Ideal Teacher concept and the relative movement between the two constructs at Stage 4

1  Actual Self as a Teacher

At Stage 4, the newly qualified teachers (NQTs) talked about four kinds of knowledge they now possessed about themselves as teachers:

(1) Metacognitive knowledge about teachers and teaching, what they do as teachers and why they do it
(2) Understandings and self-schemas about themselves as teachers
(3) Self-regulatory practices as a teacher, and in life generally
(4) Reflections about education and teaching and more broadly about the self

These distinctions are drawn for the sake of the analysis; in practice, respondents mixed and mingled the different ways of talking about themselves as teachers and about their teaching practice. This way of categorising and distinguishing between what was known about the job of teaching, and knowledge about the self as a teacher, draws on ideas about the role of self-schemas and self-regulatory strategies in Garcia and Pintrich (1994) in (Schunk and Zimmerman, 1994, Ch. 6).

(1) Metacognitive knowledge about teachers and teaching, what respondents do as teachers and why they do it

Respondents differentiated between the activity and the content of teaching; they knew about the why as well as the what. They understood that the practice of teaching involved social skills as well as subject knowledge and technical teaching skills, teaching was not just about what they did, but how they went about doing it. The constant daily interactions with many other people, and the
development of relationships, was recognised as the most draining thing, as well as the best thing, about teaching. Through teaching everyday for long periods, they had come to know the best way to deal with their particular students, for example, easing difficult situations with a joke, learning what not to worry about and to let go, and what to make a fuss about. As teachers they were managing themselves within situations not just teaching classes. Kay, for example, now realised the critical importance of being liked by students and the way this affected their willingness to work for the teacher. Kay knew the value in talking to students “about if they’ve got a nice hairdo, that sort of thing”, about not being confrontational, and about getting involved in after school extras. NQTs with a full teaching load understood there was more to teaching than just teaching, these teachers were dealing with complex administration and had to juggle a number of jobs simultaneously. Although Betty was not a ‘teacher’ at Stage 4, as a manager she was clear that this kind of knowledge about people and teaching was completely transferable and could be applied to any kind of professional work involving learners and learning

(2) Understandings and self-schemas about themselves as teachers

NQTs spoke about their goals, values, and what they were good or bad at doing; this kind of self-knowledge involved an understanding of their self-schema as a teacher. Each respondent could highlight some aspect of their self which they felt was a signature characteristic; Betty felt more rooted and professional, Kay thought she was well organised, had what she needed, and knew exactly what she was doing. Norman had become calmer as a teacher, and more generally in life. Amongst her closer circle of friends, Olivia was more confident and felt more equal, this stemmed from the fact she had a job to talk about and was earning money,

“Before I was a little bit lower than everybody else I didn’t have any money and all these things, and I had more free time or perceived free time, and people could ask me to do stuff because it didn’t matter and I could choose to paint when I wanted to” (Olivia, Stage 4)

Olivia had developed a real sense of importance in her community through being a teacher, but she maintained her identity as a painter too. Sue felt she
was more confident, definitely, but otherwise unchanged personally. Sue anticipated that, in the future, her life would be more settled, but her immediate concerns were still change focused:

"Possibly moving schools, possibly moving home as well, at the moment I’m a bit of a travel addict really all I can think of is where can I go in the next school holiday". (Sue, Stage 4)

Once all of those structural changes were complete Sue was hoping she could then settle down and say “right, I’m happy at this school and I really want to stay here and make a big difference here”.

In her own estimation, Louise’ position as a teacher had become more problematic; as an NQT, Louise understood clearly that ‘teaching’ was about more than just being competent in the classroom. Louise was teaching across two departments, preparing for new kinds of examination and, at the same time, had accepted a role as ‘in-house’ staff developer for IT and ICT. Louise was used to hard work, but the manner of her appointment and her perceived closeness to senior figures meant that she had to manoeuvre to find a comfortable place within a complex social setting within the school hierarchy:

“I used to not care about office politics, I hate office politics, and that sort of stuff, but I used to ignore it, but I’m working within it more now than I would have done.
Probe: why is that?
Because I’ve got a lot to fight against, with the kind of tainting I’ve got of having been recruited by the head, and I’m friends with somebody who is deputy head.
Probe: do you feel you have to defend yourselves then?
Not defend, prove.” (Louise, Stage 4)

Louise’ self-schema as a teacher had been unproblematic for her whilst on the PGCE, but was now something to be worked out as an NQT.

(3) Self-regulatory practices as a teacher, and in life generally

Across the board, these NQTs felt calmer, more confident, empowered, and had developed a sense of importance and independence as teachers. They also showed self-awareness of the ways in which they controlled their own

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actions and behaviours as teachers and gave examples of the way in which they now managed their teaching lives proactively rather than reactively.

Betty felt as if she had gone through a rigorous form of training on the PGCE, and in her teaching role at work many things had to be juggled at once and this needed “drive, discipline, focus, application, reflection”. Betty had to be self-disciplined in order to multi-task and this required a conscious effort to work in particular ways and to find time for reflection.

Norman was a lot less anxious when things went wrong, and now dealt with difficult things instead of just ignoring them. He had developed a way of breaking jobs down into manageable portions so as not to be overwhelmed by the overall magnitude of tasks. Just knowing he could do this had made him a lot calmer. Norman had also started to reassess his social behaviour and had begun to set simple objectives such as “not getting drunk during the week” to something more complex “like having good friends”.

Olivia too, had started to think about all aspects of her life, in particular the way she acted with different people and the reactions of other people. When visiting her parents at home Olivia thought she was no different than before, “I’m back to being like a child again no matter that I’m nearly 30”, and as for other people in the community “it doesn’t matter that I’m a teacher I think that they still think I am playing at being a teacher”. Olivia could differentiate between the different social and structural aspects of her life and was able to monitor her feelings and understandings about what other people wanted and expected from her.

Louise could see major differences in the way she now worked and the decisions she made about dealing with her workload. At the start of her NQT year, Louise had planned “masses and masses of stuff” and was able to ‘recycle’ much of this; consequently, Louise could now draw on this ‘investment’:

“Like in the Easter holidays I was here for three days and did maybe another couple at home and we had three weeks off, so I probably worked a third of it whereas in the past I would have worked two-thirds, but was able to look at it and go ‘Oh sod it’ in this half term I’m probably not going to see people anyway I’m not going to put that much effort into it, so I am being more balanced about it.” (Louise, Stage 4)
This was a major change in Louise’s understanding of how ‘professional’ people worked and thought about the job.

(4) Reflections about education and teaching and more broadly about the self

At Stage 4, NQTs spoke about the practice of teaching in terms of their whole life structure. These kinds of comment often acted as a summary or ‘endorsement’ for what they had achieved and for what lay ahead, they seemed to be statements about the quality as well as the quantity of life tasks they were engaged in.

Norman said he was restructuring his life, like rearranging bricks in a wall, and drew a clear distinction between professional role and personal identity,

“I’m not entirely sure you can change who you are, you can change what you do, but you can’t change who you are and that idea of ‘this is who I am’ and I do have certain kind of personality traits which aren’t very good at certain things but knowing that and still having to do those certain things, so it’s a reassessment” (Norman, Stage 4)

Life itself had become a developmental task for Norman, and although he still maintained that he wasn’t sure that “you can change who you are”, with his newfound understanding of ‘self-regulatory’ practice, Norman knew how to tackle the task.

For Louise, personal transformation and change had already happened years ago when she had trained to be a trainer and did her youth work training. The big experience for her, whilst in her NQT placement school, had been “running successful inset for people here against political antipathy” but there had also been smaller moments of satisfaction, “just little stuff like when you get someone to understand something”. Louise was working hard building up resources and materials, however, she was very clear about the bigger picture and the need to plan and be proactive for a different life or career, an alternative ‘possible self’ outside of the school system:
“I don’t do it without an eye to what else might happen outside either, for instance I have a website which might offer me an alternative career option, it’s done for using in school, but there is no way I’m going to put (teaching and learning materials) on a site owned by the school, it’s my site and I’ll pay for it, so it is an investment in all sorts of ways.” (Louise, Stage 4)

Olivia too felt as if she was starting to build things and that her life was going somewhere, whereas before “things had ground to a halt really, and I didn’t really know what I was going to do”. Olivia didn’t have a detailed long-term career plan in teaching but she knew what decisions felt right in the short term,

“Last week there was a job at another school, for a figurative painter which is what I am, but I just thought that I’m not ready to move yet so although I haven’t really got a proper plan, I still know that I don’t want to move yet, so maybe if that sort of job was advertised in a couple of years then maybe I would go for it”. (Olivia, Stage 4)

It is significant that Olivia referred to herself quite naturally and spontaneously as a figurative painter whilst talking about teaching jobs. Although Olivia said that she didn’t have a proper plan and needed to be more methodical in making one, she did have a series of medium term objectives; she wanted to establish herself at her school, to see her year 12 into year 13, and to see an exam group go through, before moving on.

Out of all the NQTs, Patricia was most equivocal about whether or not her life had changed. Some aspects clearly had changed “quite a lot”; she had been able to buy a house with the key worker allowance, had a new boyfriend, and thought that these were “big things”. Patricia also thought, however, that her life hadn’t changed because “it’s always been changing”. Overall, Patricia thought that since completing the PGCE course, her life was starting to settle down, however, as will be discussed later, Patricia still harboured deep doubts about her place within the community of teachers and teaching.

By Stage 4, NQTs were starting to think differently about themselves as teachers and also in broader terms. First they talked about their interest in the teaching process and in particular the importance of managing student relationships proactively e.g. creating a dialogical approach that avoided confrontation and allowed students to learn to like their teachers. Second, they
accepted the importance of engaging with the complex administrative systems and processes that underpinned the whole life of the school. Third, their self-schemas as teachers reflected a calmer more confident self, more in control of their lives. This emotional stability stemmed from knowing they could actually do the job, through gaining respect and self-respect in relation to their peers, and from the knowledge that they were building a more secure and stable future for themselves. They talked more explicitly about the kinds of self-regulatory strategies they used to control their lives and to maintain a positive possible sense of self; they also admitted to having changed in significant ways. All of the NQTs could identify a signature characteristic that was typical of their teaching persona.

Overall, these respondents had a sense of where they were and where they were going; although rooted in their current realities, they all acknowledged that being a teacher was an identity that was still in the making as well as something already made.

2   Ideal Self as a Teacher

The ideal teacher profile at Stage 4 portrayed a sense of someone who was good at the job but had to work very hard to stay on top of the situation. The ideal teacher was very experienced and worked expertly in class; decision making was fast and her judgement sound, the ideal teacher knew how to handle people, how to deal with mistakes, how to react to kids who tried or didn’t try, she understood what to praise and when. Classes ran smoothly.

The ideal teacher kept the subject material fresh and interesting by introducing new ideas and also by making connections between everyday life and the curriculum. Children enjoyed these lessons.

The ideal teacher had full control, managed her classroom presentation very carefully and presented a balanced mixture of discipline and humour, not too soft, not too scary. This teacher relied on good preparation and sound organisation to deliver lessons that were going to be interesting for the pupils;
the ideal teacher was reliable in meeting deadlines and knew how to make things happen in class and in the school.

Even when hard pressed and overloaded, the ideal teacher was tough and resilient and had developed self-confidence and a range of coping strategies; she was still able to manage and succeed when pushed and stretched to the limit.

Overall, the defining quality of the Stage 4 ideal teacher was consistent delivery; this teacher was committed to making things happen in the classroom everyday, day by day. There were other significant changes in the ideal teacher profile compared to Stage 3. The ideal teacher now had a more short-term view of what the job of teaching was all about. The earlier, more reflective, concern with longer-term vision, values, autonomy and personal growth had been subsumed within a very busy and crowded process of daily living. The ideal teacher had become a total pragmatist and was focused on personal delivery as part of a large and complex school system.

From the very beginning of their course of training, BTs used both forms of the ideal teacher (intensional and extensional) to inform their understandings about the kind of teacher they would like to be; however, the action based intensional form was by far the most dominant form. Whilst the extensional form stayed broadly static and focused on charisma, inspiration and enthusiasm as the dominant qualities looked for in the ideal teacher, the intensional, action based form, the recipe for effective teaching, became more complex and elaborated as the PGCE course progressed. The peak of this process occurred in stage three where the ideal teacher concept was clearly contextualised in terms of values, professionalism and lifestyle with clear-cut examples of what these ideas meant in everyday practice. By the time the BTs had become NQTs and were established in their teaching posts, the ideal teacher concept had become focussed on a more narrowly defined set of ideas concerning the efficient and effective delivery of the curriculum day by day. The emphasis had switched from teaching technique per se towards personal style; steering, developing and managing personal relationships was the key factor that allowed learning to
take place. The wider vision and the more long-term view had been replaced by more immediate and shorter-term concerns and ambitions.

3 The Gap between Actual Self and Ideal Self as a Teacher

Respondents were asked at Stage 4 if they still had an image or vision of an ideal teacher; then, in a series of probes and follow up questions, the NQTs were asked if they perceived a gap between the ideal and their actual self as a teacher. The data shows that there was an even split between the way respondents formulated and used the ideal teacher image and how this related to the idea of a gap between actual and ideal. Some used a ‘real person’ as the basis for the ideal teacher, whilst others used a composite of people and/or ideas.

(1) The Ideal Teacher based on a real person

Four people retained an image of an ideal teacher based on a real person they knew or had worked with. In each case the person, or role model, was portrayed as a powerful personality for a particular reason. Edward mentioned his school based Subject Tutor, a physics teacher who managed to present his mainly experiential material without ‘cluttering up’ the syllabus or confusing students; Norman described a new work colleague as incredibly focused and objectives driven, someone who always delivered on promises. Olivia nominated her mentor, an experienced teacher who could always bring a fresh perspective to the subject, someone who was always relaxed and was never angry or rude to students. Patricia chose a senior manager who was good at interpersonal relations, someone who was 100% supportive, always listened to her and acted on her recommendations about student action unconditionally.

In each case, the role model was portrayed as someone who could deal with a specific issue that had a particular importance or valence for the NQT concerned, e.g. Edward was struggling with combining experiential learning with classroom control, Norman with organising his personal life effectively, Olivia with running her classes without the need for detentions and other sanctions,
Patricia with finding ways to relate with colleagues and managers, when asking for help.

For these four people, the ideal teacher profile had a direct connection with an aspect of the NQTs teaching that posed a real problem or a challenge day by day. The strength or expertise of the ideal teacher represented a specific aspect of practical teaching where there was still a gap between the actual self and the ideal self. Significantly, when Edward and Norman found a new, more rigorous or successful, role model to act as a comparator, the perceived gap between actual and ideal self as a teacher increased. This represented a kind of defensive pessimism, e.g. raising the bar just as performance started to succeed.

Olivia and Patricia had very particular fears and anxieties, Olivia about classroom discipline, and Patricia about relationships with other teachers and managers. In Olivia’s case, other teachers had tried to reassure her that her classroom discipline was fine but she feared that it was dependent on a restrictive climate of strict control and detentions, Olivia wanted to ‘loosen up’ but didn’t know how to and had grown dependant on sanctions to control behaviour. Patricia felt isolated and wanted to admit that she needed help, but didn’t feel confident that her managers would give her total support if and when she asked for it. All through the PGCE, Patricia had been unable to reconcile her desire to be a part of the teaching community without becoming ‘institutionalised’ (as she saw it) in the process. For the two NQTs, these feelings and attributions acted as a kind of self-regulatory strategy, involving defensive pessimism. The strategy generated a kind of anxious energy that enabled the respondents to carry on with the job, whilst not really liking what they were doing or what was happening to them. These two were ‘managing’ the gap but not actually doing anything concrete to close the gap.

(2) The Ideal Teacher as a ‘composite’ model

Of the remaining four BTs, two (Julia and Betty) presented an ideal teacher image based on a collage of people and/or ideas about teaching, and two (Kay and Louise) had no actual person or image in mind.
Julia’s ideal image was a composite made up of parts of many people; Julia had said consistently that she had never met an actual teacher she wanted to be like. Julia had stressed repeatedly the problems she had faced as a student (at school and as an undergraduate) with dyslexia and how she had had to work twice as hard as anyone else on her degree course, and then on the PGCE, to succeed. Once in post, Julia had carved out a particularly demanding teaching niche for herself and had consistently chosen to teach only ‘bottom sets’ for science. Julia had succeeded very well and had a glowing reputation in the school; however, she resolutely refused any offers of promotion or seniority within her department. Julia had little use for an ideal teacher image and was committed simply to ‘doing the best she can’. The strategy appeared to be classic defensive pessimism, building up anxieties about failure in order to generate a massive effort to succeed.

Betty’s ideal teacher image embodied a working concept about empowerment and facilitation as a philosophy for teaching and learning and had reverted to the extensional form, her ideal teacher was again passionate, vigorous and with a love of the subject knowledge. During the second school placement, Betty had made her decision not to go into teaching, and by Stage 4 Betty was working as a manager in social care work. Given Betty’s earlier thoughts about teaching, it is very likely that Betty was actually talking about herself, her own ideas about teaching, as the basis for her ideal teacher.

For Julia and Betty, the ‘gap’ was being managed by ‘redefinition’ e.g. they simply redefined the ‘ideal’ teacher and based this on their own particular strengths and outlooks about teaching.

Finally, Kay and Louise both avoided talking about real people as a source for the ideal image and instead focused on practical classroom issues that interested them. Kay’s definition of her ideal teacher was a straight description and definition of how Kay had always wanted to be, and had in fact become, as a teacher:
“Has to have full control, at all times, well-organised, sense of humour, makes lessons interesting I suppose, maybe not being completely scary but a fine line between not being soft either.” (Kay, Stage 4)

In presenting herself like this, however, Kay operated an attributional style in which she believed that other teachers managed to do that naturally and easily without really trying too hard, whereas this was something she still needed to work at, possibly over a period of five to ten years. Kay left herself little room for relaxing or easing up on her search for ultimate control in the classroom.

Louise thought that the gap between her actual and ideal self had closed up in significant areas, such as developing student relationships, but was still an issue in other areas, for example organising and planning the syllabus and mastering the subject knowledge. Her self-belief (her attributional style) in her power to stay one step ahead in getting through an examination based syllabus, was so strong, however, that she was very confident that once she had been through the teaching-examination cycle once, the problem would be over. Louise had already described how, by building up a massive resource bank of materials, she could afford to be more relaxed about working through her holiday period on preparation.

If there was a gap between actual and ideal self, for Louise and Kay, their attributional styles provided a strong motivational impetus to overcome it.

Summary of ideas about the gap between actual and ideal self as a teacher

Overall, whilst the individual responses of the NQTs vary in detail, a number of general issues and themes emerged concerning the way the respondents viewed the perceived gaps between their actual and ideal self as a teacher.

First, the idea of a gap between actual and ideal self, was still valid as an idea and was recognised as an important issue by all respondents.
Second, the gap now focused on a particular or troublesome issue that had a deep and longstanding pedigree, the gap was now ‘monolithic’ rather than multivariate. The multi-faceted nature of the gap at stage 3 had gone and, for example, NQTs no longer talked about their philosophy of teaching or the values that underpinned practice in terms of their actual or ideal self. These philosophical issues had relevance within the context of the PGCE course work at stage 3 and it is possible that within the more pragmatic climate of the NQT school, the values had become internalised, ‘taken for granted’, and therefore not mentioned explicitly.

Third, there were marked differences in the way the ideal teacher image was formulated. Four people used a real person, someone who was an exemplar or expert in the particular (teaching or managing) problem they faced. Two people used a collage of different people, and abstract ideas, to create a composite image; their ideal teacher was a virtual role model. In contrast, two others had dispensed with an ideal image altogether and focused directly on describing the problem and their way of dealing with it. Only one person had reverted to the extensional form of the ideal teacher.

Fourth, all of the eight NQTs used some form of self-regulatory strategy as a way of building up nervous energy to deal with the perceived gap between the actual and ideal teacher self. Five people used defensive pessimism as a way of anticipating and dealing with the problem; three others used attributional style to provide a rationale for why they behaved as they did.

Finally, all of the NQTs were dealing with the gap alone, there were no indications that NQTs were receiving institutional or individual follow up guidance or support with continuing professional development (CPD). The overall situation at Stage 4 is summarised in Figure 10 below:
Actual Self as a teacher

Descriptions of the actual self as a teacher were characterised by an intense focus on day-to-day delivery of the curriculum. NQTs were now skilled at managing people and situations almost without thought, and this was how they talked about teaching – less concern with content and technique, more concern with making classes work smoothly by proactively managing the many social interactions. NQTs were calmer, more confident, were aware of their signature characteristics and aware of their self-regulatory strategies.

Process of Self-Regulation

The 'gap' between actual and ideal self had become monolithic in form and had lost its multi-faceted nature from stage 3. Earlier philosophical concerns with humanistic values had disappeared perhaps because these values had become internalised and were now operating through practice. The gap was now managed by choosing an Ideal Teacher 'model' (real person or composite) who could cope with a specific problem or issue confronting the NQT e.g. classroom discipline, staff relations. Self-regulation also involved defensive pessimism and attributional style and was used as a way of coping with the problem. NQTs were coping alone with their problems; there was little or no CPD or institutional support.

Ideal Self as a teacher

The Ideal Self as Teacher remained useful as an idea, was intensional in form and, overall, was a 'paragon' of effectiveness and efficiency e.g. proficient, multi-skilled, delivered interesting lessons that the children enjoyed, and coped well with stress. The Ideal Teacher concept was based either on real people, an amalgam of people and ideas, or (in two cases) was a shorthand way of talking about and dealing with troublesome issues.
Part 6  How Self-Concept changed over the course of the PGCE

This research investigated how BTs self-reported perceived changes in self-concept during, and after completing, the PGCE. Three data collection points to examine changing self-concept were chosen - one at the end of the first school placement, Stage 2; one at the end of the second school placement, Stage 3; and the final one, Stage 4, when the respondents were in post as NQTs. The questions asked about change in self-concept were as follows:

Stage 2  Q1: What changes have taken place in yourself since the start of the course?

Stage 3  Q1: What important changes have taken place in yourself between now and the start of the course?

Q2: How would you rate the change(s) in self, using a 9-Point bipolar rating scale?

Stage 4  Q 1: If you think back to the last time we met, when you were at the end of the PGCE course, do you think you have changed since then?

Probe: 9-point scale: I am still the same person since becoming a teacher - I am a very different person since becoming a teacher

Note on the rating scales: The 9-point rating scales used in the research were not considered to be truly interval or ordinal (i.e. not isomorphic in relation to other similar scales), therefore, the data was analysed by issue and treated as if it was nominal in nature (Siegel, 1956, p.22).

Changes in Self-Concept at Stage 2

Stage 2 occurred after the end of the first school placement and the experience of teaching for sustained periods had created a general feeling of confidence that contributed to a generally positive sense of self for all of the respondents. A
range of teaching skills had been acquired (or confirmed) and BTs were feeling more perceptive and knowledgeable about the routines and details of school life and had begun to ‘slip into’ the role of teacher. Whereas before the first school placement, life in school had been a ‘bit of a blur’, now respondent’s observational skills had been sharpened and they noticed things to pick up on, like ‘school uniform issues’. This generic change (improvement) was not universal, however, in that some BTs felt they already were teachers and had teaching skills and therefore were unchanged (Louise), or had expected to be changed greatly and felt unchanged (Kay).

There were other changes in thinking and understanding beside the generic kind, however, and these changes were more varied and context bound for individuals. These changes in self-concept ranged from confirmation about the types of school that might be acceptable as a place to make a career (Louise), to deeper more metacognitive understandings about self-regulation of behaviour (Indiana and Norman), through to realisations about how the status of a subject (e.g. Geography) might be interpreted and treated differently (i.e. marginalized) by curriculum planners, pupils and parents (Sue). Norman emerged as a deeply reflective individual who intuitively understood that the process of teaching, as a decision making process, would in itself have an impact on his thinking and shape his behaviour. By Stage 2, Norman had started to address his, self-declared, indecisive nature and had begun dealing with his tendency for procrastination.

There were differences, too, in the way that BTs regarded themselves as teachers; Indiana, Norman and Betty were starting to feel more comfortable with their self-concept as ‘teachers’ whereas previously this was something they struggled with. Indiana was reflecting on the differences between self-regulation and self-change and was working with a ‘core’ concept of self that could remain intact even though the skill set (as a teacher) was changing rapidly. Louise and Kay both thought of themselves as established teachers (i.e. unchanged), but whereas Kay was feeling that she had learned nothing new, Louise had been noticing differences and similarities between the way different schools and education sectors worked and was building that into her working practice. As for the future, Sue felt settled in her new way of life and felt that her immediate
future was mapped out, whereas Olivia couldn’t see beyond the end of the course and was worried about what was to happen next.

Summary of changes in self-concept at Stage 2

The key issue emerging at Stage 2, was that BTs reported they felt more confident in a general and generic way, but they also reported specific changes to their skill sets and their awareness, thinking and feelings about issues, rather than fundamental changes to their ‘core’ self-concept. Changes were starting to happen and yet the BTs felt, in general, unchanged.

Changes in Self-Concept at Stage 3

Rating the degree of change in self

At Stage 3, respondents used a 9-point bi-polar rating scale to indicate the degree of change in self; they also addressed a question about what important changes had taken place in their sense of self. Table 13 below shows that, broadly, where respondents rated change in self between 1 and 6 they also reported that they were still the same person. Perhaps some aspect of their skill set had changed, or they now dealt with situations in a different way, but fundamentally they felt unchanged as a person. Where respondents rated changes in self between 7 and 9, however, they felt that a metacognitive change had taken place in their understanding and expectations about themselves; this might be in their feelings of greater self-confidence or being more decisive or aware about their real capabilities as teachers.
Table 13  Ratings for change in self since the start of the PGCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Indicative Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patricia</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betty</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kay</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louse</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frank</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norman</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olivia</td>
<td>7-8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 shows two things about the self in a professional capacity: first, respondents differentiated between structural changes in their personal skill sets and abilities and more metacognitive changes in their self-perception, as a way of reporting changes in their sense of self. Changes in skills and abilities are regarded in this research as 'structural' in nature where 'structure' relates to abilities that stem from the internal world of the individual (Sternberg, 1990) and to the multifaceted nature of self (Marsh, 1993).

Second, this difference was linked to a threshold effect, operating in the way respondents reported the magnitude of change that had taken place in their professional self; below the threshold meant ‘I am still the same person’, whereas above the threshold meant ‘I am a different person in some way.’
Cognitive and Metacognitive changes in self-concept

As in Stage 2, most respondents reported changes (by which they meant improvements) in a wide range of generic skills and abilities such as writing and presentation, speaking in public, strategic thinking, organisational skills, analytical skills and objectives setting. They also reported more sector specific changes in their awareness of, and sensitivity to, language involving ethical and community issues such as gender, discrimination, access and disability. These changes derived from the experience of teaching in their second school placement and, to the extent that respondents were aware of the ways in which they had developed skills, these are termed cognitive shifts in self-concept.

The analysis of the responses at Stage 3, however, shows that, whilst all of the respondents reported changes and improvements in their skill sets and abilities, they differed in terms of whether they felt changed, or unchanged, as a person. Where respondents reported shifts in understandings about their own behaviours and their ability to self-regulate aspects of behaviour they felt different and referred to themselves as changed. These changes are referred to as metacognitive shifts in self-concept. Where this didn’t happen, respondents were unchanged.

Respondents who felt they had changed

Three respondents, Indiana, Norman and Olivia, developed fresh insights about themselves and reported these as significant changes in their sense of self. The changes centred on an understanding of the role of process in everyday life; seeing life as a journey, starting to think analytically, learning to control interactions with students. These understandings also included a growing appreciation that self-regulation was a process that could be influenced, and because of these changes in metacognition they felt they were now different people.

Indiana (Rating 6) Indiana had started the course thinking he was already well equipped as a teacher and had slowly discovered that he had a great deal further to go on what he now described as his ‘journey.’ The development of this
process point of view went well beyond teaching and had affected large parts of his life:

“I think its something that I have realised throughout the year, not just in terms of teaching but in all aspects of my life that everything is more of a journey. I am by nature a perfectionist and I have to be very careful not to expect things to happen too quickly because I can get bored with things. I take on a challenge and if I don’t reach the pinnacle of it very quickly I tend to get a bit disillusioned. But now I think I’ve a got a realisation of that and how to deal with it.” (Indiana, Stage 3)

Indiana had started by thinking that teaching was simply about using or developing a skill set but had realised that his own perceptions and attitudes were just as important and there was a need for other kinds of change. In his own words he had become more ‘humble’. Indiana recognised the role of the course and other people in the reflective process (e.g. the dialogical nature of reflection) and the link between self-regulation, reflection and change. This seemed a very ‘philosophical’ account of his development as a teacher and the way he had encountered and dealt with the need for change.

Norman (Rating 6)  Norman too had changed, he had become more decisive, “I know what I want now”, and more confident. These changes were evident to Norman and other people had noticed as well. Norman had expected to change, thought it a good thing and was glad it had happened:

“I thought that the course would change me in some ways but how it would be I wasn’t really sure, because I was generally a nervous wreck”. (Norman, Stage 3)

With hindsight he thought that these were fairly obvious things that would develop over time as a trainee. Norman attributed the changes to the process of teaching, breaking down things that you actually know quite well, and separating them into objectives. Norman believed that these were things he should have changed much earlier in his life, things like

“Organisation, taking a long-term view, not leaving stuff to the last-minute and things like that, things that if I had changed would have been beneficial to me.” (Norman, Stage 3)
Norman wasn’t sure when the changes had taken place but the realisation came suddenly; he had been doing a project, a Planet Science project, where he had to go into a school and help for four days, and that’s when he suddenly realised that he could actually function quite well as a teacher:

“I did suddenly realise, but it wasn’t a sudden process obviously I can’t remember the precise moment but suddenly you go ‘I wouldn’t have done that previously’, how long before the process actually happened, its difficult to say.” (Norman, Stage 3).

Overall, Norman had become very aware of his earlier negative self-regulatory habits (procrastination) and had started seriously to address these issues.

Olivia (Rating 7-8) Self-regulation had also been a big issue for Olivia and she too had come to terms with its effects. Olivia reported that she was more confident and more self-aware of what she could do. This realisation and the resulting increased confidence had developed at the end of the second placement. Olivia had painted a really bad picture about her chances of finishing, this was part of her self-regulatory patterns of behaviour:

“I really didn’t know if I was going to get through it, I found it quite a struggle, so once I’d achieved it, and also the little achievements that I had while I was there, working with certain groups, so finishing that I realised that I could do it...I can’t believe I’ve done it, and finishing the course I can’t believe I’m here”. (Olivia, Stage 3)

Olivia had also become more aware of the way she reacted personally and emotionally to pressure from students and was trying to resist the feelings:

“Some classes just made me feel really angry or upset, so that was something that I tried to be aware of at the time, and I still find it difficult, pupils just either maybe get on my nerves or they will provoke you or actually hurt your feelings so that is something I’m aware happens so I just find myself focusing on that and thinking that I take it personally, yes that’s something that I’m trying to think at the time just don’t take it personally but I can’t. But I am trying to resist that.” (Olivia, Stage 3)

Olivia had been self-regulating her behaviour by emphasising difficulties and expecting not to be able to do things. This form of ‘defensive pessimism’ (Garcia, 1994, p 136) often leads to high levels of work and commitment that
would normally be associated with positive academic self-schemas and high levels of performance, but to begin with Olivia had not realised that. Olivia was now starting to see, however, that she was capable of high achievement and through greater self-awareness was resisting the urge to talk herself down.

These three ‘cases’ suggest that reflection played an important role in metacognitive changes in understanding self-concept. All three had been engaged in long term self monitoring, self-analysis, and self evaluation of their thoughts and actions, and each one had tried to be honest and accurate in noting what they did and attempting to say why.

Respondents who felt unchanged

Five people reported feeling largely unchanged in terms of their self-concept but their reasons differed significantly. Frank and Betty actively resisted the ‘institutional forces’ pulling them into a career in teaching and kept open the idea of alternative career paths. They both welcomed changes in their personal skill sets but actively resisted developing strong identities as teachers and had kept open the idea of alternate possible selves as career paths. Three others, Kay, Patricia and Louise, expressed ideas suggesting that they remained unchanged because they possessed a kind of ‘inner core’ that was somehow strong, stable and impervious to external influence and change.

Betty (Rating 2) Betty had acquired new skills and capabilities from the PGCE; however, she reported that she

“Never developed a real vigorous passion for teaching.” (Betty, Stage 3)

Betty disliked the bureaucracy and the institutionalised element of teaching and had felt extremely pressured by PGCE course tutors to go into mainstream teaching as a career:

“I think there is a lot of pressure once you start on the course, to be hurled into a whole career in teaching, it's very difficult to step outside that, that's what I found, and I think well you know, it's not the be all and end all, there are other ways you can use this qualification you don't have to do go in and automatically start teaching in the classroom.” (Betty, Stage 3)
Betty had successfully resisted the pressures but had felt alone and unable to discuss the situation either with other course members or with her personal tutors whom she thought would be disappointed if they realised how she felt:

"Not really, there is a lot of pressure especially from the tutoring side of things, you know, it's very disappointing if you don't do teaching and don't utilise your skills, through the kind of conventional way." (Betty, Stage 3)

After the PGCE Betty returned to her career in social work.

Frank (Rating 5) In a similar way to Betty, Frank differentiated between his skill set and his inner 'self'; his skill set had increased and he and other people were aware of this, however, Frank thought he was still similar at Stage 3 to when he started the course. Frank had a strong sense of alternate positive possible selves and had planned for a career both in and outside of teaching:

"I am always quite aware of the fact that I came onto this course and teaching wasn't what I wanted to do with my whole life always, and at certain times I have had to, especially when it's been difficult, bring that to mind and say to myself 'hold on this is just something that I decided to do because I thought it would be a good thing to do and I'm getting lots out of it in some ways' but it's not the only thing I can do it is not the only thing I am ever going to do either". (Frank, Stage 3)

Like Betty, Frank was aware of strong 'institutional' forces pulling him into the world of teachers and teaching and was careful to remind himself not to get "totally enmeshed" in the system. Frank 'disappeared' from the sample set after Stage 3.

Kay (Rating 3) Kay did not feel changed at all in her sense of self; the only difference she could see was that she felt more confident because, after considerable difficulty, she had recently secured a teaching post. Kay had been expecting change but didn't feel changed:

"I was told it would be hard, that it would break you down and then build you up again but that hasn't happened." (Kay, Stage 3)
Kay attributed the lack of personal change to a variety of causes e.g. luck, the nature of her first placement and to her own stoicism:

“I think I was lucky in my first placement, there was no need to break me down, in my second placement maybe I had that but by then it was towards the end of the course and I knew it was finishing so it was just a case of ‘grin and bear it’ to the end” (Kay, Stage 3)

Kay appeared to have a ‘core’ model of self, a kind of impregnable inner self that was resistant to change in whatever circumstance she found herself; Kay believed, for example, that if she hadn’t gone into teacher training she would still be the same person.

Probe: Does it feel to you like you have changed at all?
“No, not really.”

Probe: Does that surprise you?
“No you wouldn’t expect it, if I had been working instead of doing the course I think I would still be the same person that I am now.” (Kay, Stage 3)

Kay appeared to be unreflective about the situation and had adopted a pragmatic attitude that involved just getting on with life and the job as it was.

Patricia (Rating 1) Like Kay, Patricia also differentiated between changes in her skill set and changes in her sense of self. The outcome of this approach to life was that Patricia could reconcile changes in skills and outward behaviours with an inner core that remained the same:

“I don’t feel like a different person but I think I deal with situations differently, I don’t think that means that I’ve changed, it means the way I cope with, or rationalise things, or deal with people.” When pressed on this point, Patricia remained adamant: ‘I am the same person inside I don’t have any different political views or I haven’t changed my values, I don’t treat people differently, I’m the same person.” (Patricia, Stage 3)

Patricia also claimed to be generally happier in the rest of her life because:

“I’ve enjoyed doing this so much and it’s become such a priority in my life that other things that I perhaps worried about have become less important to me so that I cope with those things better.”
Probe: would other people notice these things?
“Yes, yes all my friends have said that I am much happier, because I talk about it in such a
positive way whereas I used to moan about my job the rest of the time, I would get frustrated by
it, and I'm not frustrated by it, I find it really fulfilling.” (Patricia, Stage 3)

Patricia claimed to be noticeably happier, more fulfilled and not at all frustrated
like before the course, but still maintained that she was unchanged, the same
person as before.

Louise (Rating 3)  Louise felt she hadn’t changed personally over the course
and she was very clear as to the reasons why. Louise had started the course as
someone with ‘high powered’ business and prior teaching experience, a
distinctive and proven teaching style, and a clear idea that she wanted a career
in education management rather than classroom teaching. None of this had
changed or been affected by her experience on the course, she reported that
the course had not impressed her at all. There had been no significant change
in her skill set and, with reference to the professional practice she met in
schools, she disparagingly described herself as ‘a little less business like’ than
before. Louise thought she was less ‘teachery’ than other teachers she met
because she used a range of facilitation techniques with her classes based on
her experience in adult education Compared to her previous packed and busy
business life, her daily routine as a teacher had become easier ‘I get sleep
now’. Louise presented herself as a woman who could change situations rather
than be changed by them and therefore felt unchanged as a result of the course
experience to date.

Summary of changes in self-concept at Stage 3

Almost all of the respondents at Stage 3 reported a change (improvement)
across a range of ‘generic’ and ‘education sector’ related skills and abilities;
these changes came from periods of sustained teaching practice at their second
school placement. Respondents at Stage 3, however, formed two sub-groups
on the basis of whether they felt changed or unchanged in their core sense of
self since the start of the course. The differences between the two groups was
linked to a threshold effect in the way that respondents reported the magnitude
of change (using the 9-point scale). Those rating at or below the threshold (1-5)
meant ‘I am still the same person’, (Patricia, Betty, Kay, Louise and Frank), whereas above the threshold (6-9) meant ‘I am a different person in some way’ (Indiana, Norman, Olivia). The key findings at Stage 3 were that:

- A cognitive shift involving awareness of changes in skills and abilities, was not always synonymous with a pronounced change in self-concept
- Several respondents operated with a kind of ‘inner core’ model of self whereby self-concept could be insulated from changes in outward behaviours
- A metacognitive shift, coupled with reflection concerning self-regulatory activity, was associated with significant changes in self-concept and the perception of the self as ‘different’
- Two respondents could resist course pressures to adopt or further develop their identities as teachers (change their self-concept) by actively keeping open a range of credible and available possible selves outside of teaching.

Changes in Self-Concept at Stage 4

Rating the degree of change in self

Respondents were asked at Stage 4 if they felt they had changed since the previous interview at Stage 3, and to indicate the extent of the change using a nine-point bi-polar scale. The ratings, and brief indicative comments from each respondent, are shown below in Table 14.
The table shows that six respondents indicated that they felt changed only marginally since the end of the course (at Stage 3), whereas only one reported that there had been an important change in the way that she felt about herself. The one respondent reporting a significant change (Olivia) gave an associated rating above the change threshold 6-9 (see section above, Changes at Stage 3 for a note on the threshold).

Stage 4 happened when all of the respondents were in full time employment after leaving the PGCE; most had been working for about eighteen months, some for almost two years. Most of the respondents appeared to consider their self-concept as ‘fixed’; if there had been changes these had been superficial or external, rather than major and relating to the inner ‘core’, (see changes at Stage 3 above). Only one respondent, Olivia, rated the change in self as relatively high at 6, and she was engaged in a reflective dialogue, with herself, about her identity as teacher and or artist. The key difference between Olivia and the others was that Olivia felt there had been a change in self because she
was actively shaping her identity and the way in which she presented her self to
the world. In contrast, the other respondents felt that they had remained largely
unchanged and were occupied with coming to terms with their identity.

**Respondents who felt they had changed at Stage 4**

*Olivia (Rating 6)*  Olivia considered herself to be an artist and a teacher and
she was very aware of the difference in the way people treated her as an artist,
and as a teacher. Olivia had felt a great change in her status now that she was
a qualified teacher. Being a teacher impressed people and they made certain
positive assumptions about her income potential and her social standing as a
professional. Unfortunately, they also made assumptions about her intellect and
the way she might relate to other people on a day-to-day basis. The upside to
being a teacher and downside to being an artist was:

> “Before when I was just being an artist and doing really awful jobs I didn’t really have enough
status, and I feel I’ve got more status, it didn’t seem to matter that much before but I just notice
it now when I’m, it’s the way people treat me, I mean outside of my friendship group, so people
have changed in the way they treat me, even just going to rent a house or something, when you
say an artist people are like ‘Em, unemployed’ even if you are earning enough, but when you
say you are a secondary schoolteacher people are really impressed”

(Olivia, Stage 4)

The downside to being a teacher and the upside to being an artist was:

> “I think people think it’s more interesting as well if you are an artist, and people will ask me more
about my work than about, I think if you work with children as well people tend to think that you
are a bit more childlike as well and that you don’t know about the real world, whereas if you’re
an artist people think, or maybe not, sometimes it depends where you are, but some people
think that teachers are a bit cut-off from reality.” (Olivia, Stage 4)

As a painter, Olivia saw herself as a social observer; she was a figurative
painter, creating visual narratives about incidents that happened to her:

> “I see quite a lot of odd things happen to me all the time like really weird situations with people
like people coming up to me in the street or things just happening that I notice so I paint those
things” (Olivia, Stage 4)
As a teacher, Olivia was enthusiastic about the job and she was aware that her enthusiasm could be too much for other people at times:

“I suppose I’m having to make sure that when I go out I don’t talk about teaching all the time because it’s so tempting to do it, it’s really difficult not to, I make a concerted effort to ask people questions about what they do because if I don’t actually make myself do that it’s so easy to just go on about really boring things that happened in the classroom, it’s not boring for me because I really think it’s fun” (Olivia, Stage 4)

Despite her enthusiasm for teaching, and the material and social advantage in being a teacher, Olivia had no doubts about how she wanted to be perceived by others, also, how she wanted to think of herself:

Probe: so in terms of who you are, when people ask ‘what do you do’ what do you tell them?
“Artist, and I also teach, secondary school.”
Probe: have you thought a lot about that or is that something that is intuitive?
“I don’t think I’ve really thought a lot about it it’s just that’s what I want to make sure that I’m always thinking of myself, I just want to make sure I don’t forget that that’s what I want to do as well, and also in a social way people treat you differently if you’re an artist than if you are a teacher, so I want to make sure that people know that as well.” (Olivia, Stage 4)

In her own eyes, Olivia was an artist first and a teacher second; she was clear about that and wanted other people to be clear about it too. For the future, Olivia was upbeat and hopeful:

“Still quite ambitious so getting more ambitious as an artist and as a teacher.”
(Olivia, Stage 4)

Respondents who felt unchanged

The Other Respondents (Rating 2-3) In contrast to Olivia, the other six respondents rated their feelings about change in self much lower at 2 or 3. They maintained that they had changed very little, and if they did behave differently in any way it was a superficial and outward change only, something not reflected in their inner or core sense of self. For these other NQTs, their main preoccupation was adjusting to the role of teacher, coming to terms with their identity as a teacher, and for some, this was not always a happy experience.
Respondents feeling Disappointment and Disillusion

Betty (Rating 3)  Betty had developed an air of confidence during the PGCE that she now brought to her career in social work. That confidence had come from surviving the experience of teaching

“You're very much thrown into the deep end; nothing can ‘faze’ you anymore once you have had to get up and deliver a lesson” On the plus side, Betty had found that process “empowering” (Betty, Stage 4)

That sense of empowerment, however, had proved of little use in dealing with the education system and the bureaucratic managerial processes encountered in school. Looking back, Betty felt frustrated in that she had vision and broad ideas about what could have been achieved in schools and in teaching, however, the ‘system’ had placed barriers and obstacles in her way and so she had felt intense disappointment. Betty thought that the ‘person’ the ‘self’ is founded in the immediate social context and because her context had changed, from school back to social work, she had changed only in that respect. Betty’s disappointments with teaching therefore were externalised and attributed to the ‘system’.

Kay (Rating 2)  Kay thought she had lost self-confidence since the end of the course and put this down to a number of ‘external’ factors, particularly, the choice of second school placement and also the lack of positive feedback:

“I thought this school would be a lot easier than it was, and I've had quite a few challenging situations, and yes I feel like I have probably lost confidence, because in your PGCE you get a lot of encouragement especially on my first placement, told I was ‘wonderful, brilliant’ (laughs), and then I felt happy, then I got through the second placement but I just thought the school wasn't suited to me”. (Kay, Stage 4)

Kay had previously reported feeling lonely and isolated (Stage 3), and after a long period at the current school, without support or focused reflection, she felt she had forgotten a lot of the techniques they were taught at the Institute, or, in a telling phrase that underlined her general lack of reflection, that her teaching behaviours had become ‘automatic’:
Kay’s unhappiness at work affected her whole life and Kay had started to ‘cope’ with the school day rather than proactively manage her way through it. Kay was aware of the difference between the way she had been in the early days of the course and the way she was now:

“I mean during my NQT year I would be sitting thinking about it all night, I would wake up and be dreaming about it.” Whereas now, “After a really bad day, it can go wider, and it’s the person, but generally it’s just in the daytime, come in do what you do and then out and it’s OK, but I’m sure it does affect your overall life, because your job is a big part of it.” (Kay, Stage 4)

Kay appeared to have ‘given up’ on the school she was in and, after making a firm decision to move, was pinning her hopes on the situation improving at her new school:

“I seem to have lost some of my patience with children (laughs) and I feel like I have become just a little bit disillusioned, I have found it not as enjoyable as I would have hoped, but it might be because of this school. So maybe if you interview me at the next school then I can give a fairer view.” (Kay, Stage 4)

Patricia (Rating 3) Patricia said she felt changed but very much for the worse:

“Yes, I am tired most of the time, and I don't have as much (long pause) in theory I've got as much enthusiasm and energy for the job, but in practice I just don't, and so of course that impacts on the rest of your life doesn't it, because I don't do as many things as I...want.” (Patricia, Stage 4)

Patricia resented the situation and blamed this on her inexperience and poor working methods; above all, she blamed the ‘system’ the school and the management structure. Patricia seemed to be aware of a number of instances of poor classroom practice but was unable to change anything significant in the situation to make things easier or better, and this professional impotence recalled the poor self-regulatory practices that Patricia had talked of in earlier stages of the research:
"I resent it, I resent it because it’s not because I’m a bad teacher, and it’s not because (pause) I mean there are things that I do because I’ve only been teaching for a couple of years, I probably do too much in the classroom, and I need too much and I probably don’t leave the kids to it and I probably don’t have enough downtime as a teacher in the class room, and I know I do those things and I’m working hard to improve those things but, the kids aren’t a problem for me, it’s the structure and it’s the school, and maybe it’s just the school, it’s the only school I have taught in, that’s what frustrates me I feel like it’s not my fault, I don’t feel there is much more I can do to make it easier for myself." (Patricia, Stage 4)

There was an echo of the sentiments expressed earlier by Kay (above) when Patricia said that she was losing her patience and was looking forward to leaving the ‘badly managed’ department to teach elsewhere:

“What I just haven’t got any patience for are... the attitudes of the staff, and it is so difficult, I mean it sounds like I am saying that I’m better than everyone else, and that I’m perfect, and I don’t think that, I just think the place is badly managed, I think there is a main department that is absolutely incompetent and unprofessional, and it is difficult for me as a teacher to teach the subject and I’m really looking forward next year to just teaching drama because my head of department is fantastic and so I’m looking forward to that at least” (Patricia, Stage 4)

Despite all of this, Patricia maintained that fundamentally she remained unchanged inside as a person:

"Nothings really changed, just things have happened, that make me angry." (Patricia, Stage 4)

Two years on from the PGCE, Betty, Kay and Patricia were not happy with the way their teaching lives had turned out. They all attributed this outcome to ‘external’ causes beyond their control, and each had found ways of coming to terms with that reality. Betty had left teaching and Kay and Patricia were also moving on in search of a happier place to be. Strong, negative, emotion coloured all of their views about self and behaviour; Betty had left, frustrated by the obstacles in her way, Kay had become disillusioned, had stopped reflecting and thinking about the job and was coping day by day, Patricia was tired and angry. Despite the disappointment and disillusion, all three maintained that they were unchanged inside, that the essential self, remained the same.
(b) **Respondents feeling Positive, Proactive and Pragmatic**

**Sue (Rating 3)**  
Sue felt more relaxed at work, more creative, less of a perfectionist, more flexible and pragmatic, she felt in control:

*"Doing this job full time has taught me that you can’t do everything perfect, whilst I was a student I was really a perfectionist, and it really did cause problems for me where I would get so anxious with pieces of course work, planning lessons during my PGCE whereas now I've become quite good at improvising really, because there are some lessons where you simply don't have the time, you think you have an hour to do something, then suddenly a kid falls over outside your classroom and you’ve got to deal with that and you haven’t got that hour”. (Sue, Stage 4)*

Sue’s life outside work had changed too, she had became engaged, she owned a house and so there was a structure and routine that wasn’t there previously, she felt more settled and less stressed. Sue took a longer-term perspective in considering whether or not she had changed in her sense of self. Currently, things were not so different from before:

*"I’d probably say not that much because I was quite bossy before already, and I’d done similar things, you know I’d worked with children before, I’d managed I’d run a youth club, so there were lots of similar challenges involved in that as there has been in this so not hugely.*

The future, however, could be quite different and problematic; Sue was going for promotion and ‘feared’ that her tendency to be bossy might be accentuated by the workload and the stress and because she had seen this happen to other people, this was something she wanted to avoid:

*"That’s something that worries me actually, would I suddenly become too bossy or controlling, I mean I don’t know, because I have seen people change, but I have worked with Heads of Department who have been quite bossy and I’d just hate to end up like that.” (Sue, Stage 4)*

Sue showed self-awareness about issues and was preparing to address them.

**Louise (Rating 3)**  
Louise felt more relaxed about her teaching role too in that her earlier intensive efforts at preparation had paid off:
"I'm more relaxed now than I was last year with what I'm doing because I mean like last summer I planned masses and masses of stuff and obviously this year I've got more I can recycle." (Louise, Stage 4)

There were other changes too in her new balanced attitude towards preparation:

"Stuff like in the Easter holidays I was here for three days and did maybe another couple at home and we had three weeks off, so I probably worked a third of it whereas in the past I would have worked two-thirds, but was able to look at it and go 'Oh sod it' in this half term I'm probably not going to see people anyway I'm not going to put that much effort into it, so I am being more balanced about it." (Louise, Stage 4)

Compared to Louise's earlier views about her more professional business background and outlook compared to other teachers, this represented a major change in behaviour and attitude. There were other changes too; Louise now had to engage with 'office politics' something she disliked;

"Because I've got a lot to fight against, with the kind of tainting I've got of having been recruited by the head, and I'm friends with somebody who is deputy head.
Probe: do you feel you have to defend yourselves then?
Not defend, prove." (Louise, Stage 4)

Louise had joined the PGCE with a clear intention of moving into management not knowing how this might affect her relationships with other staff, it is interesting that Louise now felt she had to 'prove' herself to her colleagues; previously, in earlier stages, she would have dismissed that notion outright.

Louise challenged the idea that the PGCE had acted as a change agent in terms of shaping her sense of self:

"Well that suggests that you must change to become a teacher, I was already teaching, so that doesn't change for me. That is assuming that change is a desirable attribute there, that you must do a personal change to become a teacher which I don't think is true, depending how you already are" (Louise, Stage 4)
Louise had regarded herself as a teacher from the moment she joined the PGCE and clearly still felt the same way.

**Norman (Rating 3)** In a similar way to Louise and Sue, Norman had adjusted his ways of thinking about work since leaving the PGCE. He had developed a sense of ‘realism’ about the job and had redefined what his priorities should be:

“Professionally I've changed, I think I left the PGCE thinking ‘I am going to do all these fantastic things’ and then you get the school and start work and then you realise that actually that’s not the most important stuff, the most important stuff is to do the basic teaching stuff really well. It took me a while to realise that.” (Norman, Stage 4)

Norman had succeeded in coming to terms with his tendency to let issues and problems ‘slide’ and drift, he had decided for himself what the job of teaching was all about:

“It took me a long time the whole idea that there’s loads of stuff that is really not very nice to do, things like marking, and you look at people and they’re doing it, and you think ‘Oh, that’s really enjoyable (laughs/ironic), there is that side of it and no one enjoys doing it it’s just something you know that got to be done, you do it and have that more mature outlook, I am still trying to develop that, I'm getting better I guess that's how I've changed.” (Norman, Stage 4)

Norman had achieved a good deal of change at Stage 3 and this involved a metacognitive shift in thinking about his self through reflection and self-awareness. This philosophical, reflective, tendency was still apparent, however, at Stage 4, ‘change’ was something to do with the way he felt obliged to behave now that he was a teacher; inside, he maintained that he was unchanged and was the same person, just behaving a little differently:

“No, the job has changed me but only in the fact that because I'm doing that job I have to be a certain way, but I don't think I've changed as a person, I just think if I was doing something else, or shouldn't have the responsibility or the workload or something like that, then I'd be equal, I'd be exactly the same as I was, but I don't think I have changed as a person it's just I realise I've got to do certain things, responsibilities.” (Norman, Stage 4)
Although Norman had changed his basic ways of working, had developed new insights about the core reality of the job of teaching, Norman still maintained that he had retained, unchanged, his ‘core’ concept of self.

Two years on from the PGCE, Sue, Louise and Norman were much happier with the way their teaching lives had turned out. All three had become less stressed, more relaxed and were working ‘smarter not harder’, e.g. they had adopted flexible, pragmatic and effective ways of organising their working days. All three had developed future positive possible selves and reported themselves to be more content and happier with their whole lives and not just within teaching. Whilst each one had a different ‘agenda’ concerning issues they had to deal with at work, thinking about promotion, dealing with jealous colleagues, dealing with routine, all three reported that they felt unchanged since the PGCE ended and were still essentially the same person inside.

**Summary of changes in self-concept at Stage 4**

Of the seven respondents interviewed at Stage 4, only one reported that she felt different inside as a person. The other six, whilst they might exhibit signs of changed behaviours, attitudes and outlooks, all maintained that they were, essentially, unchanged inside. The major difference between the one who said she felt changed (Olivia) and the rest, was that Olivia appeared to be actively shaping and managing her identity as an artist and a teacher and was clear about which one fitted with and complemented her core sense of self – the artist.

The group of six who felt unchanged divided equally in terms of their overriding sense of happiness with the role of teacher. Three had experienced unhappiness; Betty had left teaching, and Kay and Patricia were also moving on to different schools in search of a happier place to be. Strong, negative, emotion coloured all of their views about self and behaviour; Betty had left, frustrated by the obstacles in her way; Kay had become isolated, disillusioned, had stopped reflecting and thinking about the job and was coping day by. Patricia was tired and angry, exhausted by her ineffective methods of working and dissatisfied with what she viewed as incompetent management.
The others, Sue, Louise and Norman, had had a totally different experience. Since leaving the PGCE all three had become less stressed, more relaxed and were working ‘smarter not harder’, e.g. they had adopted flexible, pragmatic and effective ways of organising their working days. All three had developed future positive possible selves and reported themselves to be more content and happier with their whole lives and not just within teaching.

Despite these major differences in attitude and emotion, all six people in this group maintained that they felt the same inside and had not changed as a person.

The key finding of Stage 4 therefore is that a change in the sense of self appears to be connected with how active or reflective the individual is concerning their understanding of what role or identity they want and wish to present to the outside world. Olivia was still thinking about herself as an artist and as a teacher and deciding what it was she wanted to be and to be known as. The whole mental project was exciting and important for her and she expressed this mental excitement as a significant change in her sense of self.

The other six people had accepted their identity and were no longer debating mentally what they were or how they wished to present themselves to the world. In that respect their sense of self had been settled within the current role and their existing identity. Their mental project involved figuring out how the role they had was to be played out; their concerns were now connected with the operation, not the definition, of the identity. Table 15 below summarises the changes in self-concept over Stages 2 – 4.
Table 15  Summary of changes in self-concept over stages 2 – 4

Stage 2  BTs reported they felt more confident in a general and generic way, but they also reported specific changes to their skill sets and their awareness, thinking and feelings about issues, rather than fundamental changes to their ‘core’ self-concept. Changes were starting to happen and yet the BTs felt, in general, unchanged.

Stage 3  Almost all of the respondents at Stage 3 reported a change (improvement) across a range of generic’ and ‘education sector’ related skills and abilities; these changes came from periods of sustained teaching practice at their second school placement. Respondents at Stage 3, however, formed two sub-groups on the basis of whether they felt changed or unchanged in their core sense of self since the start of the course. The differences between the two groups were linked to a threshold effect in the way that respondents reported the magnitude of change (using the 9-point scale). Those rating at or below the threshold (1-5) meant ‘I am still the same person’, (Patricia, Betty, Kay, Louise and Frank), whereas above the threshold (6-9) meant ‘I am a different person in some way’ (Indiana, Norman, Olivia).

The key findings at stage 3 therefore was that:

- A cognitive shift involving awareness of changes in skills and abilities, was not always synonymous with a pronounced change in self-concept
- Several respondents operated with a kind of ‘inner core’ model of self whereby self-concept could be insulated from changes in outward behaviours
- A metacognitive shift, coupled with reflection concerning self-regulatory activity, was associated with significant changes in self-concept and the perception of the self as ‘different’

Two respondents could resist course pressures to adopt or further develop their identities as teachers (change their self-concept) by actively keeping open a range of credible and available possible selves outside of teaching.

Stage 4  Of the seven respondents interviewed at Stage 4, only one reported that she felt different inside as a person. The other six, whilst they might exhibit signs of changed behaviours, attitudes and outlooks, all maintained that they were, essentially, unchanged inside. The major difference between the one who said she felt changed (Olivia) and the rest, was that Olivia appeared to be actively shaping and managing her identity as an artist and a teacher and was clear about which one fitted with and complemented her core sense of self – the artist.

The other six people had accepted their identity and were no longer debating mentally what they were or how they wished to present themselves to the world. In that respect their sense of self had been settled within the current role and their existing identity. Their mental project involved figuring out how the role they had was to be played out; their concerns were now connected with the operation, not the definition, of the identity.
Part 7  Reflective practice and process

Respondents were asked about directly about reflection and reflective practice during Stages 3 and 4 and the findings from the two stages are presented separately.

**Reflection at Stage 3**

Two ways of talking about reflection emerged during Stage 3. The first way focused on 'what happens' and 'what I do' when reflecting. These comments described actual practice, actions, and techniques. The examples were mostly about reflection in and on action - e.g. corrective feedback, and problem solving when teaching. The key words used were action orientated and descriptive and were reminiscent of Argyris’ 1st Order Reflection (Argyris and Schon, 1974), (Argyris, 1976). This type of reflection focused on the respondents 'theory of action' in which they outlined differences between their espoused theories and 'theory in use'. This was a clear illustration of the way in which learners (in this case BTs) begin to understand the differences between what they think they should be doing and what they actually do. This is referred to here as **Action Orientated Reflection**.

The second way of reflecting was more evaluative in nature, questioning why things happen the way they do, and 'is this what I should be doing?' The examples were mostly used in the context of talking about models of teaching and learning; values and aims in teaching and learning; the process of self-regulation and self-awareness. The key words used were more process and enquiry orientated and reminiscent of Argyris’ 2nd Order Reflection (Argyris and Schon, 1974), (Argyris, 1976). This type of reflection focused on the invention of new meanings and actions (new principles) that could then be generalised into everyday behaviour. This type of reflection is referred to here as **Process Orientated Reflection**.
Action Oriented Reflection at Stage 3

Metaphors for reflection: BTs thought that reflection was mostly about looking back over the events of a lesson. The usual metaphors employed involved looking in a mirror, looking over your own shoulder, and having an observer's point of view. The purpose of this exercise was to make changes to future practice and therefore the focus was on skills rather than self. Reflection was seen as a professional tool that could be used to mark progression and, to be useful, there had to be an outcome, BTs needed to be able to map their own progress. This kind of action-centred reflection didn’t always lead to a different way of thinking about the self; rather, it usually helped to focus on useful improvements in classroom teaching.

What is reflection?: There was confusion about what kind of practice actually constituted reflection. Trying to improve teaching through ‘trial and error’ was regarded as ‘just teaching’, and that was not seen as particularly ‘reflective’. Similarly, thinking about minor things like ‘I wouldn’t do that again’ e.g. failing to send a pupil out of class immediately because she was eating, was not viewed as particularly reflective either. BTs operated with a kind of threshold of seriousness, which demarcated automatic reaction from considered reflection. There was little evidence of reflection ‘in’ action, but plenty of reflection ‘on’ action.

Reflection as a practical, dialogical, activity: By Stage 3, reflection was seen as dialogical engagement about practical things like discussing how to handle giving out detentions, and then immediately trying to put that into practice; this might happen after someone had observed a lesson and then reported back. This direct feedback, through dialogue, made BTs aware of the behaviour next time it happened and encouraged engagement with the issues, therefore, it gradually changed teaching practice on the ground. Reflection also happened when self-evaluation reports were made, and thought about, after a class or series of classes. Reflecting ‘internally’ and alone, however, was seen as more difficult and uncertain; a more active and dialogical approach, discussing difficult classes with a mentor, colleagues or even non-teaching friends, was
recognised as the more effective way to get help. Reflection was more effective when the BTs talked about the issues with a mentor or colleague.

*Reflection as a proactive activity:* BTs thought that a more proactive approach towards reflection, such as using self-made video recordings of taught classes had a greater impact on practice than simply listening to feedback. Viewing a video of a class and realising that one was focussing on the low ability groups most of the lesson had immediate relevance and immediately suggested how practice might change. There was also recognition that, to be effective, reflection required a more active, selective, approach e.g. choosing one or two targets and achieving these rather than trying to hit ten targets on the head all at once. Reflection could happen at any time, but the prevalence of end-on lessons in school made it difficult to evaluate a class straight away and reflection tended to happen later in the day or at night. ‘Gut feeling’ was often used to evaluate if a technique was working or not e.g. the way a detention or a situation was handled, but there was also recognition that mental notes and ideas should be written down. This was seen as the ‘ideal scenario’ although one BT admitted that she ‘couldn’t be bothered’ to do this.

*Reflection required ownership:* Advice from experts was helpful but not always of lasting benefit; there was a need for the BT to take ownership of problems and the search for solutions. One BT found that when her mentor made suggestions and gave a structure to follow, that would help but only for a short while. Once she started to move on from that particular situation, the strategy tended not to be of use in the longer term. This could be an issue about context, however, the BT concerned perceived this as an internal-external issue about ownership of the problem.

**Process Oriented Reflection at Stage 3**

Throughout Stages 1 to 3, BTs were typically focused on acquiring the classroom skills needed to deliver required and desired objectives and outcomes; lesson planning was the technique that accented and facilitated this approach to teaching and learning. Thinking about student grades and pass rates and school ratings, therefore, generally reflected a more *output-oriented*
approach to teaching and the learning process. By Stage 3, however, BTs were starting to reflect on ideas about values and principles in teaching and learning. Taking responsibility for ones actions, valuing students’ love of literature, showing interest in the development of curiosity as much as the achievement of higher grades, were all ways in which BTs demonstrated a more process oriented approach to teaching and learning and in some cases led to the BT challenging more experienced teachers assumptions and advice about the right way to conduct a lesson. This ‘issues’ and ‘process orientated’ way of thinking produced good quality comments about the why of teaching as well as the how, but these kinds of comments occurred much less frequently and, typically, individual BTs made only single or passing references to these topics.

Reflection and Self-Regulation: For some BTs, reflective practice served or supported a form of self-regulation, akin to defensive pessimism, by creating a constant mental state of doubt and uncertainty about what they were doing as teachers. For Betty and Olivia, reflection played an important part in the way they thought about themselves and how they behaved in class day to day:

“Reflective practice made me realise how critical I am of myself all the time, perhaps too much even, I’m always very critical of my own lessons” (Betty, Stage 3).

“I think I possibly reflect too much on things, and I do dwell on things too much, so possibly everything I say I reflect on, so that sounds like paranoia but I do, I just think why did I say that, or why did I do that” (Olivia, Stage 3)

The self-regulatory nature of reflection seemed to impact heavily on Olivia who could recall a teachers joke, made at her expense, 20 years earlier, and she wondered if that teacher ever thought about the incident and perhaps regretted it? This gave her cause to be careful of the way she dealt with her own students.

The lack of reflective practice could also constitute a form of self-regulation; Patricia could not recall a single example where reflection had played a role in her personal change or understanding, and she speculated that it would be ‘scary’ for her to think she had been doing something for 27 years only to discover she could or should have been doing it differently:
“I don’t think anything mind glowingly major has happened that’s completely changed how I think, which is quite pleasing really... I learn ways of doing it better, but fundamentally my approach is not going to change that much” (Patricia, Stage 3).

Patricia was focused on the how of teaching (product approach) and seemed to be ignoring totally the reason why things might, or should, be done differently (process approach).

Kay was very well aware of what she ‘should’ be doing about reflective practice, but claimed that she didn’t do it:

“I’ve found bits that I have written down and I would have forgotten if I hadn’t written it down, yes I know I should but I can’t be bothered as well” (Kay, Stage 3).

This comment could be interpreted simply as a lack of motivation; however, Kay’s previous behaviour suggested this was more about self-regulation than self-criticism. Kay had consistently focused on improving her classroom management and control throughout the PGCE because this was the key thing that defined her ideal and actual self as a teacher. Avoiding engagement with written reflection anticipated problems with discipline, and provided a rationale or explanation when things went wrong in the classroom. Taken together with Kay’s need for dialogue and feedback and the marked absence of support in this area, Kay’s behaviour can be interpreted as calculated self-regulation rather than careless oversight.

Overall, these forms of self-regulatory practice highlight the problems and issues of reflecting ‘alone’ and underline the benefits of a more interactive and ‘dialogical’ approach to reflective practice, mentioned above, where sharing reflection with colleagues and friends constituted a form of mutual counselling.

*Reflections on Personal Values and Teaching Practice:* Norman wasn’t sure if he actually was reflective or not but still managed to articulate an important set of values about how he liked to conduct his professional life:
“You can tell how bad I am at reflection because I’m not actually sure whether I am or not (laughs) and I do reflect on things in life in that I try to take responsibility for anything that’s my fault, and I try not to blame other people”. (Norman, Stage 3)

Taking responsibility for ones actions represented both a personal value and a guiding professional principle in Norman’s approach to teaching and learning. Norman was interested in self-directed learning and the link to personal autonomy and responsibility was made very clear. Norman was clearly very reflective in this instance, but remained unsure if he was or wasn’t a reflective person.

Frank, was more self-aware of his position and spoke forcefully and specifically about his personal values underpinning his teaching practice. Whilst being observed conducting a text analysis class, Frank sensed that the class was restless and losing focus, and he decided to change the activity; his mentor, however, urged him to stay with the task and press on.

“My reflection on that was that at the end of the day you use the methods that you think are going to work best in the classroom and don’t be dictated by exam requirements and things like that, because at the end of the day you can kill someone’s enthusiasm for the subject for a lot longer than you realise. They might go through and gain a few extra marks on the GCSE but it’s not worth turning them off Gothic horror novels” (Frank, Stage 3)

In this example, Frank valued learning for it’s own sake (process) above learning for the outcome or expected grade (product) and was prepared to challenge a more experienced teacher to make his case; it was unusual to see such an independent stance taken by a BT in the face of ‘expert’ advice to the contrary, and this example illustrates the idea of autonomy and ownership being important in reflective practice.

*Reflection on the curriculum and models of learning:* During his interview, Norman gave an excellent example of his developing insight into the relationship between curriculum structure and learning. After an intensive period developing and refining his lesson plans and schemes of work, Norman had arrived at a very important conclusion:
“I realised that the curriculum, the way it was structured, affected why people were having difficulties. I always tended to kind of divorce the whole structure of what was being taught from the actual process of learning, and I didn't really think that it might have an effect. I guess this becomes implicit knowledge over time, but this was a kind of explicit realisation”. (Norman, Stage 3)

This long-term, way of thinking about educational process, stands in direct contrast to the more immediate, ‘tips for teachers’ approach to reflection that characterised the more action-oriented (output) approach detailed above.

Reflection at Stage 4

At Stage 4, respondents were asked again about reflective practice:

Now that you are teaching for a living, do you find that you have time to reflect on your development as a teacher?

Probe:

Looking back over the whole period that you have been teaching for a living, can you think of any specific event or incident that has happened to you that has made you think deeply about teaching and/or yourself as a teacher?

The findings from Stage 4 are reported in two ways:

- **Approaches to Reflective Practice**: This heading describes what respondents thought about reflective practice, what they did, and how they did it.
- **Outcomes of Reflective Practice**: This heading describes topic(s) or subject(s) mentioned as a practical instance of reflective practice and the outcome of the reflection.

Approaches to Reflective Practice at Stage 4

Systems and support for reflection varied across schools and organisations, and generally, such support as there was, tended to be centralised, target driven, and related to the whole-school needs of OFSTED and other regulatory
bodies. Whilst all of the NQTs reported that finding time for reflection individually was difficult, there were marked differences in the ways in which individuals would make use of the formal and informal opportunities that were available to them. Whether to accept the status quos, or create opportunities for reflection, was the issue that characterised respondents' approaches to reflective practice at Stage 4.

Creating Opportunities for Reflection and Reflective Practice

Betty, Louise and Sue had each taken a proactive approach in making sure that reflective practice was high on their personal agendas; each one considered reflection to be an essential tool of professional practice, and each, in their own way, had taken steps to make sure it happened for them and for others.

Betty had left teaching and was working as a trainer in social work; as a manager she had successfully addressed the continual problem of 'no time for reflection' by writing an appraisal policy that included procedures for reflection when she was training and supervising volunteers:

“So I make the time, I wouldn’t have done that before...I realise the absolute importance of it” (Betty Stage 4).

In Louise’s school and department there was definite time set aside, and also a process, for reflection. Personally, Louise reflected more on the teaching of lessons, than on personal development; however, Louise had carefully created a role for herself developing INSET programmes for Learning Technology and probably spent more time thinking about reflection than the average teacher because of that role. Louise was interested in what makes a good teacher and went to many conferences on that subject:

“So it makes you think about it more than you would if you were just teaching day-to-day.” (Louise, Stage 4).

Sue was creating opportunities for herself within a ‘non-supportive’ environment. Sue did not have time within work or the working week to reflect on her development and had decided to spend her summer holidays at home working on her lessons:
“I’m actually having a summer where I don’t go away and I stay in England anyway and have a bit of time to reflect because I think I would have learned much more and I’d be a better teacher if I spent more time reflecting.” (Sue, Stage 4)

Sue felt that she was “learning almost by instinct” and realised that if she kept better notes and better records it would probably help:

“But no at the moment I’d have to say no, I don’t have the time to reflect on my development.”
(Sue, Stage 4)

The problem as she saw it was that, now she was out of training, she was not discussing her personal learning with other people, but the reality was there was little or no colleague collaboration. The little departmental paper work and collaboration that existed was directed at satisfying OFSTED requirements: “it’s basically there for OFSTED” (Sue, Stage 4).

Accepting the Status Quos on Reflective Practice

Kay, Norman and Olivia recognised the importance of reflection but each one appeared to accept the current school practice on reflection rather than change it or challenge it so as to make it more suitable for their own needs.

Norman agreed that he had the time for reflection, but (as in Stage 3 also) thought himself not very good at it; instead of reflecting, he liked to switch off from it, so the time which he could use for reflection he would try not to think about it: “just to give myself some kind of head time”. At Norman’s school they had ‘brainstorming’ events every term but these tended to be more centralised and target driven rather than reflection driven. On a day to day basis, there were opportunities to spend ‘an informal 10 minutes’, to sit down and talk with other staff, but this would depend on how much the individual wanted to ask for help, the initiative had to come from the individual. Personally, Norman was not good at asking for help but he readily accepted that others were more positive about asking for help and this was very much encouraged in the school:

“The amount of times you hear ‘anyone have to teach this, what’s a good way of teaching this?’ yes, it is quite open” (Norman, Stage 4).
Olivia reported that she did not undertake as much reflection as before, i.e. on her PGCE. At her school there was a professional development meeting once per term where everyone had to write down targets:

“I’m not sure what mine are, it feels a bit like just filling in something but you are not really referring to them, so I don’t really reflect in the way that I did on my PGCE. I was much more reflective there.” (Olivia, Stage 4)

On the PGCE Olivia was reminded to think about the why of teaching and whether what was happening in the classroom was relevant:

“You’re really thinking about the theory, basically, and I think, well for me, I’m thinking less about that now. But I do reflect on the fact that I don’t reflect on it. So sometimes I think ‘were my lessons better, was I at the peak of my career when I was on the PGCE?’” (Olivia, Stage 4).

Kay had been reflecting more in her NQT year than previously (i.e. at Stage 3), however, because she now had to do this alone, she found it difficult to know what to focus on: “I feel like I’m fumbling in the dark”. No one had been to observe a lesson all year and, although she was thinking about things such as behavioural situations and how to do lesson differently, without inputs from other people, she felt that her reflections were not constructive in coming up with proper answers to her questions. Discussion with other people was important for Kay. During her NQT year, Kay had been supervising a Geography BT who had come to the school for teaching practice. Kay found this satisfying because at the beginning the NQT had been getting together schemes of work and she didn’t know what she was doing. Kay had a helping role until the BT knew better what to do. Also, a number of other PGCE students had been placed in the school:

“They just came in and they taught a few of my lessons, I liked that. I felt a bit important.” (Kay, Stage 4).

Kay didn’t say whether or not she had asked to do more of this work or whether she had attempted to engage in more of this developmental type of activity.
At Stage 4, the key differences in reflective practice (different from Stage 3), lay in the way NQTs approached the activity; some were proactive whilst others accepted the status quos. Overall, there were little or no ‘inquiry’ type thoughts on the ‘nature of reflection’ by these respondents. The NQTs were far more concerned with the practicalities and mechanics of making it happen in a way that suited them, and aware that school support for reflective practice was sporadic and, where it happened at all, was generally aimed at refining school systems rather than developing individuals. In some schools, support for the NQT was markedly absent, and several respondents reported that they received no visits or classroom observations during their NQT year. Whilst NQTs were sometimes asked to supervise other BTs (they enjoyed the opportunities for dialogue and the responsibility that went with this), there was no systematic way of using this feature to develop staff capability or responsibility for peer support and training. Development tended to be ‘self-development’ and this happened when the individual was proactive and made it their own business to create opportunities for dialogue and reflective practice. Overall, the NQTs approach to reflective practice resembled Argyris’ 1st Order reflection; they were very aware of their actions and wanted to ‘improve’ practice, however, they were not questioning practice or setting up ‘hypotheses’ to ‘test’ new ideas or disconfirm their ‘theory in use’ (necessary for 2nd Order reflection). Reflection was about refining ‘theory in use’ not changing it.

Outcomes of Reflective Practice at Stage 4

At Stage 4, when respondents were asked to identify a topic that had interested or concerned them deeply, and on which they had reflected, they topics that transcended the everyday practice of classroom teaching and addressed personal issues that had wider lifestyle ramifications; they reflected about the type of school they wanted to be in, the nature and purpose of education in the lives of their (mainly working class) pupils, and also their own goals and ambitions. In a number of cases, the outcome of reflective practice was not just clarity of thought, or an understanding of self, the process actually led to outcomes rooted in action. At Stage 4, a number of BTs were influencing the direction and trajectory of their lives in fundamental ways; the following extracts from the Stage 4 interviews illustrates how.
Betty  From her perspective as a manager in social care work, Betty viewed teaching as an all-encompassing job, she saw a lot of teachers being completely consumed by the work and she wasn’t willing to let that happen:

“The general feedback from people who have done the course and gone into teaching was that you were going to be working 60 to 70 hours per week for the first couple of years. I just wasn't willing to do that it just seemed too much of a personal sacrifice” (Betty, Stage 4)

Betty had left teaching as a career; however, she continued the ‘separation’ of her working and private lives and was determined to find quality time for ‘living’. Reflection helped her to keep focused on what she wanted from life and why.

Louise  Louise had started her PGCE training with a firm determination to become an ‘education manager’ rather than a classroom teacher, Louise’s concerns about the nature of school and the lives of her pupils were clearly expressed in her discussions with colleagues about ‘the nature of education’ and ‘what we are here for’ issues, particularly the ‘teaching to the tests’ question:

“One of the issues that gets talked a lot about here is what kind of school are we, and what kind of school we want to be, and that's in casual conversation too and not just in official school meetings.” (Louie, Stage 4)

Louise thought there was a market for caring for kids who were ‘middling’ and that her school could not compete with the highly academic ones:

“It takes years and years to build that reputation and, to be honest, we haven’t got the right kind of staff in the right subjects.” (Louise, Stage 4)

Louise’s thinking neatly combined her management instincts and training with her educational concerns and gave her clear direction about the kind of school she wanted to teach in.

Olivia  Olivia was acutely aware that being a teacher took away the energy that she would have needed to be an artist in her own right:
Olivia’s identity as a teacher was being actively reformulated because she reflected that her experience in teaching would actually inform her own development as an artist, experiences that could be used at some time in the future:

“Because I’ve learned new things and also when I’m talking to children I’m learning things as well I’m thinking ‘Ah I don’t even do that in my own work I’m telling them to do stuff or think about things’ so I think eventually when I have time to do painting it will feed back into that, so I don’t think it’s a negative thing because I’ve learned so much, it can’t possibly be a bad thing.” (Olivia, Stage 4)

Olivia did not regard this time spent teaching as ‘marking time’, she expected the creative ideas to blossom later in life.

Sue had also reached conclusions at Stage 4 about where she was in her career, and what kind of school she wanted to move to. Her identity as a teacher was secure and she wanted to stay in teaching, however, she felt more valued by the students than by the school and the school managers:

“This year I really feel like I have become a geography teacher. I do feel quite positive now and although I’m thinking of leaving, one of my main concerns is that it takes such a long time to win kids over, especially kids in an area like this, who may be fairly reluctant to sit down and listen in a lesson, I think it strange maybe schools or possibly maybe just this school in particular doesn’t seem to make that much of an effort to retain staff, it really does seem a shame because I’m possibly feeling more valued by the students, but at the same time you have still got to feel valued by the school, and offered different kinds of opportunities by the school, and its not really in place” (Sue, Stage 4).

Sue had recognised the tensions between loyalties to the school, to the pupils, and to herself, and she was actively addressing the issues on the basis of her developing philosophy about what she valued and what she wanted in life.
Reflective Practice – a summary

At Stage 3, respondents were asked to give: one good example where the process of ‘reflection’ had actually influenced or changed how they perceived or understood some thing, event or idea? In response to this ‘open’ invitation, BTs talked mainly about the how of classroom practice and focussed on how they had been learning to use corrective feedback in order to bring their personal teaching skills and techniques into line with established or targeted behaviour. This emphasis on classroom practice suggested a concern for a more outcomes-focussed approach to reflection on teaching and learning. In only a few cases did BTs reflect on the why of their behaviour and where this occurred was closely linked to aspects of self-regulation, for example where continued critical self-examination was used as a spur to action. This was mainly 1st order reflection. Only two BTs demonstrated clearly how their personal and professional values impacted on their classroom teaching practice; in one case, this led the BT directly into conflict with ‘established’ views on classroom practice by more ‘experienced’ colleagues, in the other case to a fundamental understanding of the relationship between curriculum structure and the learning process. These two instances suggested 2nd order reflection leading to open loop learning about their ‘theory in use’.

At Stage 4, respondents were asked again about their approaches to reflection and to identify (reflect on) one example or event that had caused them to think deeply about teaching and or themselves as teachers.

The results show that there had been a shift in reflective practice between Stages 3 and 4. The PGCE course process actively supported and encouraged reflection on a regular basis and, inevitably, focused BTs attention on practical day-to-day issues such as developing teaching skills and achieving learning outcomes. This was reflected in the comments of the BTs on their use of feedback to shape their teaching performance to come in line with expected practice. At Stage 3, only two BTs had mentioned thinking about the educational process, Norman on the links between curriculum structure and learning, Frank on the need to stimulate student interest, as well as competence, in dealing with text. After the PGCE, and when in post as NQTs,
the respondents were largely ‘on their own’ with regard to support for reflective practice. Schools often presented target setting (with regulation and OFSTED in mind) as the basis of their ‘reflective’ practice and support, a number of schools appeared to have no structured or regular support systems in place at all. As a consequence it was left to the individual as to what they should or could do. The sample split in terms of how proactive they were in taking or making time for reflection; some had made a determined effort to make reflective practice a significant part of their professional development, and others did so sporadically or not at all. Those who did not were aware of this and regretted the lack and the loss.

When asked directly, in the interview, to reflect on an issue that caused them to think ‘deeply’ about themselves as teachers, the NQTs did not refer to everyday practice, instead, they focused on more ‘philosophical’ issues about the direction of their life course and the quality of their life-world.
Part 8 Comments about the PGCE course

During the Stage 2 and 3 interviews, there were no questions asked directly about the PGCE course; comments about the PGCE arose as a part of responses to other more specific questions. Towards the close of the Stage 4 interviews, however, respondents were asked for their views about the PGCE course, not as a structured evaluation exercise per se, but in terms of memories and comments about their experiences of the course along with any recommendations for the course managers they might care to give.

The course members’ views, therefore, have been presented using a framework for analysis consisting of two nodes – experience and recommendations.

Stage 2

Course experience At Stage 2, after the end of the first teaching placement, course members’ comments about the PGCE itself were mainly negative in tone and focused on four particular issues; course structure, course process, inter-personal relationships and course standards. The comments were mostly about the course experience and there were few if any recommendations for change made at this time.

Structure The PGCE course consisted of three core elements, teaching practice, professional studies and subject studies and although the tri-part structure was recognised by course members, and they could see the logic to it, they had difficulty understanding how the different parts related to one another on a day to day basis. The confusion affected not only how they perceived the course, but also made it difficult to find a balance between the three aspects when doing the course. Georgina, for example, suggested that the course content should be ‘colour coded’ to help make it more understandable in practice. The rationale for some of the ‘non teaching’ course content was not always made clear. Course members joined the course because they really wanted to teach and they found it hard to understand why they had all these ‘other’ things to do.
Process  The course process appeared formulaic and inflexible and course members found that things had to be done a certain way not because that made common sense, but because that was what the rules said. Respondents also criticised the course communication process; instructions were not always precise, were sometimes given in a way that was different from that expected by beginning teachers, and information was drip fed to course members on a weekly basis making them dependent on the system, “it doesn’t feel a very adult process” Louise (Stage 2).

Relationships  The process of becoming a ‘professional’ person was reflected in the way course members started to talk and feel about themselves and other people on the PGCE course, “I find it weird having colleagues and being a colleague” Olivia (Stage 2). Whilst tensions and problems would naturally arise and be shared, within the PGCE groups there seemed to be a lot of negativity in the air with people “casually offloading” on each other and “not having a broader view about the course process” Betty (Stage 2). As would-be professionals, course members were expected to behave in a professional way and they found it particularly annoying when course teachers and tutors would teach them in ways that would not be acceptable from beginning teachers’. Being treated differently by different teachers and mentors in the placement school was also confusing.

Academic Standards  Identifying the PGCE ‘level’ was problematic and the 1000 word limit for some assignments made it difficult to address complex issues in depth. Originality was not always thought to be required and assignments that did not ‘tick the right boxes’ were marked down.

Stage 3

By Stage 3, the earlier wide-ranging and general dissatisfaction with the course curriculum had virtually disappeared, however, course members had picked up on a topic being explored in the research interviews the Ideal Teacher concept and they expressed concerns about the way the professional development component treated this topic across and within the subject specialist areas. In addition, trainees were starting to think about the transition from teaching
practice to teaching for real, in particular how they would cope when they had to
teach a full timetable in their NQT year. Again, the comments were mostly about
the course experience and again, there were few if any recommendations for
change. Personal development and transition were the dominant themes.

**Professional development** Trainees reported that the professional
development component of the course was not monitored consistently across
the course and within all disciplines by the course tutors. In English, tasks such
as writing down ideas about 'My Ideal Teacher' were started at the beginning of
the course but not followed up later with the promised discussions; the topic
was certainly not ‘taught’ in the science or the art and design streams on the
PGCE either. On the other hand, the concept of an ideal teacher figured in
private conversation and exchanges amongst the trainees where they would
discuss what they thought was good or bad in teaching, what they saw as good
and bad practice, and what they aspired to. However, these things tended to be
discussed separately, never as a composite model of ‘what I'd like to be’?

**The transition from teaching practice to real teaching** Teaching practice
placements involved trainees ‘borrowing’ other peoples classes and in the
second teaching placements, where the BTs were now more experienced, this
was felt to be limiting on the development of expertise because there was a
ready made system that the beginning teacher had to fit in with and could not
possibly change “when you're taking over someone’s classes you can’t
suddenly say 'well actually I’m going to mark your stuff in the totally different
way’... you can’t make major changes like that.” (Louise Stage 3)

Trainees on the PGCE were very aware that they had a lot of support and a
reduced timetable in training and, as a consequence, there were worries about
coping with full classes and timetables when they started teaching for real. This
general worry was compounded if the trainees considered themselves to be a
‘perfectionist’ in nature,

Probe: on the course do you talk about how to manage these things, when is
enough good enough?
“Not really I mean we’ve had outside speakers that maybe mentioned it, one-person she was talking about it she said you’ve just got to do the bare minimum sometimes, which is quite difficult for me because I have to have everything perfectly prepared” (Olivia, Stage 3).

This concern with preparing ‘perfect’ lessons was going to be a problem when the trainee took on 27 hours teaching a week for real.

**Stage 4**

In the Stage 4 interviews, respondents were asked to think back over their experiences of the PGCE for their comments and possible suggestions for course managers; in doing so, they returned to many of the curriculum structure and process themes that had emerged in Stage 2, and in this final section the findings are presented under the headings of experience and recommendations.

**Course Experience**

**Course content and structure**  As in earlier stages, respondents clearly linked course experience to course structure. Looking back, respondents did not realise how involved the course would prove to be, and the way the course content was structured did not really make sense until much later and only with hindsight. “There are so many frustrating things about being in the school that you didn’t see when you are on the PGCE” (Olivia, Stage 4). At the time, respondents generally felt enthusiastic even when the course was really hard work, but on reflection, felt unprepared for the sheer volume of work. Edward commented that “it hits you like a wall, especially with things like behaviour management, and the way you structure your lessons”. Olivia described the whole course experience as an “emotional roller coaster”.

**Practical work**  They all appreciated the practical nature of the course right from the start; however, there was a question mark over how much additional ‘theoretical’ content was required or necessary. Norman recalled that in the science sessions they worked on a lot of experiments and ways to teach the
concepts, “but then there’s other things like, I mean I remember the Piaget, and Oh God the other guy beginning with V, yes it’s relevant but I’m not entirely sure whether that’s necessary when you’re learning to be a teacher.” Betty thought the only thing missing was perhaps “more theory on psychology and psychological perspectives on controlling classroom behaviour” and some sort of strategies along that point. Aside from the theory-practice debate, there were obvious assumptions made by course designers about BTs familiarity with the subject matter. Julia, from Northern Ireland, was not familiar with the detailed nature of the science curricula in England and was “shocked that they didn’t actually teach you any of the stuff on the course, (subject matter) they just presume you will know and understand everything, being the person I am I struggled massively with that.”

Course tutors There was some strong criticism about the course tutors. The criticism took two forms; one was about course tutors ‘intimidating’ trainees by going on about how great they are:

"at times I think they try to scare you a bit, yes, in all honesty I think it’s a bit of an ego trip for them in some ways, to be in that position, kind of actually managing teachers and its easy to forget that really they are just teachers who have gone for a career change, its not because they are at the top of their profession, I think its quite easy for them to intimidate you, by keep going on about… the great things they did” (Sue, Stage 4).

The second criticism was about the lack of practical support in visiting and observing trainees in the placement schools, “I know from being in a school where there were people who were not on the Institute course but on other courses, they were getting much more direct support from their tutor, I mean there were tutors in every other week, whereas we saw ours once per placement, coming into school” (Louise, Stage 4). The quality of the tutors and mentors in the placement school influences what kind of support the beginning teacher receives, and from the BT’s perspective this is something of a lottery “in my second school I had the most fantastic head of department who was a very, very good person to be with, and so it is the luck of the draw, so much responsibility is on the school people” (Louise, Stage 4)
Differentiation through APL  Some BTs such as Louise, felt that they already had a huge fund of teaching skills and experience when they joined the PGCE and felt aggrieved that there was little or no means of differentiating the course process or content for them. Louise presented a cogent argument for some form of accreditation of prior learning (APL):

Probe: so what could the Institute have done in terms of differentiation for someone like you?

“Let me do the assessment at the beginning of the course, if you’re going to do competence based assessment then run it like an NVQ properly and say ‘if you can meet the criteria, just meet them’.”

Probe: that’s quite radical isn’t it?

“If it is a competence based assessment then that’s how it should be, its got a tension in it, hasn’t it, they’re partly trying to be a process orientated course, but with competence based assessment, you’re not assessed on the process and actually the Institute, the Institute doesn’t run the process, because most of the process stuff happens with your school mentor and that’s the bit where, obviously, the Institute’s got very little control over the quality of it, so, for me that would be the way to differentiate, already there is a way of gaining QTS if you come in as a qualified teacher if you come from another country, so why not if you come as a qualified person from another profession?”

Probe: so there’s no APL or APEL mechanism on the course at all?

“Well not in a way that allows you to short-circuit the time element, then if you want to attract more, older, people into teaching from other professions. I mean I could have spent a year on the subject knowledge stuff instead of having to prove that I could stand up in front of a group.” (Louise, Stage 4)

More teaching practice  Norman highlighted the paradox of receiving lectures where the tutors stressed the value of experiential learning, “Weirdly enough that's what most people spent all their time in lectures saying was that ‘we can't teach you how to teach’ only you can learn how to do that through what you do, with guidance from other people”. Norman wanted to see not just more teaching practice but BTs having their own classes, “Just more teaching, teaching a class at placements and then having your first class your own class
that you haven’t seen before, it’s very difficult to be prepping for that” (Norman, Stage 4)

Things that could be done post-course

Only two things were mentioned. First, Betty suggested that “there could be a series of more concrete follow up sessions, dealing with classroom behaviour and management, arranged through support networks for people in the social sciences, maybe a series of recommended workshops of training” (Betty, Stage 4)

Second, Olivia commented on the differences between reflective practice in her NQT school and the PGCE “we have that meeting once per term and we have to write down targets, I’m not sure what mine are” whereas, on the PGCE “we had to write an evaluation after every lesson particularly at first when we were coming back here (to the Institute) once a week you are always reminded of why you are doing it, and the theory behind it, and really thinking about whether what you’re doing in the classroom is relevant” Olivia also wanted to see some form of follow up networking that would keep good practice going, “I do reflect on the fact that I don’t reflect on it, if you know what I mean” (Olivia, Stage 4).

Summary of Part 8 – Comments about the PGCE

This research is about the development of identity as a teacher, the interviews carried out across the four stages of the research were never intended to act as a ‘course evaluation’ per se; nevertheless, the comments made by course members fall into the classic ‘curriculum evaluation’ pattern covering four areas of interest: course rationale, course structure and content, course design and course delivery.

At Stage 2, soon after the completion of the first teaching placement, the BTs’ main areas of concern and difficulty lay in working and negotiating their way through the perceived complexities of the course structure and design. In essence, the course design was straightforward, a three part structure consisting of teaching practice, professional studies and subject studies fitted
within alternating phases of practical teaching placement and institute based ‘theoretical’ study. In practice, however, course members found it difficult to see how the parts fitted together and how the assignment tasks related to one another and to the final goal of becoming a qualified professional teacher. As one course member put it, the parts of the course jigsaw needed to be ‘colour coded’ so they could see how it all fitted together. Visualising the course structure was a problem that was only solved with hindsight.

Added to the problem of visualisation was the associated problem of ‘actualising’ the course process. In navigating their way through the course, trainees found the course rules inflexible and counter intuitive, things were done in a certain way not because that seemed to make sense but because that was what the rules dictated. ‘Ticking the right’ box seemed more important than developing creativity and individuality. These two phenomena fit naturally together; without a proper understanding of the course structure, course members would not understand the significance of the course rules.

Course members also found the course communication process difficult and unsatisfactory, one course member described it as being ‘drip fed’ information, a ‘not very adult’ process. Again, without a proper understanding of the structure and the rules, course members would tend to be dependant on course tutors for information about what they were doing and why.

Not surprisingly, the intense workload, the roller coaster ride of emotions, coupled with the complexities of the course process, allowed a certain degree of unhappiness and poor morale to exist within the student body; Betty described the presence of a negative atmosphere with students ‘casually off loading’ on one another, and not having an overview or ‘broader view’ of what the course was all about. These negative feelings were fuelled when course tutors behaved in ways that would be unacceptable from course members, and when course members were treated in contradictory ways by different course tutors and placement teachers.

By Stage 3, the anxieties about understanding the course structure and process had largely gone away, instead, course members were thinking about transition,
looking forward to the end of the course and to their NQT year and wondering how they were going to cope with full teaching timetables and being truly ‘on their own’. Course members had picked up on a topic of interest both within the research and on the course, the concept of the ‘ideal teacher’. This idea should have been an integral part of the development of identity as a teacher, however course members reported differences and inconsistencies in the way the topic was treated on the course. Trainees certainly talked about what they thought constituted good or bad professional practice, however, there did not seem to be a unified or systematic approach to ‘the ideal teacher’ concept either as an external or course based model, or as an internal and personal set of guiding principles.

From the ‘distance’ afforded by the timing of the Stage 4 interviews, the NQTs were able to look back at the PGCE and take a more measured view about what they thought of the course. They broadly agreed about two things, the perceived complexity of the course and the difficulties this posed, and also the practical nature of the course and the benefits this brought them. Course members liked the two school placements and if anything were to be different, they would happily see more practical teaching with the chance of having ‘their own classes’ rather than always having to ‘borrow’ other teachers’ classes. What they also recognised, with hindsight, was the difference between the complex nature of ‘real’ school life against the rather simplistic views developed as a BT on the PGCE.

Distance, however, did not diminish the strong antipathy towards both the course tutors and other course members felt by certain respondents. Sue felt intimidated by ‘clever’ course tutors who seemed to be on an ‘ego trip’, always going on about the great things they did as teachers. Julia felt equally intimidated and irritated by the ‘clever’ course members going on about how easy it all was and how they could get good results without doing any work. These two respondents presented as high achievers with high anxiety (Julia about her learning difficulties, Sue about the relevance of schools as institutions); their reactions to the prevailing ethos and expectations about the role or importance of ‘cleverness’ on the PGCE raises questions about the ‘explicit’ course rationale and the ‘implicit’ hidden curriculum that course
members encounter. In contrast, Louise wasn’t intimidated at all. Louise presented as a strong, confident, character from the start and had developed cogent and critical views about the course rationale, structure and operation. Louise came to the PGCE as an experienced teacher ‘qualified’ in youth work, in teaching in FE, and with years of experience as an industrial trainer and consultant in the UK and abroad. The course offered no accreditation of prior (experiential) learning, APL or APEL, and Louise constantly differed with course tutors over issues concerning course standards and what constituted acceptable professional behaviour. The key issue that Louise identified was that the PGCE was “trying to be a process orientated course, but with competence based assessment, you’re not assessed on the process and actually the Institute, the Institute doesn’t run the process, because most of the process stuff happens with your school mentor and that’s the bit where, obviously, the Institute’s got very little control over the quality of it”. This fundamental confusion of design, as Louise saw it, would fit in with the story developed above about the difficulties course members had in visualising and actualising the course in action.

What would course members change specifically? Apart from the strong challenge by Louise to the fundamentals of course design (process or product?) surprisingly little. In-course changes would involve more practical teaching, more management training and specific help with dissertation writing; post-course training could involve support groups (in the social sciences) and help and advice with reflective practice where it was lacking in schools.
Chapter 6
Discussion

The discussion will fall broadly into three parts; in the first part, the substantive content of the thesis - the literature review, the research questions and findings - will be examined to determine their meaning and value as a contribution to knowledge in the field of inquiry. The second part will assess the relative strengths and weaknesses of the inquiry process - the methodology and process of argument - and their impact on the contribution. The third part will make conclusions and recommendations for action - further research, suggested practice and policy - within ITT contexts.

Part 1: The literature review and research findings

At the very beginning of the thesis, I noted a personal interest in wanting to understand how changes in self-concept were possible as a way to enhance and complement my activities as a PGCE tutor and teacher trainer. To further this understanding, this research project utilised the idea that "possible selves are linked to the dynamic properties of self-concept" (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.954) to explore the proposition that self-concept or identity as a teacher arises out of the dynamic, self-regulated, interaction between actual and ideal self as a teacher. The research aim was to examine change in self-concept as a teacher during and after a course of ITT and the principal research question was:

How are actual and possible selves involved in the development of self-concept as a teacher? What role does self-regulation play in the process of transformation?

The review of the literature in Chapters 1 and 2 acknowledged that much of the work concerning the nature and role of the self in human functioning has "emerged from different traditions and proceeded in relative isolation" (McCann, 1992, p.44). Traditionally, the study of the self has been pursued through separate schools and fields of study within psychology e.g. psychoanalytic, behaviourist, humanist approaches, each one offering contrasting perspectives.
and explanations of, for example, personality and motivation. This diversity of sources provides richness and multiple perspectives but also a degree of fragmentation, therefore, the thesis sought to address the situation by reducing the number of ‘working ideas’ about self-concept to a minimum, and to examine ideas that encouraged a holistic rather than a reductionist view of self-concept. The discussion, therefore, begins by highlighting properties and qualities that are consistent with a view of self-concept as a modular autopoietic system. It then considers why the possible selves concept offers a realistic motor or mechanism for powering self-concept as a system. The discussion then addresses the findings from the research questions exploring the relationships between self-concept and self-regulation.

There are four fundamental properties of self-concept, highlighted in Chapter 2, that have been given special attention. First, as proposed by Bruner (1990) self-concept is not an essentialist ‘thing’; it emerges out of a reflexive process as a concept. Second, self-concept has structural and processual properties that make it dynamic in nature (Demo, 1992). Third, self-concept is not simply a by-product of behaviour; it actually mediates behaviour (Markus and Wurf, 1987). Fourth, self-concept does not exist in isolation; it is always embodied in a historical, sociocultural tradition of living – a ‘life world’, (Martin and Sugarman, 2001). These views are consistent with the demise of the self as a unitary construct (Westen, 1992, p.11), but they also support the notion of the self as coherent, holistic and ‘together’, a “self-of-selves” arising out of relational complexity (Lewis, 2003, p.234). A relational view of self-concept downplays the idea that it is ‘located’ solely in the person and, instead, foregrounds the notion of dialogue, context, and social space as a ‘living arena’ in which self-concept is created and played out as a dynamic process, (Bakhtin, 1986), (Shotter, 1999), (Harre and Van Langenhove, 1999). From that perspective, self-concept is a phenomenon that occurs within and between individuals and for that reason can be thought of as something that connects inner thoughts about self-narrative and story (MacLure, 1993), private understandings about personal skills and abilities (Marsh and Hattie, 1996), with the outer manifestation of self found within social roles and actions (Goffman, 1975), identity, (Tajfel, 1981), (Stryker, 1980), and culture (Bruner, 1990). Inter and intra personal dialogue connects the inner, private world of the individual, with
the outer, social world of the environment. This connection of the 'inner' and 'outer' aspects of self facilitates a view of self-concept as having qualities of dimension, and as something that is both embodied and embedded; i.e. embedded within the fabric of space and time; but also embodied within the living person. This 'embedded-embodied' view of self-concept is consistent with the way in which the term 'life-world' was defined at the start of Chapter 2, i.e. as consisting of all the material and non-material aspects of a person's existence, including all their perceptions, memories and imaginings; a virtual 'network' connecting all of their physical and social relationships with people, places and ideas in the past, present and future.

This dynamic and 'embedded-embodied' view of self-concept accords with the notion of people (e.g. teachers) as "social actors moving in a social landscape" experiencing a sense of bounded agency in which some actions are possible and other actions are constrained by social and institutional factors (Evans and Rudd 2002, p.2). It mirrors the concept of "scripts of constraint" that affect the lives of teachers during and after training (Day et al, 2006b, p.608); and is consistent with constructivist views of teaching and learning that stress the importance of self-regulatory processes in creating independent learners (Tillema and Kremer-Hayon, 2002, p.594) whilst recognising that the teacher has to work within the constraints of the student's prior knowledge and understandings (So and Watkins, 2005, p.527). The (dynamic) concept of indeterminacy within teaching and learning contexts is also an important part of those constraints where teachers may find themselves negotiating not just the content of learning but also "the meaning of learning itself" (Ireson, 2008, p.143). These two concepts, bounded agency and an embodied view of self-concept, reinforce the notion that individuals must negotiate their way through the process of daily living, constantly making choices and decisions about 'what is possible for me' that are 'in the moment', more short to medium term and 'considered'; or more longer term and 'speculative'. Choice and decision-making are integral aspects of the interactive interdependence between people and the environment that Capra calls the web of life (Capra, 1996, p.290). Interaction can be with the physical landscape – breathing the air, gathering crops, building structures; with the social landscape – talking to, fighting with, and caring for, other people; or with the intellectual milieu – reflecting, thinking,
and engaging with ideas and concepts ranging from notions of equity, forms of contract, through to mathematical formulae. In practice, interaction takes place with all three landscapes simultaneously, therefore, taking these ideas together, self-concept can be described as an interactive, integrated, phenomenon that is the reflexive embodiment of the person located in, and across, space and time.

Within this theoretical position, there is no Cartesian division between mind and body (Honderich (Ed), 1995, p.191), self-concept is not something ‘extra’ that a person has, self-concept is the person and vice versa. If mind and body are one and the same, it follows that certain ideas normally associated with the properties of living things can also be usefully applied to self-concept too; in particular ideas about systems and control theory as applied to interactive processes. Bernard Korzeniewski provides a definition of life (a living individual) as “a network of inferior negative feedbacks (regulatory mechanisms) subordinated to (being at service of) a superior positive feedback (potential of expansion)” (Korzeniewski, 2001, p.275). What is interesting and relevant about this definition is that it suggests how individuals, complete with their sense of self, are capable of stasis (through negative feedbacks) and also change and development (through positive feedback). Feedback mechanisms are an essential part of regulation within systems; in what sense, therefore can self-concept be thought about in systemic terms?

Systems orientated approaches to social phenomena became established in different parts of the social sciences over the post-war period (Capra, 1996), (Luhmann, 1990), (Mayer, 1998a, 1998b), (Puddifoot, 2000), (Vanderstraeten, 2000); particularly in contexts dealing with self-concept as a living system (Ford, 1987). More recently, Mary Ann Mavrinak compared her grounded theory concerning protecting self and organisational change with autopoiesis, a biological theory of living systems, to conclude that “an understanding of the natural processes in autopoietic systems adds richness to the theory of protecting self, providing a plausible, albeit abstract, perspective on the nature of change, its challenges and opportunities” (Mavrinac, 2006, p.516). Links between self and organizational change, between self and autopoiesis “are not prevalent” in the literature (Mavrinac, 2006, p.521); the same can be said for links between autopoiesis, possible selves and self-concept as a teacher. By
focusing on the dynamic embedded nature of self-concept and the systemic
nature of social settings and human interactions, the thesis argues that
autopoiesis (Maturana and Varela, 1980) is a useful model for understanding
how self-concept can exist as a whole but not as a ‘thing’, how it can stay stable
for long periods of time whilst showing signs of growth and development, how
bounded agency reflects both the possibilities and constraints that typify the
constant (systemic) interaction of the individual with the environment. The most
appropriate design for a model (or system) that facilitates stasis and change is
modularity (Smith, 1998, p.39); modularity allows parts of a structure (be it a
living organism, an organisation, or a course curriculum) to change without
necessarily altering every other part, change happens but the integrity of the
whole is conserved. Self-change can happen, but it is difficult to achieve
because the forces sustaining conservation of self and self-concept are very
strong; at every point along the dimension from individual to state, the individual
is embedded (recursively) within a set of institutions that are themselves
embedded in other institutions, “an individual attempting to reform his own life
within an autopoietic family cannot fully be his new self because the family
insists that he is actually his old self” (Beer, 1980, p.70-71, in Mavrinac, 2006,
p.521). Life Span Developmental Psychology (LSDP), discussed in Chapter 2,
provides a structured and interpretive framework for examining how the life-
world, as an evolving structure, can be changed or maintained through
engagement with ‘life tasks’; engaging with life tasks represents a form of self-
regulation in which the striving for future goals must be balanced against the
management of the present moment (Sugarman, 1996). In the light of these
tensions between the forces for change and for inertia in everyday life, the
discussion now moves to consider how these ideas can be applied to self-
concept, particularly self-concept as a teacher, by utilising the concept of
possible selves.

Chapter 2 showed how metaphor can be used to classify and organise a
complex body of ideas such as the literature relating to aspects of self and self-
concept (Hoskins and Leseho, 1996), (Sternberg, 1997), and presented the
product of the classification process in the form of a self-concept metaphor
matrix. Most self-concept theories extant do not generally explain how change
happens or is possible, (other than through references to, for example, ‘needs’,

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‘drives’ or ‘self actualisation’ as motivational forces); the matrix, therefore, would remain at the level of ‘description’ without the introduction of a dynamical or processual element to ‘power’ the system and to provide explanatory potential. For that reason, the thesis introduced the concept of possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986) into the conceptual framework in Chapter 2 as a way to provide that dynamic element, to explain how change(s) in self-concept can take place.

Possible selves, just like musical melodies, arise as a voluntary act of focus through Gestalt grouping using processes allied to figure/ground (Levitin, 2006, p.76). Any particular possible self can then be formulated in terms of an actual and ideal self within any domain of interest e.g. self as a teacher. In some respects, possible selves resemble ‘needs’, ‘drives’ and ‘actualising’ forces in that they are connected with human action; possible selves provide ‘incentives’ (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.960), they ‘impel action’ when linked with plausible self-regulation strategies (Oyserman, Bybee and Terry, 2006) and in so doing they create a link between action and aspiration. Possible selves, however, do much more, they can act as the cognitive bridge between current and future selves, they provide a ‘roadmap’ to guide self-regulation (Oyserman et al, 2004) therefore possible selves do much more than just create ‘movement’, they guide, inform and are sensitive to context and changing circumstances. Markus and Nurius explicitly formulated the idea of the ‘now self’ and the ‘working self’ concepts as part of a repertoire of possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.962) that are implicated in human agency. This repertoire stretches forwards and backwards in time and accommodates past, present, and future possible selves that are open to interpretation and reinterpretation as the person grows and develops. Taking a broad view of the situation, possible selves can be viewed as ‘modules’ or components of a self-system, elements that can change without necessarily altering other parts or elements, therefore keeping the whole structure intact; this position was expressed as the conceptual framework in Figure 3 at the close of Chapter 2. Figure 3 focused on two particular variants of possible selves, actual and ideal self within a domain of interest (self-concept as a teacher); this interactive, dynamic framework represents a mechanism that has theoretical interest and practical relevance for studying self-concept, in particular, how changes in self-concept as a teacher can take place during and
after a process of education and training, ITT. The development of the conceptual framework for the empirical study was driven not only by self-concept ‘theory’, but also a desire to establish a unified view of a number of systemic theories and ideas about self-concept using possible selves as the ‘cement’ holding them together. The juxtaposition of ideas within existing theories to arrive at new perspectives is a process that Bernstein refers to as ‘recontextualisation’ (Bernstein, 2000, p.32); on the other hand, developing or extending theories through logical or a priori analysis is what Kukla calls ‘theoretical amplification’ (Kukla, 2001, p.110-111). The conceptual framework for the thesis, using ideas drawn from the self-concept and possible selves literature, attempts to do both.

The self-concept metaphor matrix developed in Chapter 2, presents an overview of the self-concept literature that emphasises the connections as well as the differences between the major fields of psychological inquiry. Whilst acknowledging the major theoretical differences that exist between the (metaphorical) components of the matrix, the systemic and dimensional qualities of the model, taken together, contributes a new perspective on a crowded and sometimes confusing conceptual scene. The metaphor matrix is consistent with the now conventional idea that self-concept is multi faceted and multi dimensional; however, the nine cells of the metaphor matrix reflects the idea that self-concept can exist as a structure with components (skills, personality, identity); with gestalt properties that give it individual shape and form (conscious awareness, personal values and cultural influences); and can function as a continuous dialogical ‘flow’ of actions and interactions (self narrative, dialogue, social roles). There is no a priori reason to suspect that self-concept, as represented by the metaphor matrix, should necessarily be hierarchical in structure, or why global self-concept, for example, should always sub-divide along academic versus non-academic lines (Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton, 1976), (Marsh, 1993). Appendix 1 discussed why the work of Herbert Marsh was included in the literature concerning Geographic metaphors for self-concept, and drew similarities between Marsh’s work on self-concept and previous work on intelligence using group factor theories, which, by function of their operation, produce hierarchical structures. Factor analysis represents “one of the most powerful tools yet devised for the study of complex areas of
behavioural concern” and criticism of factor analysis cannot rest on distrust or antipathy towards its methods or its complexity alone; what is clear, however, is that whilst factors may appear repeatedly, suggesting that there is an underlying variable that is being measured successfully (its “empirical manifestation”), there remains uncertainty about “the relations between factors” (Kerlinger, 1973, p.688-689). For example, in the context of comparing skill development versus self-concept enhancement models, as a way to explain the self-concept/achievement relationship, Marsh and Köller referred to self-concept as a ‘hot’ variable that makes things happen, but also acknowledged the existence of the ‘chicken or the egg’ question e.g. “whether academic self concept “causes” academic achievement or achievement “causes” academic self-concept” (Marsh and Köller, 2003, in Marsh et al, 2003, p.19-20). Explaining ‘how’ things happen to self-concept, using factor analysis models, therefore, remains problematic. In contrast, by drawing attention to the distributed and socially embedded nature of self (Beer, 1980), to the way in which self-concept is continuously constructed and reconstructed through a dialogical process of negotiation and positioning (Bakhtin, 1986), (Shotter, 1999), (Harre and Van Langenhove, 1999), also through the way the self narrative can be reconstructed and redeployed as argument rather than fact (MacLure, 1993), the matrix offers a dynamic, fluid and flexible way of modelling self-concept where relationships between factors are not necessarily one-directional. This idea is examined later, in (2) below, in the discussion of actual and ideal self as a teacher.

To add to the explanatory power of the matrix, however, the possible selves construct was introduced as a way of bridging from the actuality of the ‘present moment’ to the future by imagining different selves involving more ‘enduring change’ (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.966). By emphasising the continuous interaction of self with the environment, the matrix plus the possible selves model illustrates clearly how the ‘on-line’ self, the current form of actual self, changes with the passage of time, the context, and flow of events. The possible selves model fits into the matrix along the ‘process’ axis or layer in Table 7, Chapter 2. Possible selves arise out of the current interactions between the person and the environment (the process part of the matrix involving narrative, dialogue and role) and gradually impact over time on the environment and/or
other appropriate parts of the self e.g. culture, identity, skills, personal values and self-awareness. As noted above, Chapter 2 equated life tasks with possible selves, and the life-world or life structure with actual self, as a way of linking the LSDP literature with possible selves. The process layer of the matrix suggests how the "embodied-embedded self" – a term used by Fisher to describe the superordinate nature of the self (Fisher, 2003, in Mavrinac, 2006, p.520), gives rise to notions of 'position', 'narrative', and 'voice', three key concepts through which the self defines itself and is defined by others (Lewis, 2003, p.225), also (Linehan and McCarthy, 2000, p.442). As discussed earlier, 'embodied' refers to aspects of self located within the person, 'embedded' refers to the way in which the person is located within social structures that are themselves recursively embedded within one another. Over time, some possible selves will prosper and grow whilst others lie dormant or wither away. This is how self-concept is sustained from the outside in, and from the inside out, and why there is no top or bottom to the process. The whole cycle is continuous, self-sustaining, and self-organising, and in that respect it is autopoietic. In what sense, however, is it also self-regulating? Self-regulation (SR) is addressed next as a way to link from the theoretical review into a consideration of the empirical findings.

Monique Boekaerts refers to self-regulation as a complex concept that is problematic because it sits at the junction of many research fields, and also because different traditions use different terminology (Boekaerts, 1999, p.250). A similar observation could also be made about self-concept and this raises a general question about how to deal with topics of this kind? Autopoiesis, for example, has been referred to as metasystemic because it transcends many disciplines and fields of study (Beer, 1980, p.65 in Mavrinac, 2006, p.517), perhaps this would be a useful way to describe self-regulation too? As discussed in Chapter 2 and Appendix 4, self-regulation is used in the natural and social sciences to describe different kinds of self-organising systems, however, the key difference between the two fields is that within the social sciences, particularly psychology based and related fields, self-regulation includes elements of mindfulness and intention. These qualities are captured in the definition of SR as "a systematic process of human behaviour that involves setting personal goals and steering behaviour toward the achievement of established goals" (Zeidner et al, 2000, p.751). In the context of this discussion,
there are two key questions arising out of the definition – How does ‘goal setting’ take place? What constitutes ‘steering behaviour’? In terms of the self-concept metaphor matrix developed in the thesis, ‘goal setting’ takes place along a dimension connecting the inner self with the outer environment, therefore some goals are chosen, and some are imposed. From the perspective of possible selves theory, ‘steering behaviour’ takes place through the operation of the ‘on line’ or actual self, developing and evolving in relation to a number of ideal selves that are goal related. Some goals or developmental life tasks (involving different kinds of ideal selves) will prove to be sustainable or attainable and others, despite the individual’s best efforts, will not. By bringing these ideas together, self-regulation, therefore, is defined as a metasystemic term describing how constellations of actual and ideal selves are managed across the life span in a variety of changing contexts. Examples of SR processes used in different domains, e.g. athletics, music and academic learning, are discussed in Ireson (2008, p.53-55); self-regulated explanations of learning (SRL) involving beliefs, values and affect, also ‘hot’ and ‘cold’ cognitions involving ‘self schemas’, are provided in Pintrich and De Groot (1990, p.33), also (Garcia and Pintrich, 1994 in Schunk and Zimmerman (Eds), 1994, p.127-129). The essential lesson to be drawn from these three sources is that, longitudinal studies of SR are needed to establish “the causal direction of influences” (Ireson, 2008, p.55); in terms of SRL strategies, knowing ‘what’ is not enough, the student needs to understand when and why to use strategies appropriately (Pintrich and De Groot, 1990, p.38); also, that ‘hot’ (motivational) and ‘cold’ (cognitive) models for understanding behaviours could be used as the basis for “one general framework” bringing together notions of SRL, metacognition, and SR (Garcia and Pintrich, 1994 in Schunk and Zimmerman (Eds), 1994, p.149).

Finally, it is worth noting that not all learning is self-regulated, it can be spontaneous in nature, also that people may not always be aware that learning is taking place; the development of ‘interpretive’ schools in social theory, for example, came about through understandings that certain knowledge about everyday life is tacit rather than discursive, and that people’s daily routines are often rooted in a world that is taken for granted and where implicit rules are shared, followed, and perpetuated (Baert, 1998, p.3-4). Bernstein, for example,
proposed that the way schools control classification and framing of the curriculum can affect the way knowledge is possessed and used e.g. by teachers, pupils and society (Bernstein, 1971). Stenhouse, using Bernstein’s idea of the ‘hidden curriculum’ and empirical data (from the Humanities Curriculum Project, 1970), argued for the existence of “ideologies in schools which constitute institutionally reinforced impediments to the realization of curricula embodying open views of knowledge” (Stenhouse, 1975, p.51). The ‘steering’ metaphor used earlier in relation to possible selves, and the taken for granted nature of some kinds of knowledge as discussed above, is a reminder that bounded agency is a significant feature of goal setting and SR, and arises out of the exact nature of any constraints (known and unknown) that are a feature of the interactions between the individual and the environment. This line of reasoning returns the argument back to the bounded, interactive, feedback driven nature of life and living, involving negative and positive feedback loops, as described above earlier by (Korzeniewski, 2001, p.275).

Overall, the development of the self-concept metaphor matrix, and the proposition that self-concept operates as a modular, autopoietic system powered through the self-regulated nature of possible selves, together constitutes a novel understanding and application of the possible selves construct. The application of these ideas to an examination of the changing self-concept of teachers in training was achieved through a four-stage empirical longitudinal study. Each of the four stages can be envisioned as four iterations or snapshots of a continuous interaction process in which trainees progressed from student teacher, heavily monitored and supervised, through to newly qualified teacher in post, managing a full time table and acting autonomously with confidence and conviction. The separate research questions used to track the process are now discussed in turn.

(1) How did Beginning Teachers speak about their ideal self as a teacher, and their actual self or identity as a teacher, during and after training?

From the very beginning of the study, there was a clear differentiation between the intensional and extensional form of the ideal self as teacher (IST). BTs talked about IST mostly in terms of teacher actions not teacher personality, and
this separation, persisted throughout the whole study. The metaphor matrix presents personality and values as ‘interface’ components of self-concept that are a part of its overall structure and pattern; these qualities are relatively stable and enduring aspects of self, therefore, it seems reasonable to suppose that trainees would focus on building (changing) their skill base before thinking about examining or changing other core qualities. This finding is at odds with past government advertising campaigns to recruit teachers (where the focus was on remembering ‘inspirational teachers’ as a way of illustrating how important teachers are), also with current advertising for Teach First (2009) which is aimed at exceptional graduates wanting to be inspirational teachers and leaders, but is in line with the observation that modern professionalism in teaching is moving towards more outcome focused technical aspects of teaching (Day et al, 2006a, p. 185). In this research, the ideal self as teacher (IST) was consistently formulated in a way that facilitated progress towards the goal through practical development of the teaching skill set; whereas the skill set can be changed through ‘deliberate practice’, it is more difficult to change personality in a fundamental way. Arnon and Reichel (2007), for example, investigated the image of the ideal teacher amongst student and beginning teachers in education colleges in Israel and found too that their subjects formulated their ideal image around images of practice rather than personality. Whilst the Arnon and Reichel study focused on actual and ideal image of self as a teacher it made no mention of the possible selves literature or constructs. The findings from this study and other research showed clearly that the ideal teacher ‘role model’ that is enduring, useful and influential for trainee teachers as a possible self, is the skilled practitioner, not the memorable ‘character’. To use the Martinez et al, (2001) analogy, the BTs in this research needed a ‘blueprint’ not a ‘portrait’ to guide the way action and behaviour (not personality) should develop.

A second factor of interest concerns the ‘twin track’ evolution of identity as a teacher in which the two components of possible self as teacher, actual self as teacher (AST) and ideal self as teacher (IST), evolved separately, but also together, with the IST ‘one step ahead’ of the AST. The IST became more than just a skilled teacher by developing a professional ethos and embracing teaching as a career not just a job. The AST followed this line of development
but reflected more the shift from outsider to insider and the confidence that came with a growing base of teaching experience. This scenario fits Demo’s rolling base line model or metaphor very well (Demo, 1992) and accords with the idea that learning to be a teacher resembles “an evolving form of membership” within a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991, p.53). What is not so clear is what form of evolution this dual progression represents - a ‘concerns’, chronological, linear or cyclical form of professional development? (Conway and Clarke, 2003). Although data were collected at each of four stages, there is no reason a priori to believe that development of identity over the PGCE was a staged affair. The data suggests that AST was mainly concerned with developing classroom skills up until Stage 4, when the respondents changed status from BT to NQT, and where the emphasis changed towards managing people and situations day to day. In contrast, IST moved from ‘competent’ to ‘expert’ in the way it was formulated; gradually broadened its concerns with philosophical issues, wider professional concerns and with teaching as a ‘life style’ rather than a job, before finally converging with AST in a day to day concern with managing, problem solving and keeping classes running smoothly and pupils happy. The two constructs eventually converged on a pragmatic approach to day-to-day management but took different trajectories on the way. Taking a broad-brush interpretation of the evolution of teacher identity as shown in these results, the picture suggests that pre-service experience was concerned with developing teaching skills (pedagogy), whilst in-service experience became more concerned with managing situations (control). In terms of the Chapter 2 discussions about LSDP, this reflects a shift from developing the (teaching) life structure towards maintaining the structure. This is in line with the general findings in (Watzke, 2007) that teachers become more concerned with managerial aspects of teaching as they become more experienced, and where teacher ‘concerns’ (concerns with self-task-impact) emerged in a complex and recurring way, rather than as a linear staged unfolding of ‘teacher concerns’ during their development as teachers. Watzke’s study ran over two years with 6 application points and his main finding, that teacher concerns evolved cyclically not chronologically, was not replicated in this research, though why is not clear given the similar periods of time in each. In this study, notions of ‘insider’ and ‘outsider’ status as a part of AST emerged after the first teaching placement.
After the second placement, the impact of (relatively) longer teaching experience allowed BTs to formulate their AST, teacher identity, as more like other experienced teachers, e.g. other teachers they come into contact with. The conjecture here is that relatively large and concentrated periods of teaching practice (at least a year) are necessary for noticeable changes in self-concept as a teacher to occur through changes in AST and IST; this matches the findings of McNally et al., (1984). Clearly, prolonged observation and frequent sampling would be needed to detect the emergence of ‘cycles’ or distinct ‘phases’ of developmental issues in any projected follow up research.

The rate of transition of identity as a teacher noted in the respondents’ comments varied because of a mixture of school based effects, e.g. context, and internal changes. This variability merits comment and is discussed further below. Most BTs at Stage 1 estimated it would be many years before they would be able to make a confident claim to be a teacher. In practice, the (reported) transition time from relatively incompetent beginner through to smooth operator was much shorter, in most cases taking less than one academic and/or calendar year. Reported changes in AST and IST happened relatively quickly; therefore, frequent sampling was necessary to spot the changes as they took place. Clearly, if the period between interventions had been longer, the transitions might have been blurred, obscured or even lost all together (Demo, 1992), also, memory may have begun to distort the reality of what happened and when, (Huberman, 1989). As will be discussed later, below, the research design attempted to address these issues.

(2) How were perceived differences between actual and ideal self (as a teacher) expressed and evaluated during and after training?

The differences between AST and IST as discussed above might suggest a lagged developmental model in action, e.g. IST in period 1 determining the properties of AST in period 2. In practice, however, the AST did not appear to evolve into an exact replica of the IST from the previous period. The AST in Stage 2, for example, was not a carbon copy of the IST described in Stage 1. The interpretation placed on this understanding is that the AST was not simply playing ‘catch up’ with the IST; the two trajectories were independent and could
evolve at different rates and in different ways, this dynamic feature is termed ‘paired independence’. Paired independence allows for both convergence and divergence of AST and IST over time; during the study, respondents noted that the ‘gap’ between AST and IST fluctuated, and that in the closing stages, the gap became less homogenous and more fragmented (specific) as BTs became more fluent and practised in some aspects of teaching more than others. Based on the reports of the BTs in this research, the differences between AST and IST appeared to act as a skills checklist, a motivator, also an aid to reflection and self-regulation. At stage 2, for example, BTs used the gap to create a practical ‘checklist’ of things to do or explore e.g. chase up and check homework, develop the pastoral side of practice, create tasks for a particular class. The key issue was that BTs recognised that the contents of the gap had to be incorporated into practice. Norman, Olivia and Kay, for example, were all aware of what they needed to improve on and how they might do so; how long it might take was another matter. Because the two constructs moved separately, the relative distance would fluctuate; for example, as everyday teaching performance improved (meaning AST moved towards IST), so the understandings about what was possible as a teacher would also move (meaning IST would move away from AST). When Edward and Norman found ‘new’ more rigorous or successful role models to act as a comparator, the perceived gap between actual and ideal self as a teacher increased. There are two issues here that merit comment; first, the relative movements of AST and IST could be a way of addressing the ‘chicken or the egg’ conundrum (as discussed by Marsh and Köller (2003) earlier above). In their discussion of (the direction of) causality between skill development and self-concept enhancement, Marsh and Köller argued that “well established paradigms for testing these models did not exist prior to the 1980s” and recent attempts to break out of the ‘circularity’ paradox were relatively more successful using what they referred to as a “reciprocal effects model” in which prior academic self-concept affects subsequent achievement and prior achievement affects academic self-concept (Marsh and Köller, 2003, in Marsh et al, 2003, p.21). Introducing the idea of prior into the argument, however, appears to push the problem back in time rather than solve the problem; also, the reciprocal effect still has to be explained rather than described. The notion of ‘paired independence’ in which the two constructs, AST and IST, were both developing
and changing separately whilst still interacting may well offer an alternative view on the interpretation of prior (actual) and post (ideal) factors; over time, the ideal self can become the actual self and the (new) actual self becomes the basis for a revised ideal self; at different points in time, therefore, each one can be either the ‘driver’ or the ‘follower’. Second, the relative movements of AST and IST meant that absolute performance might improve whilst the relative performance stayed static or even worsened at times. Teachers, like athletes in training for example, could actually be getting better (in measurement terms) whilst feeling that their performances were getting worse compared to other people or standards (in perceptual terms). This way of looking at teaching performance emphasises the importance of individual perception about ‘progress’ and places the milestones for ‘measuring’ development internally ‘in the head’ as well as externally ‘in the environment’. It also suggests (not surprisingly) that exposure to a range of teachers and teaching methods is necessary to enhance the chances of finding positive new role models. Excellence in any domain requires a long and heavily structured period of training and practice, followed by a, largely self-driven, regime of deliberate practice throughout the career (Ericsson, 2002, p.17). In this research, there was little evidence that BTs were thinking about their future or ideal self as a teacher, beyond teacher training, as something that involved ‘deliberate practice’ as defined by Ericsson. The PGCE stimulated changes in AST and IST because the trainee was engaged in a process or form of course based and graduated ‘deliberate practice’ involving mastery of a range of classroom teaching and management techniques (e.g. large and small group teaching), teaching to meet targeted learning outcomes, with structured reflection and evaluations after most teaching sessions. Post PGCE behaviours e.g. ‘settling down’ in a school, becoming established and working with the same colleagues for long periods of time, may have been good for ‘continuity’ from the schools perspective, but did little to stimulate a gap between actual and ideal performance within the NQT. These factors will have played their part in the process by which IST and AST appeared to converge on concerns with coping rather than changing, once the NQT was in post

(3) How did BTs understand and use the term reflection in their personal and professional lives?
The everyday examples of reflective practice given by respondents were reminiscent of Argyris distinction between 1st and 2nd order reflection (Argyris and Schon, 1974). First order reflection was more ‘action’ oriented, focusing on how they might improve their performance as teachers in class; this kind of reflection was the most common and focused on recording ideas about lesson planning, lesson delivery and keeping order, so that changes could be made in later lessons; this was reflection allied to experiential learning (Kolb, 1984). Second order reflection, thinking about their personal values and principles underpinning practice (the ‘why’), was less common and associated more with the identity questions posed by Oyserman (2001) such as “Who am I, where do I belong, how do I fit in” as a teacher? All of the sample had thought about (reflected on) these issues and were able to elaborate a response to appropriate questions and probes in interview; these conversations were remarked on as something that happened on the PGCE but not very often since then. There are two major findings about reflection that merit attention in the discussion. First, the obvious and most marked feature of professional life as an NQT is how different it is from being a BT on the PGCE. Many important activities simply stop. Deliberate and reflective practice is absent in ‘normal’ school life because the internal drivers for the majority are not strong enough to make it happen; only a few had the will to make it happen. Sue, Louise and Olivia could do it independently; Norman could do it when he had to, Kay and Patricia apparently could not. The ‘pressure’ of everyday school teaching (in post) shaped a concern with coping not developing; most NQTs rationalised the situation by taking ‘pride’ in coping with the pressure. Betty understood very clearly the pressured nature of a teacher’s life at Stage 3 and had decided not to go into teaching. At Stage 4 she reiterated the reasons why and related this to her desire for a career and a good quality of life, she reasoned that in teaching this synthesis wasn’t possible. Wider concerns with underpinning theory, big issues and philosophical inquiry that were encouraged on the PGCE (and were present in Stage 3) disappeared when in post in school (absent in Stage 4). In the light of the findings contrasting BTs’ comments from the earlier part of the course, when they were meeting different classroom experiences for the first time e.g. preparing detailed lesson plans for every teaching session and then evaluating these in detail afterward, with the later comments about coping with a full teaching load every day, every week; the conclusion to be drawn is
that rapid and noticeable changes in AST and IST are linked with deliberate and reflective practice when it is encouraged and expected. When these stop, and everyday pressures are great, the IST and AST stop developing and converge.

The second observation concerns the strategy adopted by schools in focusing on institutional improvement at the expense of personal development. This may not have been ‘planned’ but it was a consequence of the school system. Staff meetings held specifically to harmonise, rationalise or evaluate administrative procedures such as lesson planning and record keeping were common, whereas meetings to discuss wider professional issues were rare. This fits the picture described by Munthe (2003) who found that collaboration for lesson planning was common amongst teachers, but found very little evidence for collaboration for reflective practice. It is also consistent with the findings of So and Watkins (2005) where new teachers straight out of training were found to become more simplistic in their planning and less integrated in their thinking about professional issues once they started in school. The findings on reflection also mirror the largely unstructured and unplanned learning that passed for staff development amongst experienced teachers reported by Eekelen et al, (2005). Eekelen found that ‘learning’ occurred as a result of “trigger” events or unplanned activities; engagement with problem solving activities did not resemble the “experiential and learning spirals” described in learning theory (Eekelen et al, 2005, p.465). NQTs were aware of the situation, Olivia mused “was I at the peak of my career when I was on the PGCE?” (Olivia, Stage 4). Kay desperately wanted to ‘think’ her way through problems but because she felt alone was unsure what to think and how to reflect, “I feel like I’m fumbling in the dark” (Kay Stage 4). One of the best moments for Kay had been when she was asked to supervise a BT in the school and Kay not only felt valued but also valued the chance to talk with a colleague about teaching issues. This was such a simple thing for the school to do and yet it had a profound impact on Kay. In contrast, Louise had created her own opportunities to become involved in planning and delivering INSET activities to her colleagues and seemed to take it for granted that being proactive was the way to create time for quality reflective practice. Louise resembled the ‘excellent’ teachers examined by Kane et al, (2004) who, through reflection, developed a more holistic view of professional life. Schools appeared to be missing very simple and basic opportunities to support reflective practice, and failed to encourage and support staff by not
using appropriate HR management techniques to make it happen. The impact of these policies on pupils is unknown. Estimating or measuring teacher effectiveness was not part of the research agenda and therefore no connections can be made between identity and effectiveness. Day et al, (2006b, p.162) however, reported that tensions between teacher agency and structure were dealt with by various strategies and the outcomes involved “positive/negative direct/indirect effects on pupils”. With that model in mind, it would be interesting to know how the NQTs (and the schools) rated the opportunity cost to their pupils of their concerns with managing at the expense of teaching, of actions without reflection?

Undoubtedly, NQTs in this study were quite capable of reflecting on deep and fundamental issues about the self. When asked to think about any issue that had concerned them deeply, they chose mostly to talk about important aspects of their lives rather than the particulars or details of events in schools. Norman was dealing with his tendency to let pressures pile up and overwhelm him, Olivia explored concerns about her identity as an artist, Sue felt more valued by the pupils than by her managers or the school itself and was trying to develop her own philosophy to cope with this. Sue was doing this by herself and the school had no part in the process. Again, the question arises, why did the various schools have little or no part to play in the reflective process concerning such important aspects of these teachers’ lives? To put this question differently, what is the relationship between context, i.e. external regulation, and the internal forces for action represented by reflection, self-regulation and self-regulation of learning, on identity and self-concept as a teacher? This question is examined next.

(4) How did self-regulation show itself?

In this research all BTs reported that they practiced some form of self-regulation involving anticipatory or reactive strategies such as procrastination, overestimating the difficulty of a task, underestimating their own ability, focusing on tasks they knew they could do well, consistently attributing success or failure to internal or external causes. Technically, these kinds of self-motivation are called - self-handicapping, defensive pessimism, self-affirmation and
attributional style (Garcia and Pintrich, 1994, p.135). Trainees used various kinds of SRL (e.g. target setting, self-monitoring and evaluation, seeking help and self-instruction) on academic or project type activities to do with their PGCE course work, but they also employed these techniques on other aspects of their own lives e.g. monitoring relationships with other staff (Patricia); dealing with difficult people at work who resented her 'special' status with the Head of School (Louise); thinking about her career path as teacher or artist (Olivia); creating a better work/life balance by leaving teaching (Betty), or by dealing proactively with his chaotic working patterns (Norman). SRL used in this particular way can be thought of as ‘self-enabling regulation’ to complement, and contrast with, the idea of ‘self-handicapping regulation’. In the literature, self-regulation (SR) seemed to be used interchangeably with self-regulated learning (SRL) and this was not helpful in trying to understand the research findings. Van Eekelen who uses the phrase self-directed learning (SDL) in relation to ‘adult learning’ but defines it in a similar way to SRL (Eekelen et al, 2005, p.449), noted that the teachers in their study could self regulate their own teaching practice but were inconsistent in the way they approached opportunities for ‘experiential learning’ at work by not engaging in structured reflection or setting aside time for training or set reading, (Eekelen et al, 2005, p.466-467). This resonates with the later experiences of the trainees in this research. Reflection as a part of SR invariably happened when supported or encouraged by the PGCE, or (infrequently) by the school (i.e. when externally driven); it was more rare when it had to be internally driven. Whilst SR may involve reflection, it is more than reflection, for example, Norman acknowledged that he was not very good at asking for help even though there were opportunities and the school ‘encouraged’ this. Clearly, SR involves efficacy too. In this study, SRL seemed to be easier to see and to conceptualise (reflect on?) than the more ephemeral SR, and for that reason was probably more noticeable and memorable both for researcher and the researched. The ‘confusion’ reported in this context may well be linked to the findings of Tillema and Kremer-Hayon (2002) who found that two groups of experienced trainers used and understood SRL differently; both groups associated SRL with reflective practice, however, the Dutch trainers saw SRL as a way to develop self-concept in terms of professional practice, the Israeli trainers used more meta-cognitive and group learning strategies to develop professional practice.
This may reflect a difference between wanting to explore the ‘what’ and/or the ‘why’ of practice, strategic differences in approaches to decision making, or a deeper reflection of the influence of bounded agency working through cultural and national norms and contexts.

The findings show that the development of self-concept as a teacher, teacher identity, was crucially affected by actual teaching experience. Teaching experience acted as the ‘initiation’ into the ‘teacherhood’, it had an iconic status and dominated the AST and the IST in the early parts of the PGCE. Early on, BTs felt like teachers when accepted by their immediate teaching colleagues, and later, once BTs had passed through the ‘lack of experience’ barrier (after the second school placement), many felt they could begin to make up their own minds that they were now teachers. Teaching practice as a form of ‘deliberate practice’ in which the participants attempt to “stretch performance toward higher, yet attainable, goals”, (Ericsson, 2002, p.30), was central to the development of teacher identity, however, the research suggests that creative development of identity ended with the end of the supervised teaching placements. This finding is evidenced by research into teacher socialisation, including Lacey (1977), Waite (1995) and Sullivan and Clanz (2005), suggesting that teachers cope with transition and change through processes of internalised adjustment and strategic redefinition, and acceptance (of difficult conditions and circumstances) through a process of ‘strategic compliance’ (Waite, 1995, p.53).

The evidence for a slow down of identity development at the NQT stage is at odds with the overall promotion of ‘The Reflective Practitioner’ as a model of good practice for individual development. The ‘Reflective Practitioner’ model as promoted by many colleges and INSET courses (e.g. the ALACT model in Van Eekelen et al, 2005, p.450), assumes that the teacher can improve practice unilaterally (often a euphemism for ‘cheaply’). The initial conclusion from these findings, however, is that further development and elaboration of AST and IST would need a third or fourth period of supervised teaching practice but NOT on a full time basis within schools. Unless the heavily pressured nature of everyday school was eased or changed in a major way, it is likely that trainees IST and AST would simply converge on a common strategy of survival rather than development (Lacey, 1977). Deliberate practice for teachers, as for athletes and
other forms of professional, usually requires help from a colleague acting as a coach, trainer or mentor.

The findings of this research, and of other research discussed above, have highlighted the idea that reflective and deliberate practice did not figure highly in the daily practice of NQTs. Most mentioned ‘looking back’ and recalling particular incidents (trigger events’), and it is likely that these behaviours were interpreted as ‘reflection’, however, they lacked the serious review and implementation stages that are characteristic of spiral learning models and were reactive rather than proactive in nature (Eekelen et al, 2005, p.465). Eekelen found that learning through interaction and learning by doing were reported as the top two ways his subjects operated in school (Eekelen et al, 2005, p.466) and this accords with the important role of teaching practice experience on professional development in this study and their later development when in post as NQT. Ericsson makes the point that the general ‘law of least effort’ predicts that (routine) activities are or will be carried out with least effort. Crucially, for this discussion, Ericsson notes that “repeating a similar series of actions doesn’t change the structure of performance, it merely reduces the effort required for their execution” (Ericsson, 2002, p.30). The whole thrust of the stories told by the NQTs about their settling in year suggests that getting their own classes and being responsible for their classes was a significant milestone in their early careers; planning the daily routine, coping with pressures and getting things done smoothly was important in the way they thought about themselves as teachers and in the way they were judged by the school and by other teachers. NQTs largely focussed on managing, not changing, situations, in that context, it would not be surprising if the IST and AST became focused on dealing with ‘what is’, rather than with what ‘might be’. Repetition, in itself, makes for smoother performance (impacts on AST) but not necessarily, ‘better’ performance (or to a reformulated IST). The conclusion from this is that it is the factors and conditions that impact most heavily on AST and IST that should be further investigated with a view to promoting maximum development potential in trainees. When first in post, and working with their classes, NQTs began solving everyday problems of classroom management pragmatically using exploration and trial and error; this represents an experiential, heuristic, approach or strategy that is fluid and flexible. Later, through constant repetition, NQTs
became very effective and efficient within a limited range of situations and began using a more algorithmic approach i.e. using rules that are relatively fixed. In a heuristic process, there is no predetermined 'journey' but there will be universally recognised cultural 'milestones' that are used to judge development; by adopting a more algorithmic approach, however, teachers attempt to create stable conditions and bring about a degree of certainty to the process of managing classes. This is how they talked about 'coping' with the pressures in school on a daily basis. This proposition represents a model or description for teacher development that is different from traditional staged developmental models, journey models and teachers 'concerns' models. It is similar in shape to the Day et al, model (involving the struggle between efficacy and structure), however, a different emphasis is given to what 'powers' the process i.e. possible selves. Day et al, locate the mobilisation of teacher identity within the space between 'structure' and 'personal agency' and attribute the development of self-concept as a teacher to the interaction of these two things (Day et al, 2006b, p.613). Without disputing the importance of these two elements, more emphasis is placed, in this discussion, on the interplay between actual and ideal self as a teacher and the contexts within which the two constructs are self-regulated. The conjecture that follows from this viewpoint is that however professional and polished the actual self as a teacher becomes, without some kind of reflexive change or movement in the ideal self as a teacher, the operation of overall teacher self-concept becomes focused on maintenance rather than development. As a consequence, in the face of continuous and widespread changes in educational policy and practice as seen over the post-war period, attempting to hold the status quo on identity will inevitably feel more like a war of attrition than a joint venture of exploration.

(5) How did BTs report changes in their overall sense of self during and after training?

Self reported changes, of great magnitude, in self-concept were a rare occurrence amongst teachers in this research. At different times, trainees would report different positions in their affective states, sometimes feeling more confident and upbeat, other times feeling despondent, but overall, when the question of 'do you feel changed or different inside as a person' was returned
to, the answer was generally ‘no’. The research findings suggest that cognitive awareness of changes in skills and abilities was not synonymous with a pronounced change in self-concept; even profound states of happiness or deep unhappiness, per se, were not grounds for claiming ‘I am a different or changed person’. In the early stages, having teaching skills was not the same as feeling like a teacher; later, being changed by training or circumstance was not the same as feeling changed. Throughout the study, trainees reported consistently that changes in skills, knowledge, or feelings about the self, did not necessarily correspond with changes in self-concept overall. Respondents appeared to operate with a kind of ‘inner core’ model of self whereby self-concept could be ‘insulated’ from changes in outward behaviours “you can change what you do, but you can’t change who you are” (Norman, Stage 4) The metaphor of a ‘modular’ structure for self-concept fits this situation in that changes in geographical location, lifestyle, emotional attachments, indeed many important aspects of ‘daily living’ appeared to be compartmentalised along with changes in skills, knowledge and understanding about teaching. There could be two alternative interpretations of the change - no change scenario, however, using (i) notions of SRL theory and (ii) ideas from autopoietic systems.

First, Norman had a clear view on the ‘modular’ nature of his life in that he used the analogy of building bricks to talk about restructuring what already existed. For Norman, changing aspects of his life was like “rearranging bricks in a wall” (Norman, Stage 4) and this metaphor raises interesting questions about how respondents in this study perceived choices and options about their actual and ideal self as a teacher; it also revisits arguments concerning the self-regulated nature of experience and learning and of bounded agency. Monique Boekaerts suggests that learners have three positions or vantage points to survey their individual learning landscape and portrays this as a three layered (onion ring) model of self-regulated learning (Boekaerts, 1999, p.499). Each layer involves elements of choice; the inner ring involves choice of cognitive strategy, the middle ring involves choice and use of Metacognitive knowledge and skills, the outer ring involves choice of goals and resources. The three perspectives may well represent a distinction between knowing what and knowing why (as discussed earlier above), also, there is no a priori reason for supposing that SRL is directly transferable across all domains; if self-concept is modular in
structure, and bounded agency operates overtly and covertly, then it may be that the use of SR understandings and strategies could differ across different domains (modules) of self-concept. Returning to a theme developed in chapter 2, SR can be viewed as only a part of the total regulation processes at work; if regulation operates across a continuum from the ‘inner world’ to the ‘outer world’ the BT and NQT then the effective ‘sphere of influence’ available to the individual may well be limited at any one time. Learning, for example, may be taking place deliberately through ‘deliberate practice’ but learning will almost certainly be taking place through other means e.g. through a process of socialisation and acculturation. From this perspective, the PGCE course may have substantially altered the course member’s skills and abilities (and hence potential choices) at the inner, middle, and outer levels, but at differential rates. For example, if the inner and middle levels equate to actual self as a teacher (AST), and the outer level with ideal self as teacher (IST); then, when all three levels are in ‘motion’, this will feel like a lot of change is happening and it may be that the IST (i.e. goals) are racing ahead of AST (i.e. metacognition experience and skills) which is precisely what was reported by BTs in Stages 1 to 3 of the study. In this state, there are lots of goal choices and perceived opportunities but the BT does not yet have the skills to achieve them. When, as at Stage 4, skills have been catching up with goals, and the overall change rate in AST and IST has slowed down, then this may well induce a feeling of ‘standing still’. Current goals are achievable with current skills, therefore, changing the life-world may feel like ‘moving the furniture around’ because overall choices are now limited or defined.

The second interpretation revisits the ‘interlocking’ nature of different aspects of the life world as suggested in the embedded and recursive nature of self-concept viewed as an autopoietic system. The life-world may consist of well-defined sub-systems or components – family structures, personal relationships, geographic location, professional networks, and historical associations e.g. schools, clubs, fraternities – however, all of these sub-systems are themselves embedded into other systems, that are themselves embed recursively (Beer, 1980, in Mavrinac, 2006, p.521), all of these elements are connected like pieces of a jig-saw. A way to create new structures and patterns, therefore, will be to envisage new or changed future possible (ideal) selves, but that will take (a
long) time before any major changes in actual self will manifest itself. In the context of relating change and future possible selves, there was one respondent at Stage 4 who reported feeling changed in a major way, Olivia, and her case is examined next.

Of the seven respondents interviewed at Stage 4, only one (Olivia) reported an important and major change in the way she felt about herself. The other six reported that they felt changed ‘only marginally’ since the end of the PGCE. The major difference between Olivia and the rest, seemed to be that Olivia was actively shaping and managing her identity as an artist, and a teacher, and throughout her final interview was clear about which one fitted with and complemented her core sense of self “Artist, and I also teach, secondary school” (Olivia, Stage 4). For Olivia, actual self as a teacher (AST) competed with two other concepts, her actual and ideal self as an artist (ASA) and (ISA). Olivia recognised that as a teacher she would probably have little time for her own work as an artist and so ASA would not play a major role in her life in the short to medium term. Olivia argued, however, that she could ‘sublimate’ her development as an artist through her work with students; first, her own creative development as an artist could take place whilst teaching, therefore she could manage or maintain some form of ASA. Second, there was a strong ISA operating that she felt would be realised later, in about 10 years; this involved planning and working towards some form of financial independence and security, for example, with a flat and a studio where she could be an artist in her own right. What is interesting about Olivia’s story is that it shows the process of SR at work, particularly the use of positive attribution strategies placing the responsibility for action internally, also the use of self-enabling action strategies involving SRL. The conceptual framework for the research suggests that AST and IST are held together in some systematic way through a form of self-regulation, and Olivia’s story concerning multiple actual and ideal selves is a good example of that process. There are other case histories, however, that complicate this picture of identity formation involving AST and IST. Betty left teaching at Stage 4 to return to social care work but still considered that she was someone who could teach and could use many or all of the skills she was taught and had developed on the PGCE, in her role as a care manager. Louise was developing a personal/professional web site connected with her potential
private teaching interests and reflecting her previous career roles as trainer, consultant and IT specialist, though how this was to be used in the future was not made clear. The remaining NQTs appeared to have considered the question of their professional identity as settled, a ‘given’; they were now qualified teachers and their self-concept as a teacher, their AST and IST, was framed solely in terms of teaching.

Overall, the findings on change in self-concept are unambiguous in just three respects; only Olivia reported feeling that she felt changed in a major way, she rated the change as 8, the rest rated change at 2 or 3 (on a 9 point bi-polar rating scale); also, Olivia was the only candidate who reported an alternative ideal self – an ideal self as a painter. Apart from Betty, who had left teaching, all the others reported an actual and ideal self as a teacher as the sole professional possible self. Otherwise, despite reported changes in a wide range of factors - relationships, location, financial stability, teaching and personal contexts, personal styles of living and managing, feelings and emotions etc, - the remainder of the sample were adamant that they felt unchanged as a person between Stage 3 and Stage 4 but were unable to reflect or report why that was the case.

(6) How did BTs explain their decision to join the PGCE?

There were three ‘joining routes’ into the PGCE involving a clear distinction between those who had ‘always wanted to be teachers’ and those who joined for other reasons i.e. ‘tried teaching and liked it’ or ‘teaching has to be better than what I’m doing now’. The first group could be viewed as treating a future life in teaching as inevitable i.e. a possible self as teacher as a model or blue print to follow, whereas, the latter two groups could be seen as having exercised a “redesign” of their lives i.e. creating a new possible self as a teacher. For the people joining the PGCE, the idea that they might become a mainstream professional teacher (a particular possible self) occurred to them at different times and for different reasons. Two thirds had some teaching experience before joining the PGCE and a third of the sample had taught overseas either on a voluntary basis, (e.g. Rose in Nepal) or as a part of their job (e.g. Louise in Germany). Two thirds were women; the age ranges for men
and women were similar although the female mean age was slightly higher at 31. In terms of these basic demographics, there was no clear ‘pattern’ suggesting that any of these entry factors influenced subsequent success or progression through the course; the data suggests, however, that most of those who stayed with the sample through to Stage 4 came into teaching on a positive basis, i.e. for ‘want to’ rather than ‘have to’ reasons. Whilst it is possible that the antecedents did affect performance, this research set out to explore the concept of possible selves ‘in action’; therefore the focus of attention was forward looking, to see how the ‘possible selves’ idea was involved in the development of self-concept. ‘Looking back’ or matching entry profiles to completion rates was never part of the research agenda and, apart from the study by Burke and Noller (1995) suggesting that ‘hand picked’ candidates, specially selected for teacher training, felt confident they were assured of teaching positions, there were no indications in the literature reviewed that particular entry characteristics were determinate factors in successful training outcomes.

(7) Do the experiences of the trainees on this PGCE offer any useful insights to the way in which ITT should be designed and delivered?

This research project was not designed or intended to be an evaluation of the PGCE course in itself, neither does it attempt to link the development of self-concept as a teacher with measurable impacts on pupil learning. The findings and discussion, however, raise a number of critical issues about the process of becoming a teacher in pre-service and in-service education and training contexts that would be of wider interest to teacher trainers, BTs, NQTs, and longer serving staff in schools and colleges. These issues concern: (i) the number of supervised teaching hours that BTs undertake in training; (ii) the provision and support of deliberate practice and reflection tasks and exercises in training and when in post; (iii) the professional context and standing within which BTs and NQTs operate; (iv) where teacher training should be placed, within a Higher Education Institute (HEI) or school based?

In terms of developing an effective PGCE course structure, a minimum critical mass of supervised teaching practice hours (e.g. spread over at least two school terms) are needed for two reasons; first, to ensure that the basic
teaching skills are mastered and can be demonstrated; but also, so that the BT can make the cognitive and emotional transition from ‘outsider’ to ‘insider’ as a member of the wider teaching community within controlled and supported conditions. In this research, building the teaching experience base was a key factor in giving BTs a sense of ‘experience parity’ with their longer serving colleagues and ‘long experience’ was clearly identified as the key differentiator between the trainee and the professional. Where potential recruits already have well documented and substantial teaching hours and experience, such as Louise in this study, some form of Accreditation of Prior Experiential Learning (APEL) would be motivational for experienced practitioners, perhaps through exemptions from selected course work or an additional qualification. APEL procedures are not necessarily ‘easier’ as they too require rigour and accountability.

Second, the working context and perceived status of BTs and NQTs varied widely within and between the different schools involved in this study. This had a differential impact on the rate at which BTs developed their ideas about their identity (actual self as teacher, AST) e.g. as ‘insider or outsider’ and also the practical development of ideas about teacher ‘professionalism’. Different schools treated BTs differently in terms of the roles and responsibilities given and this was noted informally between trainees. Whilst there are natural differences between the ways in which different schools may be organised, there should be some sector wide understandings and agreement about the kind of professional role responsibilities BTs should undertake when carrying out supervised teaching in schools. Partnership agreements between a university and a number of schools are ‘contracts’ in one sense and therefore ‘enforceable’, on the other hand, geographical location, subject availability and the natural differences in staffing quality within and between schools will invariably affect the way schools are able to service their side of the contract. This ‘course design’ aspect of professional training appears to need careful definition and regulation as happens for nursing, medical, accountancy and legal trainees on their equivalent of ‘work placement’.

Third, unless there were some major input of resources to allow schools to carry out a major training role ‘in-house’, teacher training should stay ‘course based’
so that trainee teachers receive a solid base of practice teaching hours without becoming totally immersed in the heavily pressured ‘day to day’ routines of school life. Using the findings from this study, it should be possible to design a school based training PGCE in which the teaching hours built up gradually from a low base to a full teaching time table, however, there would need to be stringent safeguards in place to prevent trainees becoming drawn into the mainstream teaching force should the school come under pressure from inspections, staff absence, sickness, and other long term difficulties in replacing staff. Even without pressure through some form of internal staffing crisis, BTs would be at risk of being drawn into a full professional role for other reasons. Schools are semi-closed ‘communities of practice’ and the external and internal pressures on BTs to become ‘insiders’ as quickly as possible should not be underestimated. The research shows clearly that once BTs became NQTs, and totally immersed in a highly pressured environment, their AST and IST converged on a concern with managing and coping on a day to day basis. This is the situation now and little has changed since Charles Desforges commented that the salient feature of teachers’ knowledge is “to close down on, rather than profit from, experience” (Desforges, 1995, p.385) and Stenhouse observed that “new teaching strategies are extremely difficult to learn and to set oneself to learn, especially when they cut across old habits and assumptions and invalidate hard-won skills” (Stenhouse, 1975, p.25). These comments accord with the discussion earlier in (2) above, concerning the role of reflection and deliberate practice on the development of IST and AST, and also on the provision of CPD discussed next.

Finally, one of the key ‘process drivers’ within the PGCE was the undertaking of course based deliberate and reflective practice which together had an impact on AST and IST and the subsequent development of self-concept as a teacher. Deliberate practice requires some form of coaching, mentoring and/or supervision provided on structured courses such as the PGCE, but was not a significant feature of school provision in this study. This research has shown that the pressured conditions in school did not generally support ongoing deliberate or reflective practice aimed at CPD, and whilst NQTs knew what to do (and knew they should be doing something) they generally did little structured or regular reflection by themselves or with others. Currently, the
Institute for Learning (IfL) promotes reflective practice as a professional requirement as a largely self-regulated process, however, a question for schools and the IfL is how to create conditions (a system) in which teachers can make positive internal attributions about the need and possibility for deliberate and reflective practice along with a range of self-enabling strategies to make it happen? In a telling comment on the history of curriculum innovation, and on the power of the system to constrain individual agency, Desforges said that: “One lesson for certain is that individual teachers have little prospect of operating as independent learners in schools if their learning requires any changes in the general norms of conduct, organisation and provision” (Desforges, 1995, p. 397). Whilst reflection is a desirable process to encourage, it is a necessary but not sufficient factor in improving skill and performance; without deliberate practice, the majority of teachers will stay at the same (current) level of skill or expertise. The projected development of a sector specific Masters in Teaching and Learning (MTL) might well represent a change in policy in that direction, however, the impact of this will depend on how the MTL is perceived and delivered within the system. If it has a strong focus on practical teaching, perhaps focused on the Reflective Practitioner model, this may well provide a major stimulus to IST and AST as per the PGCE. If it were to become another progression route into educational management, however, then its impact on practice may well be minimal.
Part 2: A critique of the methodology and procedures

The four-stage longitudinal design was developed to fit the structure of a particular PGCE and did not imply an underlying ‘staged’ conception of the development of teacher identity. Four data gathering points offered an opportunity to capture personal comment about the development of self-concept as a teacher concurrently with its development and not retrospectively, as in a number of other studies. The detailed findings from this research would be unlikely to emerge from a ‘one shot’ measure of BTs’ ideas about self-concept or from a cross sectional study. The PGCE course observed employed two school placements for teaching practice but this is not a universal feature of the PGCE generally, course design varies between training institutions. On this particular PGCE course, the two arranged teaching placements were chosen by the course providers so as to be very different in kind in order to give the BT a wide base of experience. This had the effect of ‘randomising’ school allocation across the sample and therefore minimising any ‘placement effect’ against factors such as student type, subject discipline, gender or age. One factor that did vary across placement schools was the reported quality and quantity of mentor support from the ‘support tutor’ (a person designated to work with the BT and liaise with the Institute). This variation may have impacted on the way teacher identity developed and in any future research this would be worth more detailed consideration early on. Administration of the research process was sometimes problematic; producing full transcripts from Stages 1 and 2 took longer than anticipated, therefore there was no opportunity to have the transcripts checked by the respondents and/or to have additional comments or feedback, as in Flores and Day (2006, p.222). Other longitudinal studies also made use of additional data sources such as extracts from course work involving reflective practice; requests for similar material during this study produced only a limited and sporadic response and were, overall, unsuccessful. In future, where samples of reflective writing or other kinds of course work are required or thought to be important, collection procedures need to be organised differently.

There are a number of important issues arising from these initial comments. First, it is possible that differently configured courses might impact on self-
concept in different ways; therefore these findings might have limited
application. Second, only one data collection point took place post training,
therefore the finding that AST and IST converged and stabilised might reflect a
short run 'consolidation' period only. There is a possibility that AST and IST will
naturally converge on a position of stasis after any intense period of training;
this is something that could form the basis of a new research question to be
checked by replication and by extending the period of a future longitudinal
study. The research design detected early rapid changes in AST and IST also
the slow down in both when the NQTs were later interviewed in post. The
preferred interpretation is that change and then stasis were both linked to the
presence and then the absence of deliberate and reflective practice, however,
alternative explanations may be possible, for example that the uneven
development of SRL strategies and understandings in different domains
associated with teaching and learning is a personal not a course related
phenomenon associated with the way trainees understand and use
Metacognitive strategies i.e. Monique Boekaerts ‘onion ring’ model of SRL
(Boekaerts, 1999, p.499). The research findings, however, agreed in a number
of important respects with other studies — the shift from concerns with pedagogy
towards management, the erratic use of reflective practice after training, the
simplification of thinking about lesson planning and delivery when in post — and
this provides confidence that the research findings do have validity.

The research sample consisted of people who responded to an appeal for
‘volunteers’ and was clearly self-selected. The sample size was set initially at 20
because that was my estimate of what was manageable as a project working
alone, and what might provide a reasonable set of data. Identifying a pre-
selected group based on random sampling (position in register) was a
possibility but that may have affected attitude and the drop out rate adversely.
In practice, the drop out rate was greater than expected anyway and with
hindsight more stringent efforts should have been made to ‘manage’ the group
and stay in contact with the ‘missing’ people. Longitudinal studies have the
potential for generating rich and accurate data but they are prone to suffer from
attrition which, if extreme, can create a concentration of some (contributing)
factor e.g. the residual group becoming more middle class over time (Cohen,
interviewing at each stage was also very tight, therefore, once the data
gathering time had passed a decision was made to move on with the remaining
respondents. ‘Diluting’ the sample with new people at Stages 2 and 3 was
considered but rejected as an option because this might transform part of the
sample into more of a cross sectional study (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison,
2007, p.212). As a result, the overall final sample size was small and the
findings, therefore, are ‘suggestive’ or ‘indicative’ in nature.

From the beginning of the research, BTs were asked questions about their
‘ideal teacher image’ and encouraged to talk about their ‘actual self’ as a
teacher. The topic of ‘ideal teacher’ occurred naturally and early on the PGCE
but was reportedly not followed up or developed as a concept in any consistent
way; therefore, there is a possibility that the research process itself alerted or
sensitised the respondents to the importance of the concept. During the semi
structured interviews, probes were used to explore the idea of a ‘gap’ between
AST and IST, and respondents were encouraged to talk about the developing
relationship between the two. The idea of a ‘gap’ reflected my own pre-analysis
thinking about AST and IST, for example that the AST would simply close up on
the IST as in target setting within SRL; therefore, the finding showing that AST
and IST both changed simultaneously over the period of the study is of
significance in that this was unexpected and not something unwittingly
‘suggested’ during interview. On a related issue concerning possible selves,
McElwee and Dunning (2005) investigated the possibility that “several types of
possible selves appear to function as schemas or prototypes, comparable to the
current self, in processing information” (p.115). In their summing up they posed
a question that had relevance for this research i.e. “is a hoped-for possible self
the same as an ideal self (Rogers 1961; Lewicki, 1983); that is, are ideal selves
images of the self in the future, or might they be cognitive incarnations of me-
when-I-am at-my-best-now?” (p.127). The responses in the early stages of this
research were almost certainly images of the self in the future, but there is a
possibility that the later possible selves might have contained some elements of
the ‘me-at-my-best-now’ kind. This would need further investigation to examine
how to tell the difference, and to determine if the difference matters? The
possibility for bias to intrude into the interview process was always present
through non-verbal cues and selection of probes used to pursue topics. This
should have been minimised by following the interview schedule and through reflexive awareness by the interviewer during the interviews.

Self-regulation formed an important part of the conceptual framework for the study but the original conceptual model was not explicit about how the process worked in detail. The proposition that a regulatory process could hold a number of possible selves together was consistent with the idea of self-concept as a modular system and the intention was to explore self-regulation and possible selves using probes to follow up issues as they arose in the interviews. Although examples of SR were readily given and pursued, the identification and coverage appeared to be weighted towards ‘self-handicapping’ probably because these examples were clear cut and easily spotted. The notion of a more positive and counterbalancing set of ‘self-enabling’ SR strategies did not emerge clearly until the analysis stage. The ‘Tyler’ style notion of setting clear learning aims and objectives, planning, monitoring and evaluating (Tyler, 1949) is central to all modern notions of teaching and learning and is identified strongly with study skills and academic learning contexts. These skills were explored earlier in discussions of SRL and involve goal setting, choice of Metacognitive skills and strategies (Boekaerts, 1999, p.499). Those same strategies are also central to project and financial management, problem solving and general business management contexts too, and even the most basic of management studies courses would highlight situation analysis as an essential part of any systematic decision making process. The finding, therefore, that SR and SRL ‘techniques’ were routinely used as ‘applications’ or ‘tools’ by teachers and learners without them necessarily adopting the reflective or indeed reflexive attitudes to behaviours and situations that are implied in the more formal models of experiential learning and reflective thinking is important and should be researched further.

The procedures for transcribing, coding and analysing the data (using NVIVO) were formulated and completed after the data gathering was completed. One consequence of this was that the emerging ‘story’ about the way AST and IST developed over the study did not emerge in time for further checks or follow up work to be conducted in ‘real time’ i.e. while the study was in progress. Reflection too, on the time and weight given to some of the interview questions
and rating scales concerning the nature of ‘change’ in the life world, reflected earlier theoretical concerns with the broad nature of ‘change’ itself and perhaps took up some interview time that could have been used more profitably exploring self-regulation and self-concept themes in more depth.

Reflection on the research process overall suggests that the basic design strategy using a longitudinal study with multiple sample points was sound; it followed the five point recommendations set out in Chapter 3 very closely, particularly the ideas of (Demo, 1992, p.304), (Huberman, 1989, p.357-359), and (Stryker and Burke, 2000, p.289) in looking for evidence of the development of self-concept as a teacher, i.e. a ‘rolling base line’ of identity, comprising structural and processual properties, using repeated measures in real contexts. The longitudinal study, capturing self-concept data at the start, during and after the close of a programme of training, produced quality data that was nested in a real context (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.10), and was of practical interest to training professionals in the field. AST and IST as a part of possible selves was changing quickly and the multiple points for gathering data were able to pick this up. The perceived weaknesses in the research process, however, related more to the length of the study and to aspects of the management of the project. Also, the transcribing and processing of the data mostly took place after the study and structured opportunities for checking and following up ideas with respondents was missed.

The main conclusions to be drawn from this critique are that the choice of research strategy, a longitudinal study with four data collection points, was critical and important because this was probably the most effective way to gather data that could establish causality, make inferences and capture the complexity of human behaviour associated with the changing self-concept of teachers during and after their period of training (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007, p.212). There were weaknesses in some aspects of the procedures but not enough to seriously compromise the interpretation of the findings.
Part 3: Conclusions and recommendations

Although the thesis makes a contribution to knowledge in the field, the critique above also acknowledges that were the study to be replicated, a number of changes to procedures would be necessary and beneficial. The possibility that this research project could and should be followed up coincides with recent changes in the professional ‘climate’ surrounding teacher training and development in the UK. The creation of the Institute for Learning (IfL) and the requirement for all qualified teachers to register and show evidence of regular ‘professional updating’ in the form of Continuous Professional Development (CPD), (IfL, 2009); also, the Teach First (2009) Initiative and the projected introduction of a Masters in Teaching and Learning (MTL), as a major career development process, provides the motive and opportunity for further research that would be beneficial to teachers in a practical way and may also add further contributions to theory and practice. Further research following on from this study would benefit from a consideration of the following points.

The research should be designed as a longitudinal study of beginning teachers stretching from the very start of their training to at least five years into their post course career. There should be multiple points of data gathering opportunities during and after training at frequent intervals, probably about every 3 to 4 months. The aim would be to examine what happens to AST and IST in training and in the post-NQT phase, particularly, how these constructs relate to one another, how they lead or lag in relation to context and, particularly, whether they do converge at certain times or under certain circumstances. It would be of interest to ITT trainers and school managers to know how AST and IST behave in more experienced teachers? The research questions should focus on the process of self-regulation to understand the relationships between action and attribution strategies. Given the uncertainties that surround operational and conceptual distinctions between SR and SRL, the research should attempt to clarify if there are recognisable, distinctive or significant differences between the way SR and SRL are conceptualised in practice? The research should explore ways to examine ‘naive’ views about AST and IST in beginning teachers i.e. exploring possible selves without overly sensitising teachers to the concept specifically through the interview process. Views on the nature of deliberate
practice would be very useful and practical to have, for example, how is the concept understood by beginning and experienced teachers; how is it managed in schools? Tracking the use of reflective practice in beginning and experienced teachers too would highlight similarities and differences in understanding and approach. Finally, using a larger research sample that was not 'self-selected' would be a practical way to explore how research of this kind could be associated more formally with ITT programmes rather than as individual and/or ad hoc activities.

Over the years, and as a direct result of carrying out this research, I have become aware not only of the scale and complexity of the self-concept literature, but also the way in which very simple and direct questions can make self-concept accessible for trainees as a topic for study, reflection and self-examination. Questions about the actual and ideal self as teacher, for example, can be used to start a process of inquiry that will continue for as long as required, and, in my judgement and experience, the answers could be mapped straight into the nine elements of the metaphor matrix of self-concept (as a teacher). There are no hard and fast 'rules' about how this mapping could be accomplished, but a starting point could proceed as follows:

**Actual self as a teacher** could map to the *process aspects of self-concept* e.g. the way in which the current personal story or narrative is constructed, the dialogical style and 'positioning' adopted in relationship to significant others e.g. pupils, colleagues, experienced teachers, and other researchers, the way in which current teaching roles and responsibilities require certain kinds of behaviours and are construed and acted out.

**Ideal self as a teacher** could map to the desired *structural aspects of self-concept* e.g. target skills and abilities, appropriate aspects of personality and teacher identity.

**Personal changes experienced and anticipated as a teacher** could be mapped to the *design aspects of self-concept* e.g. self-awareness, values and principles, cultural influences and expectations (and also into other areas of the matrix).
A version of the matrix could be used interactively as the basis for a structured professional diary or portfolio as an integral part of CPD and might constitute part of the evidence to be used in a variety of settings e.g. coursework for structured courses, stimulus material for career interviews, promotions and in-service training sessions.

The answers to simple questions about possible selves would begin to map the way in which internal and external regulation and self-regulation is understood and what actions and attributions are taken and made in the process of everyday living as a teacher. This is the beginning of a personal ‘theory of self as a teacher’ that could form the core of a CV, professional biography or proposed training regime, including targets for reflective and deliberate practice. Through continuing intra and inter personal dialogue, the personal ‘theory of self as a teacher’ can be modelled, tested and refined.

To conclude; a conceptual framework and empirical data concerning the way in which possible selves are involved in the development of self-concept as a teacher were presented as an argument involving two kinds of possible self, the actual self and the ideal self as teacher. The dynamic interplay reported between the two constructs was interpreted as a form of paired independence in which each construct could develop separately but in unison with the other. The conceptual framework underpinning the thesis rested on the premise that self-concept has qualities of dimension, also structural, pattern and process properties. A wide range of sources supports this systemic perspective on self-concept across a number of fields of study; on the other hand, systemic theories are not universally accepted as a basis for thinking about self-concept and writers such as (Beijaard et al, 2004); (Day et al, 2006a, 2006b), represent important bodies of literature on the development of self-concept as a teacher that have different research traditions and make no explicit references at all to the possible selves literature.

The empirical research for the thesis rests on four foundational notions about the nature and properties of self-concept. First, self-concept can be viewed as a dynamic and active aspect of the Self that not only reflects ongoing behaviour, but mediates behaviour too (Marcus and Wurf, 1987, p.299). The visualisation
of the future self influences the operation of the current ‘working self concept’ (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.957), therefore possible selves should play a central, systemic role in the operation (self-regulation) of self-concept on a day to day basis. Self-concept has structural and processual properties (Demo, 1992); finally, as an integral part of the living human system, self-concept has autopoietic properties in that it is self organising, self regulating, and self sustaining (Ford, 1987), (Capra, 1996). Collectively, these ideas provide the basis for a proactive and agentive view of self that lends itself to a form of process modelling that could be used for a variety of ITT and CPD activities. On the basis of the reported changes in teacher self-concept during and after a course of ITT, teacher training should continue to operate within the supportive framework of a PGCE type course where both reflective and deliberate practice are encouraged, and a substantial number of practice teaching hours are supported through observation and mentoring. A training regime involving reduced contact hours provides a stable and supportive environment in which to develop teaching skills. The wide variations in the way BTs are treated and utilised within and between schools needs further examination; best practice suggests that where BTs are treated as teachers the formation of teacher identity is encouraged and the cognitive transformation from ‘outsider’ to ‘insider’ is facilitated earlier. Further research using a longitudinal design would be useful to extend and verify the claims made in this study. Overall, these recommendations are based on an alternative perspective on the self-concept literature, a revised interpretation of the possible selves construct involving the relationship between actual and ideal selves, a different explanation of the way self-concept as a teacher develops, and some practical strategies for supporting CPD activities in schools post-training.
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Appendix 1
Key writers and ideas that contribute to the formation of the Internal Metaphor Group

The Geographic Metaphor

Geographic theories of self-concept tend to address questions concerning individual differences as measured by, for example, psychometric test scores. The basic theoretical outline of self-concept has remained largely unchanged since its first formulation by William James (James, 1890); James developed four key ideas anticipating many subsequent developments in self-concept theories e.g. the distinction between the I and the Me, the multifaceted, hierarchical nature of the self concept, the social self based on recognition received from actual or hypothesised peers and significant others, the definition of self esteem based on the ratio of success to pretensions and salience. Of these four foundational ideas, it is the ‘hierarchical/multidimensional’ aspect that lies at the heart of the structuralist’s view of self-concept. Current conceptual frameworks underpinning structural perspectives on self-concept derive largely from two important contributions to the literature in the late 1970s, (Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton, 1976), and (Soares and Soares, 1977). In 1976, Shavelson et al conducted a major review of self-concept research and proposed a hierarchical, multidimensional model of self-concept in which global self-perception is shaped through actual performance within specific domains; this work clearly drew on research on intelligence during the 1950s and 60s by, for example, Spearman, Thurstone, Cattell, Guildford, and Piaget. If the two constructs (intelligence and self-concept) are understood to be structured similarly, it would make sense to use the same methods and instrumentation to explore them, and indeed, the Shavelson et al, (1976) model for self-concept shows strong similarity with models of intelligence based on hierarchical group-factor theory used by Vernon. In terms of a geographic metaphor for self-concept, the work of Marsh (1993; 2005), (Marsh and Hattie, 1996) now forms a considerable part of the literature. Marsh defines self-concept as: “a person’s self-perceptions, formed through experience with and interpretations of one’s environment. It is especially influenced by evaluations of significant others, reinforcements, and attributions for one’s own behaviour and accomplishments” (Marsh, 1993). Self-concept in these terms is clearly an experiential phenomenon, shaped and influenced by the experience and process of daily living, however, what ‘qualities’ associated with daily living are characteristic of childhood and not of adult life is a question that is left unanswered? The justification for factoring a general self-concept into ‘academic’ and ‘non-academic’ components, for example, might appear reasonable when dealing with children and schooling, however, its relevance for the lives of most (non-academic) adults is not so clear. Furthermore, in terms of understanding or explaining how the self-concept becomes increasingly multifaceted with age, structural explanations are generally silent about how development of the self-concept proceeds into the adult years. It might be that there is little or no change in the multi-faceted nature of self-perception in adult life; we might expect the structuralist perspective, however, to explain why that is.

Geographic theories address issues concerning structure but not other issues concerning process and transformation. Maps produced at different points in
time may show changes but no explanation of how the changes came about. Geographic theories, therefore, tend to be static compared to other dynamic theories arising out of sociological or dialogical metaphors. By mapping individual structures, the ‘geographic’ thrust is towards individual difference, other theories and metaphors are needed to address inter-personal and group concerns.

The Biological Metaphor

Biologically based theories concerning self-concept attempt to understand self-concept in terms of the anatomy and physiology of the brain and the central nervous system (Carter, 1998, p.6-7). Historically, biological interpretations of self-concept usually involved ‘medical’ models and metaphors derived from the internal workings of the body, for example the notion of ‘humours’ created by various organs and fluids such as bile. Modern investigations of patients with particular kinds of brain damage or injury, however, provide new perspectives on the way our brains construct our individual worlds (Sachs, 1995). Knowing how information is transferred across the brain, healthy or damaged, aids understanding about how the ‘mind’ is constituted in a physical way; also, what might affect such basic processes as emotions and perceptions, or even the biological basis for consciousness itself. Greenfield (2002) suggests that a way to establish a correlate of consciousness is to examine the particular physical state of the brain that always accompanies a subjective feeling. Greenfield uses the analogy of a dimmer switch to illustrate how consciousness can vary, from moment to moment, as “neurons are coordinated into vast but evanescent working assemblies.” Edward O. Wilson argues in a similar way that “Consciousness is the massive coupled aggregates of such participating circuits” (Wilson, 1998, p.120). This network model of consciousness is driven by feedback from the body and, in turn, communicates their own state, to it; “Hence consciousness, in my view, is also a dialogue between the three great control systems of the body, the nervous, hormonal and immune systems” (Greenfield, 2002). The feedback process would begin to explain how it is that a ‘state of mind’ can affect the body, and vice versa. It is interesting to note that the medieval notion of ‘bodily humours’ affecting the self has returned in the form of a twentieth century cybernetic feedback model.

The biological metaphor for self-concept represents a body of work that will eventually impact on every other theory of self-concept in a major way. The underlying ‘pattern’ or design elements of mind and body are only just beginning to emerge, but the research suggests that mind and consciousness arise out of a systemic mode of operation in which feedback processes play a major role.

The Biographical/Narrative Metaphor

The biographical metaphor derives from individuals’ desire, and ability, to express understandings about self and self-concept in the form of stories and narrative accounts of personal actions and life events. If the geographic metaphor involves analogies such as ‘maps’ and ‘structures’, the narrative/biographical metaphor is rich with allusions to journeys, travel, exploration and discovery. Whereas the geographic metaphor is static and descriptive, the biographical/narrative metaphor is dynamic concerned with direction and change of direction in terms of a lifetime journey. The biographical
metaphor provides an umbrella term within which to consider a wide range of literature and research methodologies. It contains a wide variety of contributions and approaches including: Possible Selves - Markus & Nurius (1986); Biographic Self - Maclure (1993); Life-Span Development - Sugarman (1996); Change & Transition - Lankard (1993). Writers who deal with changing the life course and changing the life story through reflection also include Argyris (1976), Argyris & Schon (1974); Narrative and Reflective Practice - Schon (1983), Dewey (1933), Bruner (1990). Argyris' ‘double loop learning theory’ (Argyris, 1976) occupies a ‘bridging’ position between theories of learning, motivation and an individual’s theory of self, and represents an early form of thinking about self-concept as dynamic, forceful and capable of (self) change. The ‘double loop’ refers to the idea that the step-wise process of reflection (and dialogue) is applied back on itself so as to examine past action to produce new meanings and actions. Reflective practice is placed within the narrative/biographical metaphor because it assumes, for its effect, a process of inner dialogue in which the learner tells a story about an experience, real or imagined, in order to bring about some form of change. Although Schon (1983) put Reflective Practice ‘on the map’ particularly with the idea of reflection, in, on and for, action, Dewey (1933) is usually credited with the foundational ideas regarding reflection and reflective thought. Reflection as envisioned by Dewey, is more than just a “method” or “technique”; it is an approach to situations, a way of living one’s personal and professional life. Reflection in this context can be thought of as way of linking theory with practice so as to create a unified perspective of and on professional development.

Understandings of history, personal or cultural, are also affected by understandings of what is normal. Bruner suggests that the normal i.e. what is ordinary and canonical, acts as the background against which we can interpret and give narrative meaning to the extraordinary (Bruner, 1990, p.47). This idea in turn is similar to the general concept of figure/ground and if this kind of similarity holds then we might expect to see differences between people in the way they are able to separate out aspects of their life course. An ability to differentiate figure/ground in terms of life experience will influence the individual self-concept. Self-concept, therefore, has an evaluative component and individuals will have views about the ways in which their life is exceptional and/or ordinary too.

The biographic/narrative metaphor can be used not only to explore the process of self-concept in creation, but also to see how individuals interpret the metaphor itself as a proxy for their own life structure by virtue of the form the story or narrative takes in the telling.
Appendix 2

Key writers and ideas that contribute to the formation of the External Metaphor Group

The Taxonomic (Identity) Metaphor

To answer the question “who, or what, am I?” social psychologists use an indexical approach to self-concept in which identity is the conceptual or organisational framework for analysing relationships (Antaki and Widdicombe, 1998). Individuals may be category members by choice, or assigned to membership by others. Whilst geographic metaphors for self-concept use factor-analysis to identify the structural make-up of the individual on the basis of task, performance and self-perception measures, Social Identity Theory (SIT) examines the self-structure of individuals, as defined by categorical memberships (Reid and Deaux, 1996; Rosenberg and Gara, 1985; Stryker, 1980). SIT is also concerned with the character of intergroup relations (Tajfel, 1981); and the relationship of the individual to the broader social structure (Breakwell, 1993). Salience and context both appear to have great importance for identity (Deaux, 2000). Identity as a topic has developed a huge literature base and the term supports a wide variety of research interests. It can focus on the collective nature of self, (current in European circles), or more individuated notions of self (current in North American contexts), however, the central core of the work is devoted to analysing the many categorical, structural, aspects of identity, within which self-concept resides. Taken to extremes, however, this approach suggests the possibility that *every* identity could be totally idiosyncratic based on a unique usage and understanding of individually created categories. That could be problematic. At what point, or level of analysis, is it appropriate to draw the line and why? There is also the methodological question of how far the ‘research setting or context’ inherent in drawing out peoples claims to identity will influence what is said and why.

The Anthropological (Culture) Metaphor

Cultural perceptions of self-concept form the core of the anthropological metaphor. Anthropologists are generally concerned with two aspects of culture, ‘universals’ and ‘relativism’ and are divided over the issue of ‘what unites humanity?’ Two views prevail, biological anthropology explains culture as a product of the genetic history of humanity; cultural anthropologists see culture as a higher order phenomenon largely free of genetic history and diverging from one society to the next virtually without limit. In the study of self-concept, there is a parallel debate concerning which aspects of human experience and behaviour are universal and which relate either to the individual or to the immediate context and environment. This is another way of talking about differentiation and individual difference.

Bruner (1990) takes an interpretive stance on the nature and origins of Self within culture and introduces a systems or ‘feedback’ model into his explanation:

“Any effort to understand the nature and origins of Self is, then, an interpretive effort akin to that used by a historian or an anthropologist
trying to understand a “period” or a “people...once an official history or anthropology has been proclaimed in a culture and enters the public domain, that very fact alters the process of Self-construction.”
(Bruner, 1990, p.110)

This two-way, feedback process suggests that the Self is a sociocultural construction that proceeds from the outside in, as well as from the inside out. A ‘design’ or ‘construction’ metaphor has two aspects: the first involves the meanings given to self-concept both by the individual and the culture in which s/he participates. Second, a constructed self is made out of the actions of individuals in the process of daily living. This two-fold nature of Self, act and meaning, is embodied in the concept of ‘Agency’, “culture and the quest for meaning within culture are the proper causes of human action” (Bruner, 1990; p.20). Agency, therefore, is a key feature of culture. What a person is allowed to do, expected to do, prohibited from doing, in terms of cultural rules and expectations are important features of every day life.

From an individual perspective an important part of self-concept resides in the sense of autonomy or lack of it. Maslow’s ‘Hierarchy of Needs’, Maslow (1970), illustrates the classic distinction between ‘have to’ and ‘want to’ as motive. Within Maslow’s hierarchy, lower levels reflect actions that are carried out on a ‘have to’ basis. At the middle and top, actions are more about ‘want to.’ Self-actualisation is one means by which a dynamic based within an individual permeates into social structure and can be used to explain how transition and change occurs at the level of the individual and of society. Essentially, ‘self actualisation’ allows the individual to operate relatively independently of society.

From a cultural perspective, an important aspect of sociocultural identity or cohesion is the consideration of how to transmit knowledge and meanings across the generations. Malinowski, like Maslow, suggested a three-tier Hierarchy of Needs model in which the first level refers to the ‘primary biological needs’ of individuals essential to their survival. The second level refers to social needs, like the need for co-operation and solidarity. These social needs have to be met in order for the primary needs to be satisfied. What is different from Maslow, however, is that the third level refers to the ‘integrative needs’ of society. These needs are for institutions and/or traditions that facilitate the transmission of norms and behaviours, across the generations, to satisfy lower level needs. This ‘integrative imperative’ is a reproductive function that allows society to operate relatively independently of individuals (Malinowski, 1944).

This contra relationship of the two models is expressed below in Figure 11.
Figure 11 Two contrasting ‘Hierarchy of Needs’ Models

III Self-actualisation needs (Maslow)
III Integrative needs of society (Malinowski)

In the Maslow model, lower levels are satisfied in order to reach level III (a bottom up model), whereas, in Malinowski, level III must be satisfied first to guarantee levels I & II (a top down model). An educational example would highlight the integrative impact of schools and schooling, via the curriculum, on the cultural preservation and transmission of learning and learning skills. In turn, individual learning, research and discovery — a form of self-actualisation - alters the content and the style of curriculum experienced by future generations. This interactive process is complex and requires a distinction between events, 'conjectures' and the longue durée in placing and interpreting human actions within historical contexts.

Anthropological and sociocultural metaphors concerning self-concept are positioned as 'design' concepts because they are concerned with both process and structure. Individual agency will impact on society immediately through the consequences of action and on future generations through the medium of culture. Culture, in turn, impacts on self now through the agency of institutions, norms and conventions as executed by their agents. Linking the biological and cultural metaphors, Edward O. Wilson suggests that human social evolution proceeds along a dual track of inheritance - cultural and biological (Wilson, 1998, p.183). The anthropological self-concept operates at two levels because metaphors using anthropological contexts are applicable to populations and groups as well as individuals. Individuals are carriers of hereditary inheritance and are recipients of cultural inheritance. The two roles interact of course and other metaphors are also needed to explore those processes of interaction.

The Sociological Metaphor

Within theories of self-concept the sociological metaphor is particularly strong and has played an important role in theory building. The sociological metaphor is positioned as a 'process' metaphor because it is primarily through the performance of role that the ‘process of everyday living’ is carried out. The ‘Sociological’ label for this metaphor is used inclusively across three broad schools of thought and encompasses a social-psychology dimension. The three broad schools are:
Symbolic Interactionism

SI derives, initially, from the work of George Mead (1863-1931); Mead taught at the University of Chicago and was a friend and associate of John Dewey. Whilst Dewey was a prolific writer and influential in the field of philosophy and education, Mead wrote very little and his ideas have ‘survived’ in the form of books based on his lectures e.g. Mead (1934). For example, Herbert Blumer, a student of Mead, created the term 'Symbolic Interactionism', (Blumer, 1969 in Baert, 1998, p.72). The central feature of SI is the ‘self’ - the self is a unique feature of humanity. The self is also a social self in two respects; first there is the issue of interaction, in order to interact successfully each individual needs to acquire the ability to adopt the attitude of others, to see the world (and oneself) from the perspective of others. Second, successful interaction requires communication, and the hallmark feature of humanity is the acquisition and use of language. These theories stress the dynamic nature of self within social interaction and are clearly focussed on process rather than structure and pattern.

Dramaturgical Models

Erving Goffman’s major contribution to the literature on self-concept is contained in The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life, Goffman (1959). Like Mead, Goffman’s interest lay in the pattern of interactions between individuals in which people can reflect on their actions and attempt to manipulate their environments. In order to do this, individuals need to understand social order and predictability, and to use these aspects of society skilfully and wilfully. Goffman’s main interest lay in the analysis of ‘encounters’ in which individuals are aware of the presence of others and will decide to hide or present aspects of their selves. The analysis of encounters uses metaphors and analogies from the theatre, hence the term dramaturgical. Goffman employed a number of terms to describe the ‘settings’, in which encounters are played out e.g. the ‘front room’ and the ‘back room’, and made a distinction between a setting which is fixed and one that is ‘portable’ and travels with the person. Goffman perceived the social world as strongly ‘rule governed’ and where actions are dependant on context for meaning. Whilst Goffman did not present a fully worked out model of self, his work supports the notion of a self-concept that is fluid, reflective and dynamic, one in which there is a capacity for change and development through deeper and different understandings, and attributions of meaning and application, of social rules.

Ethnomethodology

The main concern of ethnomethodology is with the ‘methods’ people use to create ‘meaning’ for themselves and then how they act on those meanings in their everyday lives. Harold Garfinkel, who created the term ethnomethodology, specialised in exploring the taken for granted nature of everyday life, particularly the way in which people have a strong attachment to the implicit ‘rules’ of behaviour on which they continually draw. Garfinkel demonstrated that whilst people draw upon interpretive procedures to make sense of reality, those interpretive frameworks persist and reproduce themselves. In other words, there is a strong commitment to existing personal frames of reference in the face of a changing reality. Ethnomethodologists
suggest that people are constantly engaged in a process of creating appearances in order to create an impression that their behaviour is correct, appropriate and ‘normal’. To that extent, ethnomethodology is similar to Goffman’s dramaturgical model and both approaches imply that an individual’s self-concept is constantly in the making, that it is created out of the drama of everyday interaction and action. Where ethnomethodology differs from the work of Goffman or of SI generally is that it appears to focus exclusively on how people make sense of what they do, not on what they do or why they do it.

The works of Mead, Goffman and Garfinkel are mostly concerned with social process. The sociological metaphor therefore is based on theories developed to show how self-concept is created out of the processes of daily life, interaction, interpretation and conversation. What is not shown so clearly or convincingly is why things happen the way they do, or how structural aspects of self and society transform and change. In order to explain changing self-concept more fully, other metaphors and models are needed.
Appendix 3
Key writers and ideas that contribute to the formation of the Interface (Boundary) Metaphor Group

The Social-Self Metaphor

The social-self metaphor refers to those aspects of behaviour that are recognised as ‘belonging’ to a person and which contribute to that person’s unique sense of individuality. These personal characteristics express themselves in different ways but taken together produce a defining quality called personality. In this thesis these characteristics are considered to be ‘structural’ and occupy a ‘bridging’ position between the internal and external aspects of self-concept. Personality ‘theory’ has a very large literature field of its own, and this section examines briefly how some of these theories relate to self-concept and to the idea of a ‘social self’, the person we believe ourselves to be, and the self that others perceive.

Psychologists use the term ‘personality’ to describe “the characteristic pattern of behaviour and modes of thinking that determine a person’s adjustment to the environment” (Hilgard et al, 1975, p.364). Day to day, people use the term ‘personality’ in two ways; first, to emphasise the integrative or holistic qualities of self; second, to highlight elements of similarity and difference between people (Roth, 1990, p.377). Personality can be thought of as an umbrella term describing how well, or badly, individuals interact with others around them in the process of everyday living; it is, therefore, an important part of self-concept. With an emphasis on ‘interaction’ it is reasonable to suggest that personality operates at the interface between the structural aspects of the inner self, the domain of skills and abilities, and the structural aspects of the outer self, the domain of social groups and groupings i.e. identity. There are arguments for placing personality towards either end of the internal/external dimension; disposition as a construct provides an internal rationale for consistency in behaviour, so does trait theory; on the other hand there is evidence to suggest that behaviour is ‘situationally driven’ and personality arises out of the external pressure of social roles and norms. It is possible too, that people also strive to behave consistently for others and themselves.

Personality should be influenced by genetic potential and experience; therefore, each person should have a unique personal profile. How unique is that profile? On the basis of various criteria, e.g. observable characteristics, people can be categorised according to similarity (nomothetic approach) or difference (ideographic approach). There are four classes of personality theory, each one based on an inclusive/exclusive approach to categorisation: trait, psychoanalytic, social learning and humanistic.

Do they all belong together within this social-self metaphor? These are all ‘structural’ theories in one form or another and so there is a reason to group them together, however, trait theories tend more towards the geographic metaphor whilst construct theory may tend more towards the taxonomic; humanist theories with their emphasis on meanings, may act as a bridge between the two. Psychoanalytic theories, with their emphasis on the
unconscious have an affinity with the biological metaphor with its focus on the nature of consciousness and awareness.

Who are the major theorists?

**Trait Theories** assume that a personality can be described by its position on a number of continuums. Whereas typologies allocate individuals exclusively to one type or another in a taxonomic way e.g. Galen’s 4 types of ‘Body Humour’ or Jung’s Introvert and Extravert, the idea of a continuum converts types into traits. Since there will be a great many ways of describing individuals, psychometric studies use factor analysis to reduce the potential number of trait to a few independent dimensions. Two factors that appear frequently in this type of analysis are: *introversion-extraversion*, and *stability-instability*. Trait theorists attempt to establish the stable dimensions of personality by studying large groups of people through the use of self-reporting instruments, e.g. personality inventories (self completion questionnaires) and rating scales involving some form of scoring along a (usually bi-polar) continuum. These approaches are subject to the usual methodological issues concerning how well, or accurately, respondents will, or can, complete these and what, if anything, the instruments are actually measuring. Notice however that the methodology for exploring personality is largely the same as that for exploring self-structure, intelligence and learning style.

In brief, Allport (1961) believed that personality is contained within the person and that mental structures are responsible for consistent behaviour. Allport also adopted a *holist* approach to people believing that personality was complex and required the integration of many factors operating together as a system. H.J. Eysenck suggested that personality is structured, hierarchical and multi-faceted (Eysenck, 1953); his frameworks exhibited similar branching construction and overall form as in the structural theories of Marsh and the group factor theory of Vernon discussed earlier above.

R.B. Cattell also applied psychometric methods to examine the organisation of personality. His findings suggested the existence of 16 main factors (16PF) organised into *source trait* and *surface traits*. Source trait lie at the roots of observed behaviour whereas surface trait are the noticeable patterns of behaviour emanating from the roots (Cattell, 1963). Whilst not all of Cattell’s 16 factors compress to agree with the findings of Eysenck, there is a large measure of agreement between the two models.

**Psychoanalytic Approaches to Personality** In contrast to trait theories, psychoanalytic theories about personality are based on in-depth studies of individuals in which the subjects’ verbal and other behaviours are taken to be surface representations of unconscious processes. The work of Freud is central to analytic theory, Freud saw personality as composed of three major systems: the id, ego and superego. Each has its own function, but the three systems interact to form a total system that governs behaviour. The idiosyncratic behaviour of individuals, in terms of approaching the business of everyday living, is seen as that persons attempt to reconcile the conflicting demands of the three systems, which, taken together, constitute personality. Personality ‘problems’ are viewed as difficulties of adjustment, between the internal demands of the system and the external constraints of society, culture and the
groups to which the individual seeks affiliation, (which is a good way of defining an ‘interface’ position for personality). Whilst Freud’s work is controversial, the contribution of psychoanalytic theory lies in the different perspectives and views that it offers about the state of consciousness and the inner world of the child and the adult. The ‘systems’ view of personality (and self) offered by psychoanalysts is one that has emerged again, in recent years but in a different form.

**Social Learning Theory (SLT)** Trait theorists assume that personality is consistent, psychoanalytic theory suggests that the underlying (hidden) personality endures whilst the surface manifestation may be ‘managed’. Social learning theory, in contrast, assumes that overt behaviours are discrete responses to specific situations and as such is a theory of action (and interaction). What a person will actually do in a situation will depend on the nature of their competencies, cognitive strategies, expectancies, personal valuations and self-regulatory systems. SLT therefore deals with patterns of behaviour that are learned through interaction. Note the similarity of these ideas with process driven theories of self-concept e.g. positioning theory. The interpretation therefore is that it is the interaction between person and situation that is crucial, in particular the meaning that the situation has for the individual. In that respect, social learning theory fits the interface role linking inner skills and outer identity, very well.

**Humanist Approaches to Personality** In as much as Humanist theories of personality stress the importance of self-direction and choice within behaviours, they also involve considerations of meaning for the individual. What people do may puzzle observers; personal actions generally, however, have meaning and make sense to the actor. The Humanist theories of Rogers (1967) and Maslow (1970) stress that it is the individual’s perceptions and interpretations of experience that drives behaviour. Rogers introduced the notion of self into personality and distinguished between the perceived self and the ideal self. The well-adjusted person will have a self-concept that is consistent, or compatible, with thought, experience and behaviour. Maslow explored the idea of self-concept for people who reported peak experiences and in doing so generated a set of descriptors for what he called self-actualisation, a sense of individuality, harmony and balance. Maslow based his studies on an exploration of the healthy personality and generated a theory of motivation, Maslow (1970), suggesting that human needs form a hierarchy (this is also discussed above). The hierarchy of needs is composed of four levels of deficiency needs capped by a need for self-actualisation. It is interesting to note that deficiency needs act as ‘drivers’ on behaviour whereas self-actualisation is a process rather than an end point. In Maslow’s model, lower levels are satisfied in order to reach level V, which then becomes a way of life rather than a point in life.

**Personality Theories – a rapprochement** Eysenck and Cattell proposed theories of behaviour and personality that are reactive in nature; in contrast, George Kelly suggested that behaviour is more anticipatory in nature in that people react not to the stimulus per se, but to what they interpret the stimulus to be. Mental processes are influenced principally by how events are anticipated e.g. through a process of construing. Kelly used an ideographic approach to building up a picture of how a person sees the world, this approach known as the repertory grid method depended on the person building up a series of
constructs through a process of categorisation using triads of objects (things or people). The outcome is a construct universe that defines the major personality of that individual. This approach suggests that the world is a constructed world of meaning and therefore, as meanings change, the world of the person, and the person themselves, are capable of transformation and change. In Kelly’s term, the construct systems used to construe the world are our personalities. Constructs form out of experience and can go on changing in the light of new experiences, elaboration and change in the construct system is, therefore, a central part of healthy growth, adaptation and development. A construct is something like a template, it both enables and restricts, and it has a range of convenience that covers some objects and events and not others. Kelly envisaged a construct system as hierarchical in structure with the top constructs taking on a central or core function (Kelly, 1955).

In summary, personality appears to operate at the interface between the inner and external world of the self, and most theorists accept that whilst personality is something that resides ‘in’ the individual, behaviour generally is influenced by personal factors and situational (external) factors too. This is perhaps another way of expressing the uncertainty of the ‘nature-nurture’ arguments concerning other dimensions of self-structure expressed here through the geographic metaphor (abilities and skills) and the taxonomic metaphor (social identity).

The Philosophical Metaphor

“A self is a being that is able to entertain first person thoughts.”
(Honderich, (Ed) 1995)

The reflexive nature of self enables individuals to pose questions concerning the underlying nature and structure of reality, to speculate on how mind and body are related, and to explore ideas concerning free will and determinism, for example the dynamic tension between ‘want to’ and ‘have to’ as motivating forces driving the daily process of living. Whilst theories of materialist duality, the nature of perception and the origins of consciousness have all been instrumental in shaping fields of knowledge such as psychology, physics and biochemistry; Epistemology and ontology as major branches of philosophy can also be used reflexively to explore individual understandings of the world as it is and how it might be. The philosophical metaphor, therefore, is positioned centrally between the internal biological metaphor of mind and conscious awareness, and the external situated metaphor of culture; also, vertically in the matrix between the interface metaphor of personality, and the process metaphor of dialogue.

The philosophical metaphor provides a counter balance to other metaphors of self and self-concept; for example, consider the question: Can human beings ever be ‘objects’ to themselves? Some social psychologists say yes “The essence of the symbolic interactionist conception of self lies in the idea that human beings can be objects to themselves” (Hewitt, 1984, p.69); however, some philosophers say no “It has been claimed that just as the eye cannot see itself, so the self, understood as a subject of awareness, cannot be aware of itself as an object”. According to Schopenhauer, the suggestion that a subject can be an object to itself would be ‘the most monstrous contradiction ever
thought of” (Honderich, (Ed) 1995, p.817). There is no easy way out of the argument and a resolution may be sought, perhaps, through further redefinition or understandings of consciousness. There is little doubt that humans are conscious, but questions such as: What is it? Why do we have it? What does it tell us about self-concept? are all contested issues within philosophy. For Descartes, all thinking is conscious and conscious thought is the essence of mind. On that basis, first person phenomenology is the method for studying and exploring consciousness. Naturalism implies however that conscious mental states are linked into certain neural states to which there is no, and cannot be, first person access (see Biological Self Metaphor above). Linking the objective and subjective basis for mind therefore constitutes the major stumbling block for a complete theory of consciousness. Connected with this is the possibility that the mind and/or consciousness may have depth and ‘hidden’ structure and that, again, first person phenomenology cannot penetrate those regions. If there are ‘unconscious’ mental states then the door is open for unconscious intentional states e.g. Freudian beliefs and desires. The causal links between mind and intention, therefore, are then blurred. Modern philosophers have a position on these issues; John Searle sides with Descartes and suggests that all bone fide mental states are conscious; brain activity is neurophysiological processes and consciousness and nothing more (Searle, 1994). Dennett, however, rejects the notion of duality and the Cartesian Theatre; for Dennett, what we think of as a stream of consciousness is not a single, unified sequence, rather, there are ‘multiple drafts’ of reality composed by a computer like ‘virtual machine’, hard wired in some areas, programmable in others (Dennett, 1996).

In summary, one can ask ‘How does self-concept emerge from the mind-body relationship?’ Perhaps ‘not easily’ is the interim answer. The picture will undoubtedly become clearer in the light of research in other disciplines, particularly advances in understanding the biological architecture of the brain. This process of ‘triangulation’, of comparing advances and understandings across different disciplines is perhaps a positive feature of the philosophical metaphor because practitioners across individual disciplines and their associated frames of reference tend not to communicate so freely or easily as they should.

The Dialogical Metaphor

The post-modernist shift from a unitary to a pluralist view of self-concept has been decisive, and notions of plurality feature in a number of metaphors and theories about self. A pluralist perspective, however, does not imply, or contain, a uniformity of views about how a plural self is constructed, maintained or developed (Rowan and Cooper (Eds.), 1999).

In this section on metaphors bridging the internal and external world of the individual, it is appropriate to focus on dialogical models of self-concept in which ‘dialogue’ is the central driver. To illustrate the process, two examples of dialogic models are highlighted, first John Shotter and ‘dialogically structured mentalities’, then, Hubert Hermans and the ‘polyphonic, Bakhtinian self’.

John Shotter examines the work of Bakhtin and Voloshinov who proposed a dialogical conception of the multi-voiced mentality, e.g. Bakhtin proposes that
we assume a ‘relational-responsive’ kind of understanding when we interact with others. Bakhtin and Voloshinov share a central concern: “to come to a grasp of people’s unique and particular lives from within an involvement or an engagement of some kind with them in their living of them”. This concern suggests a ‘situated’ approach to identity or self, i.e. identity implicit in action rather than a claim to identity. Shotter highlights recurring themes in this literature:

- The idea of Being and its relationship to once occurring events
- Dialogical structuring and its relationship to self
- Speech genres and “forms of life”

The ‘once occurring’ event refers to the uniqueness of each interaction and in particular highlights the moment when an individual ceases to address him/her self to others and instead becomes an addressee. In a sense our being is confirmed through the acknowledgement of others through dialogue.

Speaking a language is part of a form of life (a culture) and to imagine a language is to imagine a form of life. Wittgenstein used the phrase to indicate the roots of language and of agreement in application of linguistic rules, in consensual, regular forms of behaviour. Shotter suggested that in each speech genre, different selves and different worlds are created, therefore, dialogical structuring implies that our actual or imagined ways of us responsively relating ourselves to each other forms the basis for our ways of talking, which ultimately provides us with our ways of thinking and feeling, valuing and judging. This structuring is so pervasive that, even when talking to oneself, one cannot just talk as one pleases. In other words, we do not have a total freedom of choice in what we say, our utterances are jointly produced and “In being directed toward a stabilised social audience, they have their being within a particular ‘form of life’ and to that extent have a generic form” (Shotter, 1999, in Rowan and Cooper (Eds.), 1999, p.79).

Like John Shotter, Hubert Hermans also draws on the ideas of Bakhtin to construct a pluralist, dialogical model of self-concept. The participants in the conversation can move back and forth between different positions. It is then possible to endow each position with a voice so that dialogical relations between positions can be established. The voices function like interacting characters in a story and their conversations construct a complex narratively structured self.

In a direct reference to symbolic–interactionist perspectives, Hermans suggests that the different voices, the I’s, are able to exchange information about their respective Me’s. Herman locates the ‘voices’ in time and space, and the spatial nature of the self is expressed in the terms ‘position’ and ‘positioning’, terms that are more dynamic, flexible, and personalised than the traditional term ‘role’. Rom Harré too, suggests that the traditional concept of ‘role’ is too coarse to accommodate the flow of dialogue and that ‘positioning theory’ provides a way of interpreting the presentation of individuals as ‘selves’ in social encounters.

Figure 12 below shows a ‘Positioning Theory’ model, developed by Rom Harré, involving three interlocking elements:
In the model each part can ‘drive’ or influence the other parts e.g. the speech act brings into being a ‘position’. The two together then form a part of the unfolding script. Presumably, the existence of a script (or personal narrative) can then influence what is said next in terms of the current position (Harré and Van Langenhove, 1999). It is interesting to note that this model has a good degree of correspondence with the metaphors developed in this thesis; the ‘script or story’ corresponds to the internal biographical self metaphor; the ‘position’ corresponds to the external sociological-self metaphor; whilst the ‘speech act’ corresponds to the interface dialogical self metaphor.

In summary, Hermans is suggesting that when we speak, we necessarily talk to ‘someone’ even if there is no one else present. Talking is not necessarily interacting unless we have an expectation of exchange—we address in order to be addressed. The act of exchange creates a sense of Being, which exists for that moment and context.

The model of self-concept envisaged by Shotter and Hermans has interesting consequences for how the nature of ‘time’ and ‘reality’ can be viewed or constructed. The self ‘created in the instant of exchange’ fits in with certain philosophical metaphors, e.g. the multiple drafts model of consciousness and also sociological metaphors. How does a polyphonic self, however, handle time and reality? Phillida Salmon examines personal development in terms of Living in Time; in her Introduction (Salmon, 1985) begins “how do people change as time goes on?” Her view is that change is intimately connected with time itself; “In our usual view, we represent time as having a standard significance. We see it as operating in a fixed and inevitable way – as ushering in, through chronological age, human changes that are wanted or unwanted. We view time as essentially linear – as going in one direction only. All this is, perhaps, open to question” (Salmon, 1985). Salmon seems to be suggesting that the experience of change, and feelings associated with change are connected with the way in which time is construed or experienced, therefore, the idea of a life going somewhere or going nowhere, as suggested by Lankard (1993), may well be dependent on the individual’s perceived nature of time.

Overall, the dialogical metaphor, may not hold the only or final answer to understanding self-concept, what it does do, however, is to open the way for discussions about the nature of consciousness, thought, time and reality in a natural, and yet dynamic way that some other metaphors fail to do.
Appendix 4

Key writers and ideas that contribute to the formation of the Ecological Metaphor Group

The Ecological Metaphor

Ecology is the science and discipline that explores the interactive relationship between people and their environment; its perspective is necessarily systems based, global and dynamic, and for those reasons, this group of writers and writing will be combined within the umbrella of the ecological metaphor. This metaphor addresses the question: how is self-concept regulated as a system?

The ecological metaphor contains a number of contributions from seemingly separate fields of study that are, nonetheless, connected. The key fields and contributors to the metaphor are:

- Cybernetic definitions of life stressing the role of feedback and self-regulation – the networked self: (Korzeniewski, 2001)
- Systemic definitions of life emphasising the ‘structural coupling’ between the organism (the person) and the environment - the Autopoietic self: (Maturana and Varela, 1980), (Ford, 1987), (Capra, 1996)
- Self-regulation as a key concept within learning theory: (Schunk and Zimmerman, 1994)
- The dynamic self-concept: (Markus and Wurf, 1987)
- Possible selves: (Markus and Nurius, 1986)

Two essential concepts, however, connect and hold all of these different contributions together these are self-organisation and self-regulation. Cybernetics is the discipline that most closely deals with systems and self-regulation and has been termed the study of “patterns that connect” (Capra, 1996). Norbert Wiener is considered the founding father of the discipline, (Klein, 1989, p.151), also (Vanderstraeten, 2001), and Wiener in turn influenced Gregory Bateson who developed a concept of mind based on cybernetic principles, (Bateson, 1972, 1979). The emerging discipline used the idea of a homeostat as its basic paradigm for explaining self-regulatory behaviour; however, there was a problem as to how theories of self-regulation could encompass reflexive explanations of action that involved the observer as a part of the system. The breakthrough came through the work of Humberto Maturana, who realised that if the action of the nervous system is determined by its organisation, the result is a circular dynamic he called autopoiesis or self-production. This argument leads to the conclusion that a living system operates within the boundaries of “an organization that closes in on itself and leaves the world on the outside” (Vanderstraeten, 2001, p.299). In terms of understanding self-concept, this perspective constitutes a serious attack on ‘realist epistemology’ and opens up opportunities for examining self-concept as a self-regulating, self-constructing system that is also closed in on itself. Capra (1996) elaborated on the concept of self-regulation and self-organisation and developed his notion of a ‘web of life’ supporting living things, especially human beings, through structural coupling with the environment. Structural coupling suggests that each being or person is a system that has its own boundary, and
exchanges across the boundary will involve physical, social and intellectual dimensions that are needed to support the process of daily living. As a person structurally coupled into the environment, the air I breathe, the food I eat, the information I gather, and the social relations I form, are all manifestations of the connections between the environment and myself as a living system. This is the essence of the autopoietic self.

Autopoiesis is a systems concept and people, like cars and spaceships, are systems composed of systems. The human body contains systems for circulation, respiration, digestion, neural activity, and more besides. Although culturally and biologically adaptable, the human system cannot exist for long, independently of its environment, the natural ‘equilibrium’ position is death. Other people form part of the environment and in critical periods of growth and development, such as infancy, illness and when experiencing natural disasters such as famine, drought or earthquakes, individuals must rely on the agency of others for survival. To express this idea of a continuing struggle, the term ‘process of daily living’ is used to describe all those actions and intentions designed to satisfy individual, and collective, daily needs and to ensure long term survival, (Roper, 1985). Biologically, the human system is dissipative in nature, left alone, it will literally disintegrate (Prigogine and Stengers, 1984), however, in the case of human existence, the opposite appears to be the case; psychologically, humans grow, develop and reconstruct themselves, people are not only self-organising, they are self-constructing too (Ford, 1987). In this metaphor linking together the internal, interface and external worlds of the individual the thesis examines how far self-concept can be viewed and analysed as a system, or a network of systems, structurally coupled to its environment.

Living organisms, people, and eco-systems, are all examples of unitary, organised, dynamical systems. A defining feature of dynamical systems is self-organisation, a process that enables the system to exist and maintain itself, in a stable state, away from equilibrium, for long periods of time. Eigen and Schuster (1979) have demonstrated the chemical basis of the self-sustaining systemic nature of living organisms involving the ability of the living system to sustain itself, to reproduce and ‘repair’ itself. The central feature of self-organisation is feedback and the body of knowledge known as Control Theory sets out the framework used to understand what feedback is and how it works. Control within a system is exercised open or closed loop, with positive or negative feedback and loop-gain as the key features and parameters.

Negative feedback is used to maintain a system at or close to stability; it is the strategy for convergence and stasis. In contrast, positive feedback, using high values for loop gain, is the strategy for change. Korzeniewski presents a cybernetic formulation for the definition of life with special emphasis on the role of feedback. He proposes that life (or a living individual) can be defined as ‘a network of negative feedbacks sustaining a superior positive feedback (potential of expansion)’ (Korzeniewski, 2001, p.275). The definition is of interest to this thesis because it proposes a network of negative feedback processes that will generate stability (stasis); plus, a superior positive feedback that will give the whole organism a potential for change (growth and development). In this thesis, it is proposed that for human beings, self-concept provides the necessary link (mediation) between the need for stability and change, and this fits well with Korzeniewski’s definition in that he suggests the phenomenon of life consists in
a “directed-at-itself-identity of living organisms” (p.286). In a similar way, Maturana and Varela (1980) had earlier invented the term Autopoietic Self to describe a self-sustaining, directing and learning being that was networked into the environment.

Using the science of life as a basis for his conjectures, Capra (1996) elaborated on the concept and developed his notion of a ‘web of life’ supporting living things, especially human beings, through structural coupling with the environment. Each being, person, has its own boundary and exchanges across the boundary would involve physical, social and intellectual dimensions that would support the process of daily living. This concept is embodied in the idea of internal, external and interface metaphors for self-concept as discussed above. The individual, as a system, has a boundary; and the question then becomes, for a person what counts as the boundary? Is it the physical skin envelope or is it more of an immaterial ‘sphere of influence or zone of interaction’? The more defined the boundary, the easier it is to differentiate the internal and the external world of the system. The more diffuse the boundary the more difficult it is to say exactly when the transition has occurred from the inner to the outer world of the system. This thesis suggests that the social, philosophical and dialogical self metaphors describe what is going on at the interface connecting the internal and external worlds of the individual. It seems intuitively appropriate that self-concept can be ‘created’ at the boundary through dialogical processes that are supported internally through geographic, biological, and biographical/narrative processes; and expressed or identified in the external world through the taxonomic, cultural and sociological metaphors processes.

Self-regulation and self-organisation are key concepts within the ecological metaphor and they too need further examination. Looking at dynamical systems in general – and people in particular – the term self-organisation is used in the natural sciences to describe processes that bring about structural change within a system. The term self-regulation, therefore, is generally used to describe processes that maintain systems within a given set or range of parameters e.g. as in the process of homeostasis (Eigen and Schuster, 1979). By contrast, in the social sciences, and in the fields of sociology and psychology in particular, the term self-regulation is widely used in different contexts to describe processes that drive key features of human behaviour (e.g. self-handicapping, presentation, disclosure, monitoring, denial). Self-regulation within learning activity, for example, uses self-concept to link motivation and learning theory in order to provide dynamic explanations for learners’ behaviours: “Self-regulation refers to the degree that individuals are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active participants in their own learning process” (Schunk and Zimmerman, 1994). Within psychological theory, the term ‘self-regulation’ is now used flexibly to denote processes and situations of change and stasis; e.g. the maintenance of a positive sense of self-concept can be achieved by engaging with certain tasks that are satisfying whilst avoiding other tasks and situations that are threatening to the sense of self. In educational settings and situations, therefore, self-regulation used in this way appears to ensure a core ‘stability’ that is capable of holding the system together, Markus and Wurf (1987).
Is ‘self-regulation’ a value laden term in any way? ‘Science’ does not sit in isolation from other dialogues and perspectives and scientific explanations can also be located within ideological frameworks e.g. through the use of Marxist, Feminist, or other perspectives. The dialogical nature of scientific debate can also be conducted from the opposing, and balancing, political viewpoint of ‘Left’ and ‘Right’. Maynard Smith, for example, has pointed out that a particular concept can be politically attributed differently in different contexts. For example, in developmental biology, ‘self organisation’ as a way of explaining system structure is generally regarded as ‘left wing and feminist’ in origin, whereas in economics, market mechanisms as ‘self regulating systems’ are considered more ‘right wing’ (Smith, 1988, p.44). Whether self-regulation belongs to the Left or to the Right within the ‘politics’ of learning theories is not, at the moment, regarded as an issue of importance in this research. It can be noted, however, that self sufficiency, individuality, self determination and self actualisation are personal attributes that are favoured, admired and promoted in western cultures generally, and by conservative, ‘right wing’ orientated parties and ideologies in particular. It is possible, therefore, that political or cultural dimensions may be present within certain debates concerning individualistic vs. social interpretations of phenomena, e.g. self-regulation or even self-concept, without our necessarily being aware of them. Overall, however, the conclusion to be drawn within this metaphor is that at both a ‘cellular’ level, and at the macro, or social level, behaviour appears to be governed and maintained by self-regulating systems involving different types of growth and development. By taking a global view and by bringing together the systemic properties of self concept — structure, pattern and process — also, by considering how self-concept arises and is dealt with in the literature as an internal, interface and external phenomenon, the thesis presents the idea that self-concept can be viewed in ecological terms.
## Appendix 5
### Table 6: Comparison of metaphors for intelligence and self-concept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sternberg's</th>
<th>Metaphors</th>
<th>Self-concept</th>
<th>Metaphors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geographic</td>
<td>A theory of intelligence provides a map of the mind</td>
<td>Geographic</td>
<td>Self-concept as a map of an individual's abilities and skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computational</td>
<td>Mind as a computing device</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Self-concept in terms of traits and personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological</td>
<td>Intelligence as a functioning of the brain</td>
<td>Biological</td>
<td>Self-concept as feelings and conscious awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemological</td>
<td>Intelligence based on Piaget's method of theorizing</td>
<td>Philosophical</td>
<td>Self-concept as mind, values and beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropological</td>
<td>Intelligence as a cultural invention</td>
<td>Anthropological</td>
<td>Self-concept as a cultural invention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociological</td>
<td>How socialization affects the development of intelligence</td>
<td>Sociological</td>
<td>Self-concept as performance in roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Self-concept as individual life story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Taxonomic</td>
<td>Self-concept as Identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems</td>
<td>Intelligence in terms of the interaction of multiple Systems</td>
<td>Ecology</td>
<td>Self-concept as autopoietic, self-regulating system.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 6
Interview questions Stages 1 – 4 and topics covered by the questions

Stage 1 Interviews

Q1 Thinking about yourself at this particular moment, do you have a story to tell about how and why you came to be here at the start of the course?

Q2 Thinking about yourself as a whole, what personal factors or qualities in yourself do you believe will help you complete the course successfully and/or present you with difficulties?

Q3 What kind of teacher do you want to be? Is this your ‘Ideal Teacher’? What kind of teacher would you dread becoming?

Q4 Will the teacher training course be enough, by itself, for you to become like your ideal teacher, or will you have to change or develop personally in some other way as well?

Q5 Please arrange these three images A, B, C, in terms of ‘these two are most like me, the other one is least like me’.

Q6 9-point bi-polar rating scale: please indicate the amount of change that had taken place in your life?

Q7 9-point bi-polar rating scale: please indicate the amount of change that had taken place in your sense of self?

Q8 When do think you will be able to say, with total conviction, I am a teacher?

Stage 2 Interviews

Q1 What changes have taken place in yourself since the start of the course?

Q2 How are you different/same from teachers you have worked with?

Q3 Has your experience, on the course so far, changed your idea of an ‘Ideal Teacher’?

Q4 What are the difference between ‘Current Self’ and ‘Ideal Self’ as a teacher?

Q5 What is possible for you as a teacher?

Q6 What changes have taken place in your whole life since the start of the course?
Q7  ‘Off the record’ question, other issues?

**Stage 3 Interviews**

Q1  What important changes have taken place in yourself between now and the start of the course?

Q2  Change in Self: Rating on a 9-Point Scale?

Q3  What important changes have taken place in your whole life between now and the start of the course?

Q4  Change in Life: Rating on a 9-Point Scale?

Q5  At this moment, do feel as if you are a ‘regular teacher’ now?

Q6  What has happened to your idea of the ‘Ideal Teacher’?

Q7  What has happened to the gap between your ‘Current Self’ and ‘Ideal Self’ as a teacher?

Q8  What kind of teacher would you say you are now?

Q9  Can you give one good example where the process of ‘Reflection’ actually influenced or changed how you perceived or understood some thing, some event or some idea?

**Stage 4 Interviews**

Q0  Can we begin with a brief summary of what has happened to you since your PGCE teacher training course ended in June 2003? What story is there to tell about your life between then and now?

Q1  If you think back to the last time we met when you were at the end of the PGCE course, do you think you have changed since then?
   Probe: 9-point scale: I am still the same person since becoming a teacher - I am a very different person since becoming a teacher

Q2  One of my themes in the earlier interviews focused on your ideas about the ‘Ideal Teacher’; do you still have a vision, or an image, of an ‘Ideal Teacher’?

Q3  looking ahead into the foreseeable future, what things in life are possible for you, as a person, if you wanted them?

Q4  Tell me about what kind of teacher you are?
   Probe: 9-point scale: my life has been changed hardly at all since becoming a teacher - My life has changed a great deal since becoming a teacher
Q5 Now that you are teaching for a living, do you find that you have time to reflect on your development as a teacher?

Q6 Looking back over the whole period that you have been teaching for a living, can you think of any specific event or incident that has happened to you that has made you think deeply about teaching and/or yourself as a teacher?

Supplementary question
This research is not about course evaluation but what if anything could be done to improve the PGCE for people like you?

Topics covered by the questions

Topic 1 The personal narrative – the life story up to the start of the course, and from the end of the course into employment, and future possibilities S1Q1, S4Q0, S4Q3

Topic 2 Ideas about self at the start of the course e.g. qualities, attributes, personality, ways of thinking, behaving S1Q2&5

Topic 3 Perceptions of change in self as the course progresses and then post-course S2Q1, S3Q1, S4Q1

Topic 4 Ratings on change in Self S1Q7, S3Q2

Topic 5 Ratings on change in Life S1Q6, S2Q6, S3Q3&4

Topic 6 Conception (identity) of self as a teacher, insider or outsider S1Q8, S2Q2&5, S3Q5&8, S4Q4

Topic 7 Ideas about the ‘Ideal Teacher’ S1Q3, S2Q3, S3Q6, S4Q2

Topic 8 The gap between current self and ideal self as a teacher S1Q4, S2Q4, S3Q7

Topic 9 The reflective process S3Q9, S4Q5&6

Topic 10 The PGCE Course – comments and evaluations (identity where they occur)
Q1 Thinking about yourself at this particular moment, do you have a story to tell about how and why you came to be here at the start of the course?
I've been studying art for about 7 or 8 years, at university, and when I left I did a year of painting and temping and also worked in a shop and things like that, and I found it really unsatisfying and I thought there must be something I can do that's better than this, and also because I was just painting on my own its quite a bit lonely, and not just that it also meant that I wasn't sharing what I could do with anybody else, it was just very insular, and when I worked in offices I enjoyed working with people but I just thought that I would like to combine the two, and an on my course I went to the Royal Academy and I did some teaching at the Slade, just a days teaching, and I found that a lot of the life drawing was, people found it very difficult, I just felt I wanted to address that issue in schools as well because a lot of drawing skills are being lost now because there is a focus on different things people are not learning their basic skills.
Probe and why the institute?
Because I applied really really late I applied August and it was either London or Leicester and institute was the only place all sides friendly when there amazing to think very highly of it so.
Probe was their decisions or was as a gradual process?
I think was probably a gradual thing because I do like teaching people and I find it comes quite naturally to me when I look at pupils work I want to help them, I think at art school there is a lot of negative really negative attitudes to teaching, so they say that once you leave we hope you become a really successful artist but it's okay if you fail you know it's okay you can go into teaching, and its very much like that, so really once I'd left I thought my goodness I can't be a teacher because that means that I failed so even at the back on my mind there was this feeling 'I am not a successful artist' I've had to go into teaching, because at university they do see teaching as something that you fall back on rather than something that is a definite career path.
Its very unhealthy I think.

Q2 Thinking about yourself as a whole, what personal factors or qualities in yourself do you believe will help you complete the course successfully and/or present you with difficulties?
I don't really give up, I've got quite a lot of self-motivation, just doing art you have to motivate yourself to be on your own and do an exhibition at the end of three years. I'm quite conscientious I don't like to leave things, which I think you have to be, because there are so many things you've got to complete.
Probe is there anything that will get in the way of you completing this course?
I've made quite a few friends and I think if they start to waver or to drop out it could be difficult; there was a girl opposite me in Halls that's left, she was somebody that I used to chat to and that's really really hard if somebody else gives up, you need all your friends, and it helps to have a network of people on the same course, that are all doing it in the same boat and you can talk to other people and you don't feel so strange at not being able to cope, or not thinking
that you can cope. Sometimes I'm really hard on myself I'll have a really good lesson but I will focus on what went wrong and actually a lot of work was done but I will only focus on the horrible sort of thing that happened, so I will dwell on the bad things.

Probe so being hard on yourself is that a feature of the way that you work?
I think it's more the way I interact with people so I just remember the things that went wrong when I speak to people or I will only focus on things that I said that could have been wrong, and I'll come back and I'll think Oh I shouldn't have said that, they may not remember but I do.

Probe so what is the balance between you don't like to give up but you also like to get things right what's going to win?
I think that I won't give up.

Q3 What kind of teacher do you want to be? Is this your Ideal Teacher? What kind of teacher would you dread becoming?
It's even changing now I think, as I'm am on the course, I really have looked at teachers that inspired me when I was at school and they are just one's that are very polite, treat you with respect, don't humiliate people in the class so don't act sarcastic, try and keep calm don't shout at people.

Probe is there a role model behind this or was that just a list of qualities that you like?
I think there is about three teachers that am thinking of when I say those things, teachers that inspired me to take their subjects at GCSE and A-level or teachers that got me through with things that I found difficult and ways that they did that and ways they treated people, and

Probe so teaching is about the way you treat people?
Yes I think so

Q4 Will the teacher training course be enough, by itself, for you to become like your ideal teacher, or will you have to change or develop personally in some other way as well?
I think that to project the image that I want to project, I might have to change because at the moment I find it very difficult to come across as the nice teacher that I want to be without actually being completely walked right over, I am really getting there and trying to be assertive and take control and not be negative but then I find myself saying quiet and then I think I've got focus on the positive things and positive reinforcement so to come across as very respectful and get respect am really having to work out it.

Sometimes when somebody says something to me I'll be trying to think what can I say, and sometimes I'm actually having to tell myself to keep calm, at other times I'm just having to deal with it at the time, and then I'll go away and think about it, and think well what are my reactions?

Probe so if I understand you correctly what you're saying is that it's not just the course you're going to have to change just a little bit yourself?
Possibly or just maybe not change my personality but just work out strategies of dealing with problems in the classroom.
Q5 Please arrange these three images A, B, C, in terms of ‘these two are most like me, the other one is least like me’.

Picture A is most like me yes it looks confused I've got this.... indistinct.... plans of the classroom with a teacher wondering about, but really because I arrived at the course and then I feel really muddled and then I think what file do I put that in, where do I go now and, oh that's making sense, and then I'm finding that should have gone that way but I am having to work around and around and around, also I've got too much in my brain I'm having to take a day take one step of the time.

Possibly picture C is least like me because everything is fitting together and I find that everything is a bit confusing at the moment so I'm having to juggle loads of things, so it probably locks together, but with things in my life though it happened like that, to show me that am going in the right direction, but possibly how I'm feeling it's less like that.

Probe your life is like picture C but at the moment on the course its not like that? It sounds really mad, because I just had loads of coincidences happen I think that actually everything in my life is coming together and this is the right direction so I've had all these pointers that make everything slot together but in terms of just dealing with the amount of work and the amount of things that I've got to think about, picture A is more like how I feel.

Probe so what about picture B where does that fit in?
I suppose it goes more towards A, because it just looks confusing it looks like an illustration of what we have to put in our files, which to me doesn't make sense so there are all these things that I think I have to collect but, Oh there's a dead end, and what do I do with that and this is something else and these two are a different colour and that's mentioning one thing and not another not cross-referenced with each other, that doesn't make sense to me, I can't even begin to say what this is.

Q6 9-point bi-polar rating scale – please indicate the amount of change that had taken place in their life?
Really, probably a great deal, No 7, over the summer I didn't know what to do with my life and it was just getting worse and worse which it had been for a year, and I felt really, really unmotivated, and I think of myself as somebody who's really conscientious and hard-working, but I found that I couldn't even get out of bed some days but actually it took me sometimes to 11 o'clock to get up and start painting so actually I just felt really demoralised started to hate myself I felt I was really lazy and horrible, maybe I was ill I was so lethargic, but now I get up really early, in that respect, got lots to talk about so there's kind of a lot happening and I just feel a lot more alive and in touch with people, and generally going somewhere.

Q7 9-point bi-polar rating scale – please indicate the amount of change that had taken place in their sense of self?
That's difficult isn't it, ........long pause...... no I'm just the same person but maybe I've changed, maybe just 2
Probe so what is that little change?
Slightly, slightly more organised, actually more able to think about reactions with people, particularly with children and also its changed my attitude to teenagers.
because I don't feel as scared of them as I used to, when I look at teenagers now on the street I think about, I just think about them differently I suppose, I suppose before they just seemed a big blur of slightly scary people, now I think Oh what would they be like in class, and how would I teach them, and I just look at children and think what would they be like to teach, what would they be like in the classroom?

Q8 When do you think you will be able to say, with total conviction, I am a teacher?
Maybe, pause........... I'd like to say that I get it when I finish this year, but I feel maybe realistically at the end of my NQT year,
Probe what will be happening then to make you say that?
Just because I will have less guidance and also because my brother is a teacher in a junior school he was OK although his course was really really hard, he's just finding his NQT year really really hard so I think I might get a totally different situation when I leave and now I wouldn't really know if I've learned enough to cope in the classroom.
Probe how do you feel about yourself now just at this minute about being a teacher?
Sometimes I don't know if I'm going to be able to do it, because I feel really demoralised when things go wrong, and I just think can I do this what happens if I am teaching for 12 years and I still can't do it and I can't cope or what if I never gets better?
Probe so, on that note what kind of teacher would you dread being?
One that can't get control in the classroom, one that is really weak, because I would have thought that I dread being one that's really sarcastic and horrible but I'm more dread of being one that's just completely ineffective because I think that although it's very very stressful to be in a class with a teacher that's really excessively strict, I think it's even more stressful to be in class as a child when the teacher can't get control at all, because there are some pupils that are just panicking and you can see them going sssh, and they don't know what to do and I think that children like to feel safe so maybe they feel safer with somebody who is more strict.
Q1  What changes have taken place in your self since the start of the course?
I'm not really sure I think that I try to be a bit more organised I just think about things more, when I'm doing things I think how can I save time before I do it, I'm thinking about being organised rather actually being organised really.
Maybe I'm a bit more confident.
Probe: In what way?
Well I'm pleased with my next school I was really nervous but still I know what to look out for, so I've got confidence with that actual bit of knowledge, so I know before I was just sort of just wandering in obscurity in school not knowing what I had to look out for or anything, even things like picking up on uniform now I know whereas before it was all just a big blur now it feels a bit more concrete. I don't know if I have changed really.
Probe: when and how aware were you that those changes were happening?
Only recently with coming to this school, I know I can look round and see 'Oh that's not right' and just things like that, so I think oh I must have learned something at my last school. So only recently really.
Probe: so the converse of that is that most of you has stayed the same?
It's gone up and down really until about just after Christmas I felt really quite confident and now I've got to think about looking for a job and where is my life going, and then I've sort of gone down a bit in confidence because of that because at was at the back of my mind is always 'what am I going to do?' When I started the course it is like 'I'm all right for a bit!' And now again I've got to deal with what's coming next so that is at the back of my mind.
But people around me think I've changed, they think that I look I seem more confident they think I'm a different person just seem very focused.
Probe: does that please you, puzzle you?
That's quite good really that I seem more confident; compared with some of them my confidence was really low so in actual fact the way I think about myself probably I don't think about myself as much because I'm so busy so now I am not thinking negative things which I was before.

Q2  How are you different/same from teachers you have worked with?
Well, my subject co-tutor in my first school, she was the Head of Arts and I really admired the way she taught because she was very, very respectful all the time she didn't really raise her voice very much, she was never ever rude to the pupils, even when she was telling pupils off she was never rude and the language she used was always about directing them back to their work, and thinking about their future and creating a nice environment in the classroom, so I'm hoping I'm more like that really, because I don't consider that I am rude to the pupils. I wouldn't say anything personal about them and I wouldn't use the sort of language that I have heard other teachers using because it's not the way I speak to them I wouldn't use that anyway.
Whereas, other teachers that I have worked with, and that I'm less like, well, I think that some teachers, another teacher that I have worked with, are really calm all the time and she didn't make eye contact with pupils and she would just
stand there and direct the lesson really quietly and didn't have a smile, maybe some time she would, but I saw her smile twice, so that's really not like me either, because I do like to smile a lot in the classroom. So I'm not that calm really when I am teaching, I am in a way but I'm not monotone calm.

Probe: is that because you are excited, interested?

I can't deliver things standing still; because I'm interested in what I am doing, I can't just really say; my lesson plans aren't really like that, where I give something out and then we do it. It's more interactive anyway so it means that I've got to be positive and accept pupil's contributions in a positive way so I don't feel I can do that without much expression on my face.

Probe: is there any other way that you feel the same or different to teachers that you know?

I'm still very different because I still don't know what I'm doing all the time, no, it's not as organised as that; all of the actions, all of the things, two things that children do, are, me thinking, right, what am I going to say to that? But not automatic like they are; I mean this teacher that really monotone, I thought well that's quite a boring way to deliver a lesson, but in actual fact I've seen the pupils that she taught in other lessons and they are completely wild so it works. They've got their way of teaching that works for them and I haven't necessarily yet, that's why I am different from them, because they have found a way of making this work and getting work out of children. Children still enjoy their lessons but I'm still thinking how, how can I be this teacher.

Probe: would you say you have a style or are you still looking for one?

I think I worked out how I wanted to be in my last school, but my next school they have told me they just said don't smile! So I'm stuck, I've been told twice not to smile, they haven't seen me teach yet, but they just said 'you can't smile in this school' so, that's going to be a problem (laughs). I don't know what to do? Because they just think that the children will walk all over you If you do, they don't want you to show any emotion. But I can't help it, the children look of you and smile when you walk in, so I feel what do I do now, do I small smile back?

Probe: thinking about the whole fraternity of teachers, and would you place yourself on the inside, or do you think of yourself still as an outsider?

I think an outsider; I think I do now because I am starting at the new school, I mean previously at my last school I was made to feel very welcome in just things like having my own desk, having a physical space, actually makes you feel part of it, sort of spiritually, then you feel that you belong to a certain extent. It depended really on which teachers I worked with, I still feel a bit on the outside because of the way that I just sit with the other beginning teachers and we are talking about different things from what teachers talk about and yes I just feel a bit on the outside.

Probe: do you think that will change quickly or take a while?

I think that I might take a while really because even in your NQT year you're still learning so you're still at the bottom of the pile.

Probe: so do you think of the majority of teachers, the insiders, have they stopped learning?

Oh well, I said that, yes; it just depends on the person, no I don't think so because a lot of teachers do, having BT's in the school because they want to get some involvement, in that they are learning all the time as well.
Q3  Has your experience, on the course so far, changed your idea of an Ideal Teacher?
Not really, I think that the way I saw an ideal teacher before, I can't really remember what it was, but I still think an ideal teacher treats children with respect the same respect that they expect from them they are the calm, they are not sarcastic, they are fair, so I think that is still the same really, even though I have seen other things working for other teachers I still think that is the ideal way to be. And have a sense of humour as well, and actually show some of your personality, you know you have got your separate life from the school, but still you let pupils know things, a certain amount of things about you, so that you can.... I know my S.U.T. at my previous school, which had really good pupils, and nothing really cringe worthy, just some things so that they saw her as a person. She managed to maintain a really good balance. So I don't think it's really changed much I just think I have this idea.

Q4  The difference between Current Self and Ideal Self as a teacher?
I think the gap is probably narrowing just because I have learned a lot I've tried things out in the classroom and I've tried ways of reacting with pupils which has worked and that's how I want to be so I've tried to build on that really. And I'm aware that I'm keeping at the back of my mind what an ideal teacher is and when they've said 'don't smile' I'm thinking 'well I don't really want to be like that' and also in this new school the way the teachers speak to the pupils is so awful, some of them anyway, I don't want to be like that I want to try and keep this idea at the back of my mind, but then may be that is the only way they get through the day in that school so I don't know, I don't really want to criticise a teacher who is dealing with these really challenging pupils and me going 'Oh I'd like to be smiley' you know because I just don't know anything.
Probe: what would you say about your belief in yourself as a teacher how would you describe yourself? You say you don't know anything but here you are with ideas?
I have a lot of belief in myself in my subject I teach, so that even if I think I can't do things I think well actually I do know quite a lot about art so I've got that hang onto and I know that I've done one of my first placements so I think well I managed that, and I didn't know if I could do it really, I didn't know, so in September I just looked at this year and thought, I am never going to get to Christmas, I set myself a target in getting to Christmas, and once I got to Christmas I didn't have any targets after that I didn't know if I would get there. So now I don't really have a target, may be I've got more belief in myself that I can do things that I didn't think I could do; like in September I just had I this really awful summer, I was mentally on my knees about myself and I was at home saying I can't do it and I really believed that I wouldn't be able to do it and I didn't think I would get through the first few days and then I did, and then I got to Christmas, and now I'm here, still here so my belief in myself as a teacher has increased because I now know that I can work with quite challenging pupils, some of my classes were just all over the place to begin with and the art department I had to take some pupils away into another building and teach them on my own, and the teacher said 'take them away do it on your own' so that we are not even going to be there' and then we just worked really quietly, and I couldn't believe it, because in other lessons these pupils they'd had to have
three pupils taken out, and they were all just sitting there doing what I told them; that really helped that I was able to get somewhere with these pupils.

**Q5 What is possible for you as a teacher?**
Probably anything, just because I am generally quite ambitious about things, there are the two sides to me there is one that thinks I just can't do anything, and the other bit just drops me into situations, and that bit of me that drops me into situations means that I might end up dropping me in a stressful situation or may be a quite challenging one or may be going for a post that I am not ready for.
Probe: have you always thought like that?
I don't know, just what I don't like hasn't turned up like I thought it would be and I don't really give myself any safety net so I apply for things without thinking that I had better have something there to fall back on. I don't really have another option, there are other options but I just mean in terms of applying to university and then coming here, it's that all or nothing but don't know why. I tend to think what a place would be like, what somewhere would be like, and then I put myself in that situation, thinking that's where I want to be so nothing else really matters.
Probe: do you look for that quality in your own learners?
They wouldn't be like that would they; I don't really compare myself with what they would be like or how their ways could be different from mine. I look for ways of making them think it was their idea in the first place, or they found it out for themselves, and making things seem a bit magical, trying to, I don't get that all the time but that's what I aim for.

**Q6 What changes have taken place in your whole life since the start of the course?**
I feel a bit as if I've put my life on hold actually, in terms of seeing my family. I haven't seen my sister since Christmas, and when I see my boyfriend I do work all the time, its so boring but I said, look you will just have to deal with it! But I feel a younger when I go home now, because I misbehave (laughs) I go home and I am really naughty, and just mess about, but I can't help it, my parents just don't know what's come over me. I have to be a sensible adult all the time since September and it's really hard, as I have to stand there in assembly being a role model while they talk about things and the whole school is going 'smirk' and I have to go 'hey' and so I have to have release from that.

Sometimes I feel like I've got a fragile hold over the structure of my life because I don't know where I am going to be next year and actually at some point in your life you are going to have to make a decision I find it really, really hard to make.
decisions about my life. I'm a really, really indecisive person maybe it sounds obsessive, but I'm not, I can't even make decisions about buying clothes, so when it comes to getting a job I'm just, my head is so full of where should I go, what should I do, what shall I be, and how will I cope? Mostly how will I cope? Where I'm going to end up, or how and where I'm going to live, all those things hanging over me so I do feel a bit shaky.

Probe: how do you deal with that?
I don't deal with it so I just push it aside.

Probe: that's different to teaching; you have to deal with things?
I feel very responsible for everyone; people I live with, my family and pupils and I want to make sure that everything is all right for them, I don't worry about myself I don't like making decisions for myself, I like making decisions for other people, I like looking at things and thinking how can I sort that out? Helping my family sort out things in their lives, I look at other people's problems and I think they have only got those options and those options and the best one to do is that, but I have had to do sometimes with people and family but I've learned not to ...? But I can't do that for myself because it means that I would have to deal with it if it went wrong.

Q7 ‘Off the record’ question, other issues?

Probe: When you talk about Olivia in the interview is it as if you're talking about another person or is it yourself?

No it is as if I'm talking about me, I only feel like two people when I'm thinking about making decisions about me. Then it is one person making decisions for another; there is one side of me that is very confident and I think yes I can do that, and you will be fine; and the other bit is just crumpling and can't do it, and so that's more when I think about myself as two different people but in the classroom I am me. Although I don't feel that I am perceived as, obviously the children don't know that.

Probe: how to think the children perceive you?
It depends on the age range, I like year 7 and they like me, I think they see me in more of a parental way, than the older pupils do. I think the older pupils couldn't care if I was there or not, a lot of them, It's funny, when I left, it was just like that, but for the younger ones it was 'Oh dear' it was cute. It's funny how you are perceived by them, I think higher up the school they perceive you as a teacher, but lower down you are this person that they look up to.

Probe: so if I am to follow you people through to the end of the course into a job, what advice have you got for me?
You could look at how they feel other teachers at the school perceive them, how they are perceived by their colleagues, what it's like having a colleague and being a colleague, because I found that quite weird. How fellow BT's are perceived maybe how they think ple on the course would change and the people they are working with. hat I find interesting is how as a learner how your treated at and so the more responsibility of given the more you appear and responsible person to that will I found so you could look at the way people are treated by the teachers they were weak and how that affected how they feel about themselves to that's really important as I fear my last school I was perceive differently by three different teachers I don't know how they thought of me they definitely treated me differently and they buy a obviously felt that they
thought of me differently one thought of me as being very good an organised in
the other teachers didn't give the responsibility I think she thought I was just a
people are needed looking after and she wouldn't trust me with things so I think
the amount of trust that you given an how you feel about yourself.
Q1 What important changes have taken place in your self between now and the start of the course?
I think I'm more confident now, and also I am really aware of how much I think that I can't do things, and how much I actually can do them. So I've realised that I do that, and now I've realised that every time I think I can't do something I know I can. So I can look at it and think a person can do it so I can to. So yes confidence really.
Probe: is that something that has just developed? 
I think probably at the end of my second placement, because I really didn't know if I was going to get through it, I found it quite a struggle, so once I'd achieved it, and also the little achievements that I had while I was there, working with certain groups, so finishing that I realised that I could do it, so I would myself look back over to how I felt in September and think gosh I can't believe I've done it, and finishing the course I can't believe I'm here. So, and also when we first met I just thought there is no way I'm even going, I can't imagine being here now, so it's quite amazing that I am (laughs). I just thought I can't imagine being interviewed at the end of it, I just didn't see myself being there, not that I thought I would give up, I just couldn't imagine getting it over and done with.
Probe: you being more confident, is that only evident to you, or would other people notice that in you?
Possibly other people notice it, maybe my family, maybe my tutor might have noticed it possibly as well.
Probe: these changes you have welcomed, are there any changes that you have resisted?
I can't think of anything that has changed for the worst; I think there have been times when I've tried to be too strict with classes, and it just didn't work because that's not me, but I have tried different styles of teaching, and also some classes just made me feel really angry or upset, so that was something that I tried to be aware of at the time, and I still find it difficult, pupils just either maybe get on my nerves or they will provoke you or actually hurt your feelings so that is something I'm aware happens so I just find myself focusing on that and thinking that I take it personally, yes that's something that I'm trying to think at the time just don't take it personally but I can't. But I am trying to resist that.

Q2 Change in Self, Rating on a 9-Point Scale?
Maybe five or six, but more over to changing, more six than five.
No, I was thinking no, because and he I was reading this that's changed one bit and that's changed a bit more, (confusion) no maybe more seven or eight.
Probe: has that surprised you do you think?
No, not really, I probably thought that I might change a bit; if I could get through it I thought then I will be a different person, probably completely different from what I said at the beginning.
Q3  What important changes have taken place in your whole life between now and the start of the course?
Well I know what I'm doing with my life now which I didn't at the beginning of the course, so that good, I've got more structure in my life, but obviously being at school you have total structure, whereas before I didn't have any structure to my life, or to my day, so, there is still uncertainty because as an artist I would like to do the paintings as well and I really don't know if I can keep up that, in the first couple of years. But, I've had to reflect on my relationships with people and my family as well probably over the past year, so things in that maybe have changed, so yes changed quite a lot.

Q4  Change in Life, Rating on a 9-Point Scale?
About 9.
Probe: some people have told me that they find it difficult to separate out themselves as a person and their life is that something you find you are able to do?
I think that I've probably changed in subtle ways whereas my life has changed quite dramatically, because of having a job now, having this qualification, so there's real concrete things have changed that will affect my future and I've had to make some really big decisions about where I'm going to be, as well as having a job, where will I live who arm I going to live with and all these things so those are major things, whereas me as a person, more subtle.

Q5  At this moment, do feel as if you are a ‘regular teacher’ now?
Emm, not yet I feel, not quite.
Probe: why is that?
Just because on the PGCE you have quite a lot of support and you don't have as much, as big a timetable so I'm quite worried about, I wouldn't say I was probably ready to teach until maybe November when I know I can cope, if I can (laughs).
Probe: so the difference between being a regular teacher or not is simply being in that full-time job?
Yes I think and then I will really know if I can actually cope with it, I mean I know that I feel more like teacher than a classroom assistant or something now, because I've had to do teaching in my new school and I know I can do it, but still that was just I had a lot of time to prepare for like one lesson, so that is different from doing 26.
Probe: in terms of teachers as a group, do you see yourself as an insider or as an outsider?
I feel more like an insider in my department in my new department, but in the staff room I feel like an outsider because I am with the NQT's now, so I've moved up from being a BT but I'm still with, yes, a group of scared people (laughs) on their own.

Q6  What has happened to your idea of the ‘Ideal Teacher’?
I think before that I said that my ideal teacher was like my first SET and that would be the same now, really, I've worked with someone else and I would still
prefer to be with my first SET I mean it's partly because of my second school was quite tough but I wouldn't want to teach in the way that they do in the second school, and just even having seen lots of other teachers and worked with them I still prefer the way she teaches very much based on respect and keeping really calm doesn't really shout or put anybody down and things like that, so the kind of language she uses is very calming in the classroom, and is that still useful to me yes because I try and aim for that.

Probe: so that's a model for you, but will your ideal change as the model changes?

I think maybe I have an idealised version of a teacher and she fitted with that because and also things that she did, things that she did it hadn't occurred to me that you could do that, so that built up this ideal of how you could be in the classroom.

Probe: the ideal teacher, is that something that is discussed?

No, I think we have ideas about what we've seen and what we might think is good practice or bad practice, so that probably forms round an ideal, but we haven't said what we think an ideal is, but we know, because that's why we discuss what we think is wrong.

Q7 What has happened to the gap between your 'Current Self' and 'Ideal Self' as a Teacher?

I think it's closing, because I feel as if I'm getting there, but I still think the gap is really wide because I don't know how to deal with certain situations and I don't feel confident with certain classes that I've had. I am trying to work towards it.

Probe: is the gap closing slowly or quickly for you?

I think when I teach I just don't feel I'll get there for maybe two years or something, or three years, but as soon as I have a class and it seems to work really well I think oh that's great, and then another time I think that was just a complete fluke and actually I'm not very good, but I think just my ability to think on my feet and speak to pupils is a lot better it's improved.

Q8 What kind of teacher would you say you are now?

One who tries to keep the class under control, tries to set boundaries for pupils, but who is quite friendly and approachable, I hope (laughs).

I think I come across like that because I don't think pupils are afraid to put their hand up and ask a question but at the same time they generally stay in their seats.

Probe: so this is the kind of teacher you are not what you'd like to be?

Yes, most of the time.

Okay and what else am I, negative, but I also get a wound up too easily still, because I don't know, maybe I'm still perceived as quite young by the pupils and younger than I am, so I think they think they can get away with things and I don't know how to deal with that sometimes, still a bit unconfident, but it depends on the class as well, I am quite different depending on the children I've got, so I suppose I'm maybe inconsistent.

Probe: is there are kind of teacher that you would say you are not, and you don't want to be?

I'm not over friendly with pupils and I wouldn't really want to be like that, so I'm not jokey and I'm not really sarcastic, I mean maybe I am sometimes but I
wouldn't use it a lot, so I'm not really jokey with pupils and I'm also not really excessively strict.

Probe: and you wouldn't want to be?
Well sometimes I would actually, it would make life easier but I don't really want to, I know how that made me feel when I was at school so I really wouldn't want to be someone that frightens pupils.

Q9 Can you give one good example where the process of ‘Reflection’ actually influenced or changed how you perceived or understood some thing, some event or some idea?
I had a very difficult class in my last school and most lessons I just had to come out and reflect on things that had gone wrong and talk about it with my SET, but she would reflect on things very differently from the way I had, but when I followed what she said to do things worked, for that lesson, but it was difficult to reflect on actually the whole thing about the class so when I had a structure that she could tell me to follow things would work, but then it wouldn't work long-term it was just a short-term solution, but reflecting on what I'd done wrong in the lesson helps, but then it didn't necessarily help me long-term.

Probe: do you think there have been occasions when reflection has helped you to see something differently or has resolved a problem?
I've tried to reflect on whether I change when I have different classes and that changes for why they behave differently with me. I had a year seven class who mainly worked in silence for me, but they were really enthusiastic as well and just did as they were told and everything was fine; and then I had a year 8 class who just really, really turned horrible, but then people observing me would say you look, you just stand there at the front and your face looks completely frozen, which doesn't help me feel good about myself, and yet with my year seven class I was a lot more friendly and really relaxed, so I don't know if the year 8 just scared me and that came across, and the year seven didn't so that was fine. So I did reflect on whether things about myself affect the way pupils behave.

Probe: is reflection a professional thing that is only done in the context of teaching, or is it something that has a wider role in your whole life?
I think I possibly reflect too much on things, and I do dwell on things too much, so possibly everything I say I reflect on, so that sounds like paranoia but I do, I just think why did I say that, or why did I do that, and what could be the consequences of that; but then actually this year I also think maybe you're the person who didn't perceive it like that, or why did they say that, and I think about why other people did things, so being reflective this year, because I've had to do so much of it, makes me think differently about things, and it also makes me look back on things in my life and reflect on that, things that people have said to me, yes and I've changed the way that I think about things.

Probe: one example just for the record?
I don't know I just remembered things that people said that hurt my feelings from years and years ago and I remember one thing that, I went to a talk on discipline last week and this teacher said how he had insulted a pupil and how he went away and thought I can't believe I did that, and he said that for 20 years that had bothered him that he said this to this pupil, and then I remembered something that a teacher had said to me, it was a joke at my expense for the rest of the class, and I always thought about that and how it should hurt my feelings and then I suddenly thought gosh what if he's been gone away and
thought for 20 years how could I do that cheap thing and I never thought about that, and I think I've thought about a lot of things like that.

Q10 **If you had the power to totally change one thing about yourself as a teacher, what would it be?**

The ability to not show my feelings to the class, when I want to, so to appear really calm and absolutely and unbothered by the pupils rushing about; so it's about classroom management really and how I'd deal with the class.

Probe: so it's about displaying your emotions?

Yes, because I'm not aware that I do but apparently you do,

Probe: is that something you discuss with your SET?

Yes, because to me, when I saw her teach she seemed very, very angry looking, so I didn't think that me looking like that would be a problem because I thought I looked like her, I hope this doesn't get back to her, (and laughs).

Probe: so she's not aware of what she looks like then?

No.

(Olivia asks for a recap of the question)

Yes, and also the ability just to not let it get to me, because it really gets to me, just the ability not to get upset and things, personally because I'm just I'm a real perfectionist about my teaching in fact everything that I do, so I just go away and think about things and I just think that was really awful, so I'm quite hard on myself as well about things too much, maybe I shouldn't be.

Probe: on the course do you talk about how to manage these things, when is enough good enough?

Not really I mean we've had outside speakers that may be mentioned it, one-person she was talking about it she said you've just got to do the bare minimum sometimes, which is quite difficult for me because I have to have everything perfectly prepared.

Probe: so when you're going to do 27 hours teaching?

I know exactly you can't be that perfect.

Probe: so how will you prepare yourself for that, have you started to think about it?

I've just shelved the issue, that's a problem, because that's another thing about me, I just shelve everything I don't deal with it, so I'm just going to not worry about that until it happens. Which is probably why things get really bad but I mean obviously I'm going to prepare all my resources and stuff over the summer and know what I'm doing and organise myself like that but I don't know how, I don't really know what I can do, until it happens, I can't prepare all my lessons for the entire year, so I think of just got to wait and see what happens and see what I can get away with as regards to the amount of work I do.

Probe: do know anybody else like that is very hard on themselves?

I think the girl I worked with, I was on a paired placement so she was like that, although not as bad as me, but she knew, we were both like that really, we both just worked really hard, I don't know we'd just do everything really conscientiously, so yes there were people like that on the course, definitely.

And then other people who didn't do anything, well they hardly did anything, because I lived in halls of residence and there were people there who wouldn't, we had to do our professional studies folder, and teaching practice file, and they hadn't done any lesson evaluations at all, and I had evaluated every single lesson I'd done, so you just think there is quite a sliding scale of just how much people do.
Probe: what's the thing you would never change?
The ability to have empathy with learners, because I know what it's like to feel stupid at lessons, (laughs) because I've had that in other subjects and so, and I know what it's like to be asked a question and you just don't know and you feel thick.
Q0  Can we begin with a brief summary of what has happened to you since your PGCE teacher-training course ended in June 2003? What story is there to tell about your life between then and now?

I applied for a job and I started in June at the end of June so right after my PGCE, about a week after, I was just doing lesson observations and stuff which was quite relaxed really, and then I started properly in September, and I have been therefore 1 1/2 years, it's gone quite well actually, mainly, I think I was quite stressed in the first year, my boyfriend was saying things like 'Oh a week to go to nasty Olivia again in the holidays' (laughs) I mean I didn't realise it was that bad, yes so I guess that it was more stressful than I thought I mean looking back on it, it was really hard. I think because it was just (unclear) so much emotion in the job, you know children can make you feel really bad, or really good, so one lesson can make you feel like the worst teacher in the world.

Probe: was you prepared for that emotional roller coaster?

Yes because that had already happened on the PGCE, I felt like that a lot of the time, like really up and down, I mean mainly down (laughs) and it's just a real struggle to earn respect from some classes particularly the older ones, and this year I just started teaching year 12 which I didn't do before, and I found that hard because I went in trying to treat them like adults, didn't know how to treat them and I wasn't really prepared for that at all actually and I wish I'd treated them as younger now because that's how they are and I should have just, I have to treat them now more like year 7 really.

Probe: do you feel comfortable with that, is that how you would like it to go?

With year 12? It depends on the student really, they have said in our school that it is the worst year 12 that they have had in about 20 years, so I have just got the really bad lot, a lot of them are really immature, and they don't have any manners and they don't know how to behave, so it's very difficult to, I would like it to be more adult but when they come in and go 'Oh god not that again oh that's boring' that's not how an adult would be and they're not very open-minded about many things, when I introduce a new thing they don't like it, I found that really, I found them more harder than any year this year, I kind of look forward to teaching them now, it's much better now but it was a real struggle.

Probe: what is it like working in a school, how's your life structured as a teacher?

In terms of workload? Well it was very difficult last year and I spent a lot of time, but I still do, I probably leave school later than most people but then some people arrive really early and I don't, so I spend a lot of hours after-school making things and just doing stuff in the classroom like making resources and things, but also our school has gone through a bit of a transition and they have introduced a new behaviour policy called Behaviour for Learning, yes we had a riot actually in September 2 weeks after it started, and basically they get detentions quite easily now, more easily, it's just an easier system to follow and the senior managements do the detention and we take turns to do it as well; so instead of doing a detention every day which is what I was doing last year, I go once a term so it reduces confrontation.

It's still quite strange being in the school because this computer system they use to monitor teachers more it's a bit like Big Brother now because I thought
it's okay we can get a fair idea of who is not doing their homework, who is misbehaving, and teachers will see how many aren't doing their Art homework or whatever and how many detentions. But now they are starting to come back to you about it and go 'Oh Olivia, your giving more detentions than a lot of people, and why is that, are you struggling?' and I am not! But it comes to questioning you professionally but it feels like that in a way, through these statistics. There are so many frustrating things about being in the school that you didn't see when you are on the PGCE.

Probe: your life as a full-time teacher is that how you wanted it to be or expected it to be?

Well, for the moment, really I want to do more of my own painting, and I am not getting time to do that at all, it's easier this year than it was last year I'm not spending hours and hours in the evening preparing at all, it's much easier, and I go out more and things like that, I just feel that (unclear) develop some kind of balance.

Probe: so in terms of your other interests and priorities you don't feel that you have achieved the balance you would like that still to come?

Well at the moment I feel a bit, I do go out sometimes in the evenings but then I feel a bit guilty because I don't feel I'm prepared enough, so I would like it to be that I felt really prepared felt I was doing everything I could and I was able to have a life as well.

Q1 If you think back to the last time we met when you were at the end of the PGCE course, do you think you have changed since then? Probe: 9-point scale I am still the same person since becoming a teacher – I am a very different person since becoming a teacher

I think I'm more confident.

Probe: about what?

Being a teacher (laughs) may be in general because now I've got, now I'm a person with the job, because before when I was just being an artist and doing really awful jobs I didn't really have enough status, and I feel I've got more status, it didn't seem to matter that much before but I just notice it now when I'm, it's the way people treat me, I mean outside of my friendship group, so people have changed in the way they treat me, even just going to rent a house or something, when you say an artist people are like 'Em, unemployed' even if you are earning enough, but when you say you are a secondary schoolteacher people are really impressed.

Probe: so there's a kind of an identity thing there?

Yes I suppose so, but I still tell people that I'm an artist, primarily.

Probe: so in terms of who you are, when people ask 'what do you do' what you tell them?

Artist, and I also teach, secondary school.

Probe: have you thought a lot about that or is that something that is intuitive?

I don't think I've really thought a lot about it it's just that's what I want to make sure that I'm always thinking of myself, I just want to make sure I don't forget that that's what I want to do as well, and also in a social way people treat you differently if you're an artist than if you are a teacher, so I want to make sure that people know that as well.
Probe: can you tell me what's the difference between being treated as an artist and being treated as a teacher?

I think people think it's more interesting as well if you are an artist, and people will ask me more about my work than about, I think if you work with children as well people tend to think that you are a bit more childlike as well and that you don't know about the real world, whereas if you're an artist people think, or maybe not, sometimes it depends where you are, but some people think that teachers are a bit cut-off from reality.

Probe: just for the record what kind of artist are you?

Figurative painter, so I paint narratives about incidents that happened to me, so I see quite a lot of odd things happen to me all the time like really weird situations with people like people coming up to me in the street or things just happening that I notice so I paint those things, so I'm kind of an observer.

Probe: where would you put yourself on the 9-point scale?

Maybe six so more towards being different.

Probe: so what is that difference?

Perhaps the way I interact with people might be a little bit different, in some ways I'm more assertive, but in other ways I can't help speaking to people like a child, sometimes it's really bad, like maybe especially people in my family like when I ask people to do things I expect them to do it (laughs) and then I remember where I am and then I think 'Oh dear', also I think, what ways am I different, I don't know still quite ambitious so getting more ambitious as an artist and as a teacher.

I suppose I'm having to make sure that when I go out I don't talk about teaching all the time because it's so tempting to do it, it's really difficult not to, I make a concerted effort to ask people questions about what they do because if I don't actually make myself do that it's so easy to just go on about really boring things that happened in the classroom, it's not boring for me because I really think it's fun, so it's all right when am out with teachers, but when I'm not, in a way it's difficult not to because everyone has been to school and they know things about school, so they all have an opinion about teaching as well, which makes me not being able to stop going on about it.

Q2 One of my themes in the earlier interviews focused on your ideas about the 'ideal teacher'; do you still have a vision, or an image, of an ideal teacher?

Yes I do and it's probably still my first mentor really, because sometimes I feel as if I'm forgetting why I was doing it in the first place, you know when you're working really hard and you just get really annoyed with children and things, and then I keep having to think back to how she was and how she is always fresh and has loads of new ideas, she wasn't somebody who taught the same things over and over again, if she did she brought new things to it and brought things back from holiday she was really inspiring and so I think I've not met somebody in art really that's like that. Or even in teaching, in my school, there are inspiring teachers there but for me she's still my inspiration really.

Probe: so your ideal hasn't changed because it's based on a person?

Yes.

Probe: about yourself, do you feel you're moving closer to that?

I don't know, there are days when I think I am, and days when I think I'm not, I still want to retain a sense of humour, but still managing to keep control; most of
the time I think I'm managing that, I can have a laugh and then say right I need to get on, and still get respect, then I go to a cover lesson in science and I think I've got no respect from anybody.

Probe: you mention the word control a lot, is that symptomatic of what teaching is about?

It's probably how I'm feeling today because I just had an awful cover lesson today and so I felt out of control, it wasn't too bad it's not the worst lesson I have been in, I'm kind of paranoid about it at the moment because they've mentioned at school that I give out a lot of detentions, because some people are saying don't worry you've got high standards and you don't have problems in the classroom and that's why you're giving out detentions because you don't allow them to do stuff so it's something I am thinking about at the moment, am I doing the right thing and am I having the right level of behaviour in the classroom.

Probe: and in all of this is your image of the ideal teacher of any practical help to you in the day-to-day situation?

Sometimes I do think what would she have done in that situation, and I just can't think, because it's just so natural to people, I think if a child spoke to that person like that what would they do, and then I think they wouldn't even do that in the first place, it's so hard.

Probe: what do you think your ideal teacher's recipe was, her secret that made her like that?

She had been in school a long-time so she had built up a reputation for a start, she was very pleasant and calm all the time, I don't really remember her telling people off, and when she did have to tell people off for other people she was really polite and really calm about it she was just at so good at resolving situations for other teachers but she didn't seem to get situations herself, I think she was just very respectful to other people and so that's what she got in return, and just really interested in what she was teaching so that her passion for the subject really came across.

Probe: you see yourself as an artist, is that something you feel able to do?

Sometimes, depends on what I'm doing really.

Q3 looking ahead into the foreseeable future, what things in life are possible for you, as a person, if you wanted them?

I'd like to be Head of Art; I'm trying to work towards that at the moment really, I have asked for extra things to do, that could help me for my CV, if I get promotion I would like it to be within art really, I'd like to do mentoring for a PGCE student, because I've got a lot of empathy with them. I don't know really in the classroom just trying to think of ways to motivate pupils we've had some schemes of work have gone really badly wrong since I've been there, we had a year 9 one which was awful, so I thought right I need to come up with something that will work for year 9, so in the first term it went really well and we haven't had any of the behaviour problems we had last year, I mean I did something that we tried at Dagenham, and it worked at Dagenham which was really tough and I thought it should work in my school and it did, so it means that since we started off with something that was quite easy and enjoyable we are now able to move on to more difficult things which we couldn't do last year at all we had to really go back to more simple things and it was just a nightmare, so really trying to plan for children developing and how you can make work that enjoyable for them all through the school.
I feel that's something I can work towards.
Probe: are there some things that are just not for you?
I did apply for a pastoral job in school, and I didn't get it and I was quite glad actually I just thought I don't know if I can do it, I don't really like dealing with arguments in school and people bullying and falling out with each other, it's not what I am interested in dealing with, I mean I try to resolve things in the classroom but I don't really want to do that, I am not really interested in that side of it. I probably could do it but I just don't really want to. I could do it I had a really awful form last year they're behaving a lot better this year and I managed to get this really uncontrollable crowd of really difficult pupils doing stuff I want and just getting on with them now, I feel I just really like them now.
Probe: without being negative is there anything in teaching that you feel you couldn't do no matter how hard you tried?
I don't think I would want to go above being Head of Art or anything, but then sometimes I think maybe I'd like to be on some kind of Council thing and then writing about Art, like eventually, that would be quite interesting, but not anything above that in a school, maybe outside of school but not in school I don't want to be like a Head Teacher or anything because I just wouldn't want to be away from doing art, because I enjoy the practical side of it really.

Q4 Thinking about your experience on the PGCE course, and later as a teacher, how have you changed or been transformed by those experiences? Probe: 9-point scale My life has changed hardly at all since becoming a teacher – My life has changed a great deal since becoming a teacher
Probe: word you describe yourself as someone who has been transformed?
Possibly, because my attitudes towards what I'm capable of has changed, and my attitudes towards teaching has changed
Probe: have you changed as a teacher?
Yes because my teaching style is probably different, I'm trying to get my own way of teaching so I'm not trying to copy somebody else, so I'm trying to do to teach going along with my personality where I was trying to work against it quite often before because I didn't know how I was supposed to be.
Probe: do teachers have a style in the way that painters have a style?
I think people do have a style and sometimes it works and sometimes it doesn't, I've tried being really strict, when I started people were saying don't smile and things like that, and so I was trying to teach without smiling, and I don't know I can't do that because I smile quite a lot, and so that didn't really work for me. I think it just has to work with your personality and not be at odds with it.
Probe: how does this transfer to the wider world, do you think you've been transformed outside of work in anyway?
I'm just trying to think about all aspects of my life, it's difficult to say because when I go home and see my parents I don't think I'm a lot different because then I'm back to being like a child again no matter that I'm nearly 30, and people in my community it doesn't matter that I'm a teacher I think that they still think I am playing at being a teacher, some people think that, or that's the way I perceive myself that's how I behave.
Probe: is there a peer group or artist's circles or whatever?
I think with my friends I probably sound more confident just because I've got a job to talk about as well, I'm just more equal to people whereas I think before I
was a little bit lower than everybody else I didn't have any money and all these things, and I had more free time or perceived a free time, and people could ask me to do stuff because it doesn't matter and I could choose to paint when I want to or whatever, so mainly more confident.

Probe: do you feel that you are building your life or that your life is built and its now a question of maintenance?
I feel as if I'm starting to build things now, since I've got a job I feel like my life is going somewhere now whereas before it was in a bit of, things had ground to a halt really, and I didn't really know what I was going to do and I didn't know if I could find a job where I could use things that I'm capable of doing so my people skills and my artist skills, so now I'm maybe starting on that and I just feel as if I'm starting out and I feel more settled where I'm living and I just feel a lot calmer in myself I suppose.

Although teaching is really hectic you have such a strict timetable and you know what you're doing, I mean you know what you're doing for the next several years really if you stay in school because they've got it all planned on the timetable or whatever, so you can plan your life a lot better round that, whereas before it didn't have any structure and you was just there, and I don't know it was just a bit wishy-washy. I do like to know what I'm doing and have a structure and so now I've got that which is really good.

Probe: although you say your life has direction do you know where it is going?
I don't really have a plan because a lot of people think 'Oh I want to do this and I need to make these plans to get there' and I'm not really doing that in a very methodical way, but I know sort of that I want to do that, for example, last week there was a job at another school where my friend teaches, at Harrow, for a figurative painter which is what I am, but I just thought that I'm not ready to move yet so although I haven't really got a proper plan, I still know that I don't want to move yet, so maybe if that sort of job was advertised in a couple of years then maybe I would go for it but now I know I need to establish myself at this school before I move on, I want to see my year 12 through into year 13 to see how, I want to see an exam group through really. So really I need to make a plan, but I've not really made one.

Q5 Now that you are teaching for a living, do you find that you have the time to reflect on your development as a teacher?
Not as much as I was before, no, we have the professional development we have that meeting once per term, and we have to write down targets, I'm not sure what mine are, it feels a bit like just filling in something but you are not really referring to them, so I don't really reflect in the way that I did on my PGCE of the low as much more reflective there.

Probe: why is that?
Because we had to write an evaluation after every lesson particularly at first when we were coming back here (to the Institute) once a week you are always reminded of why you are doing it, and the theory behind it and really thinking about whether what you're doing in the classroom is relevant, your really thinking about the theory, basically, and I think, well for me, I'm thinking less about that now. But I do reflect on the fact that I don't reflect on it, if you know what I mean, so sometimes I think 'were my lessons better, was I at the peak of my career when I was on the PGCE?' (Laughs)

9-point rating scale: (my life), 9.
Probe: you said that with a smile, for some people a big change like that would have been problematic, how do you feel about that?
Really good, I'm just doing loads more for other people really, so in my other jobs that I was doing like making roller blinds I would make one person really happy, but I didn't really feel fulfilled, now I do more and I do feel a make a difference to a certain extent to some people.

Q6 Looking back over the whole period that you have been teaching for a living, can you think of any specific event or incident that has happened to you that has made you think deeply about teaching and/or yourself as a teacher?
I can't really think of a specific event that has made me think about teaching, there's things that have been good or bad things but I don't know if they made me think about teaching, they've been more personal, I mean things like teaching year 12 have maybe knocked my confidence as a teacher quite a lot because they weren't really doing much work at all and I just thought am I a really bad teacher, why are they doing nothing and really unmotivated and moaning all the time, particularly as I was teaching year 12 by myself, I was left with this class on my own, so I thought am I a really boring art teacher or am I just really uninspiring and how come I can't make people who are pre-degree level, I was doing stuff that people do on foundation, how come things like that aren't motivating them?
Probe: has there been anything that has made you think deeply about yourself as an artist?
Well I was reading something about an artist who didn't really developed their work until they were, he was a teacher as well, but he didn't really develop his work until he retired, and he was saying that his creativity came through the children, so his own sort of stopped and it came out in the children's work, so I feel that happens a lot so I don't really do much of my own work but I do feel that my creativity is coming out in their work so through talking to them and developing their ideas and their drawings, and also for me always learning about new skills and new media all the time different things that I have never done before, having to read about new artists means, but I don't know what it means.
Probe: does that mean if you wanted to be a creative artist in your own right would you have to leave teaching?
I don't know I think it's the energy really that I put into it that means I don't have time to do my own work in a way I don't even know if, what my own work would be like because I don't do it, I think it would change a lot I think, because I've learned new things and also when I'm talking to children I'm learning things as well I'm thinking 'Ah I don't even do that in my own work I'm telling them to do stuff or think about things' so I think eventually when I have time to do painting it will feed back into that, so I don't think it's a negative thing because I've learned so much, it can't possibly be a bad thing.
Probe: if you were to look forward ten years from now, what would you see, just a guess?
Have my own studio, no have a flat with studio space where I can leave stuff I can't afford to have anywhere at the moment where I can leave paintings up because we're only in a one bedroom flat and there's no space, you either have a sitting-room or you have a studio, you can't have both, that's the way I see it
developing that's my ideal situation because in ten years time maybe I can do that.

Profile data
Gender: Female
Age next birthday: 30
Teaching subject: Art
Currently teaching (Spring 2005): Yes
Married/Partner/Single: Partner
Children: None

Teaches at

Postscript:
One of my main goals is to win the BT portrait award, and I must do that before I am 40, so I've got ten years and about two weeks.
Appendix 9
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<td>Geography</td>
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Appendix 10
Nodes used in coding
NODE LISTING

Nodes in Set: All Nodes
Created: 07/08/2006 - 09:04:32
Modified: 07/08/2006 - 09:04:32
Number of Nodes: 83
1. Action Orientated Reflection
2. Action Oriented Reflection at stag
3. Change in self at stage 2
4. change in self stage 4
5. Comments on the PGCE Stage 3
6. Comments on the PGCE Stage 2
7. Comments on the PGCE Stage 4
8. gap between current & ideal stage 4
9. gap between current and ideal stag 2
10. gap stage 2
11. Ideal Teacher IT Process
12. Identity as a teacher stage 2
13. Identity as a teacher stage 3
14. Identity as a teacher stage 4
15. Identity as teacher stage 1
16. Indiana IT&XT All stages
17. IT and XT Betty
18. IT key words stage 1
19. IT key words stage 2
20. IT key words stage 3
21. IT key words stage 4
22. Kay IT&XT All stages
23. Louise IT&XT All stages
24. Most like me A
25. Norman IT&XT All stages
26. Olivia IT&XT All stages
27. Patricia IT&XT All stages
28. Process Orientated Reflection
29. ratings on change in self stage 2
30. Reflective Practice Stage 3
31. Reflective Practice stage 4
32. S1 search
33. stage 1 search
34. stage 1 search 2
35. Sue IT&XT All stages
36. XT Key words stage 1
37. XT key words Stage 2
38. XT Key words Stage 4
39. (1) /Perceptions of changes in life over
40. (2) /Search Results
41. (2 1) /Search Results/All Text for Ideal Teacher Node
42. (2 1 3) /Search Results/All Text for Ideal Teacher Node/Intensional Ideal Self
43. (2 1 3 1) /Search Results/All Text for Ideal Teacher Node/Intensional Ideal Self/IT Key words
44. (2 1 3 2) /Search Results/All Text for Ideal Teacher Node/Intensional Ideal Self/Model for IT
45. (2 1 4) /Search Results/All Text for Ideal Teacher Node/Extensional Ideal Self
46. (2 2) /Search Results/Single Node Lookup
47. (2 3) /Search Results/Single Attribute Lookup
48. (3) /Anti Ideal Teacher
49. (6) /The Personal Narrative
50. (7) /Ideas about Self at the start of the
Perceptions of changes in self over
Ratings on changes in self
Ratings on changes in life
Identity of self as a teacher
Identity of self as a teacher/Claim to be a teacher stage 1
Identity of self as a teacher/Same as other teachers
Identity of self as a teacher/Different from other teachers
Identity of self as a teacher/Insider Outsider
Ideas about the Ideal Teacher
The gap between Current and Ideal
The Reflective Process
The PGCE course - comments
Self-Regulation
Interviewees
Interviewees: Annie
Interviewees: Betty
Interviewees: Charlotte
Interviewees: David
Interviewees: Edward
Interviewees: Frank
Interviewees: Georgina
Interviewees: Harriet
Interviewees: Indiana
Interviewees: Julia
Interviewees: Kay
Interviewees: Louise
Interviewees: Mary
Interviewees: Norman
Interviewees: Olivia
Interviewees: Patricia
Interviewees: Queen
Interviewees: Rose
Interviewees: Sue
Appendix 11
The pilot study - results
Appendix 11
The pilot study

6 Interviews (6 full and 1 fragment) with Beginning Teachers attending a one-year course of training

Introduction

Whilst the research for the literature review was underway, a decision was made to contact a group of beginning teachers (BTs) who were coming to the end of their course of training and to conduct preliminary interviews that would act as a basis for a pilot study for the main research. The course was a one-year full time PGCE (Secondary) and the writer had acted as a professional tutor for a group of these BTs and therefore was in a position to observe closely the course process in action and to speak directly with BTs about their experiences and their feelings and evaluations about their own personal and professional development.

Method

The target course ran over one academic year, three terms, and in order to maximise the chances of finding examples of changes in self-concept associated with the course process, the decision was made to carry out the pilot interviews in the final term, April to July 2002. The course members had completed the taught component, were completing their teaching placements, and working on their final assignment. The writer was one of a group of eight who acted as a professional tutor (supervising the professional studies aspect of the course) and an appeal was made to colleagues on the team to help find volunteers to be interviewed.

A verbatim copy of the letter used to find the sample group is shown below, it demonstrates clearly the purposive nature of the recruitment process and also that the sampling parameters have been constructed with regard to the conceptual issues to be studied rather than a concern for "representativeness", (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p29)

Dear
Can you help me to find some volunteers who would be willing to be interviewed about their experiences on the PGCE course?
I am hoping to contact about a dozen BTs in order to carry out interviews for my research into the connection between changes in self-concept and the experience of undertaking long courses of training and development.
I am registered as a research student at the Institute and I am now ready to pilot some ideas arising out of my reading and literature search.
The interviews would be between 30-45 minutes long and I would be willing to travel to their school placement or, perhaps, to interview them at the Institute if this was more convenient. The target time for interviewing is over the next two months.
I cannot use my own BTs for ethical and methodological reasons so I am looking to you for help. If there is anyone in your tutor group interested to help perhaps you could obtain a contact number or email address for me. If you could find a minute or two to make this announcement to your group today, I would be very grateful.
From the appeal, about a dozen responses were obtained and seven respondents were contacted and interviewed in May 2002 on the basis of mutual convenience and availability.

**Instruments**

The pilot study was intended to be an exploration of the experience of change within the context of an extended course of training, therefore a phenomenological approach was chosen using semi-structured interviews as the research instrument. The aim was to describe the essence of the PGCE experience in order to provide insight into how individuals made sense of their self-concept and associated life world.

The semi-structured interviews consisted of eight core questions and probes and explored various themes identified in the reading i.e:

- Life world prior to the course - Q1
- Life world in the future - Q8
- Self-evaluation of various attributes and personal qualities e.g. as a teacher, as a learner, emotionally - Q3, 4, and 5
- Fixed and variable qualities of self - Q2, 6
- Self-image - Q7

The actual questions used in the interviews are shown below in the appendix.

**Procedures and transcription**

The respondents who volunteered their names and contact details were telephoned or e-mailed and arrangements made to meet either in the writers’ office on the usual day of course attendance or at the placement school. The researcher knew none of the respondents personally or professionally.

At the meeting, the context and background to the research was explained briefly and consent obtained for the interview to proceed. The interviews were then conducted and tape-recorded and, subsequently transcribed verbatim. The transcripts are available for inspection if required; one example is attached.

**Method of Analysis**

The transcripts were examined one question at a time, across all seven respondents. The process began by noting ideas and concepts mentioned by respondents and then allocating this common, or recurring, theme a code. For example, in the context of question 1:

*What were the most important factors that influenced your decision to start this course of Teacher Training?*

Respondent 3 answered:

“Although I was enjoying the PO work, it was absolutely frantic, I was on call the whole time”

Negative attributions, made about life prior to the PGCE, were coded as ‘negative feelings’.

Miles and Huberman (1994) call these instances *descriptive codes* because they entail little interpretation and allocate “a class of phenomena to a segment of text” (p.57), they also mention interpretive and pattern coding. In the pilot
study, all three types of coding was used that is, *descriptive* as above, with some examples of *interpretive* coding e.g. ‘*push and pull factors*’ (negative feelings about work ‘pushing’ the respondent towards teaching, and positive feelings about teaching ‘pulling’ them towards the profession); and of *pattern* coding e.g. ‘*possible selves*’ where inferences are made about themes identified in the data.

The coding in the pilot study was carried out manually without recourse to software packages such as NVivo.

**Results**

**Question 1** What were the most important factors that influenced your decision to start this course of Teacher Training?

Five of the six respondents reported **negative feelings** about their life world prior to the PGCE. These negative feelings related to money, career opportunity and working conditions, typical comments indicated a lack of direction:

“I haven’t ever found anything over exciting that I wanted to do” (3)

or dissatisfaction about working lifestyle:

“Although I was enjoying the PO work, it was absolutely frantic, I was on call the whole time” (6)

In terms of **directionality** within the evolution of the life structure, there are indications of ‘*push & pull factors*’ affecting the decision making process concerning whether or not to join the PGCE course.

Push factors are negative associations associated with the current career, as above; pull factors are positive associations in the desired direction, e.g. a move towards the new career:

“I was interested in teacher training at my last year at University” (1)

“I’m really enthusiastic about music, and that’s why I wanted to do secondary school teaching” (4)

The idea of a future, **alternate possible self** emerges as a significant factor in the decision to join the PGCE course.

“I realised that I didn’t want to work in an office, I wanted to do something different, something I was really interested in,” (1)

“It sounds awful, I haven’t always wanted to be a teacher I have always thought I would be a teacher, already.” (3)

“I suppose just meeting people who’d been to university and I don’t know, something just went off, something emerged and I said ‘I think I’ll go back to night school and get a few A levels’ so, it was that really, just from there getting them A levels,” (7)
As the last respondent indicates, to achieve the alternate possible self requires a **decision** to undertake particular **developmental tasks** in order to begin the transition from one life structure to the next.

For some, the decision is easily made, but for others, it is difficult and protracted:

“*Well I think it’s been coming on for sort of 2 or 3 years but it’s talking yourself into it, because I suppose, a lot of people say to you ‘you must be mad what are you doing that for?’*” (6)

Being **motivated** to stay with the developmental tasks in order to effect the transition into a new life structure was an important issue for three of the respondents. Motivation also involved **positive feedback** from family and friends:

“*I was persuaded by my partner, to do it, he basically said look, if you don’t like it after a year, you’ve got nothing to lose, which is absolutely right.*” (5)

“*but I do feel there’s sufficient motivation within me and feedback from others that I respect that yes, I have made the right decision.*” (7)

The creation of a new ‘**identity**’ as a teacher was a specific factor for one person:

“*So I identified myself as a social worker, so a bit kind of liberal, you know, bit scruffy, not very establishment, down there at a level with kids, and then, to sort of saying no, I actually I want to identify myself with teachers, very much establishment, authority, smarten up a bit, it was a big shift, yes.*” (5)

**Discussion of Question 1**

Overall, Question 1 opened up a number of significant issues concerning the life world before the PGCE and insights into the **process of transformation** of self over a period of time from pre PGCE through to the time of interview, these included:

- Negative feelings about the pattern of the previous life structure
- Awareness of future alternate possible self
- Push & Pull factors which influenced perceptions about the direction the life path should follow
- Key decisions to undertake particular developmental tasks (life projects)
- Motivation and positive feedback to stay with the project
- Consideration of a different Role and Identity

In themselves these factors seemed to be ‘normal’ and within the range of the kinds of comments that are often or usually made by people undertaking a significant life and career shift of this kind.

**Question 2**  *To what extent would you say that you have changed over your course of training to be a teacher?*
For all respondents, the PGCE course represented a major opportunity for transformation and change. The course takes participants away from other career paths and introduces them into a new career, teaching, (one respondent, however, was already teaching but in FE), so it would be surprising if respondents reported no change in themselves.

The research introduced the idea of a life world evolving through activities (life tasks) that had a potential for developing or changing the structure. For the moment, the analysis will focus on the extent of change and examine the notion of structural changes later.

Four respondents chose ‘changed in a small way’; two chose ‘changed a great deal’.

(A) Changed a great deal
This descriptor was used in the context of two quite different course experiences. The first claim involved a short-term perspective focused on the self as a victim, a kind of ‘there and back’ journey about being and feeling very stressed, and then finding a way back to normality:

“I’ve changed a great deal but can I qualify that, I’ve changed back, I think, I’m on track to go back to being normal, as the end is in sight” (3)

The stress was immediate on joining the course:

From September onwards, up till Christmas, had a rather traumatic time and I was turning into a complete moody cow, I think, that’s a polite way of putting it.” (3)

The cause of the stress was attributed to the school for lack of support and once this was provided things returned to normality:

“But it turned out after Christmas it was partially due to the fact that my school hadn’t been providing me with aid and support that is expected so moved on and things are going more normal now, and I sort of calmed down, turned into a human being again…. teetering on normal” (3)

Lifestyle factors associated with being a Beginning Teacher also clearly played a role in creating the initial stress: full weeks, getting up early, busy at work, little money, and no time to do anything in London and there are no indicators that this particular respondent developed coping mechanisms for dealing with the temporary situation; however, there is one positive statement about future intent:

“still have to get up at half past six in the morning, what I don’t intend to do next year as I’ll live a lot nearer to my school.” (3)

Whilst this respondent claims to have changed a great deal, what kind of change is this? The person has reverted to a former emotional state after a temporary ‘disturbance’ and in terms of life structures, there appears to be more emphasis on maintaining the original life world than on building a new one.
The **second claim** involved more reflective perceptions about longer-term, probably more permanent, developmental changes associated with professional practice:

“In terms of being a teacher and meeting, you know, professional requirements and actually feeling like I am, as a teacher, I think I have changed a great deal.” (7)

This change is associated with a more technical, integrated view of teaching practice, moving away from a focus on delivery and concentrating more on learning:

“I think at the beginning, you get caught up in, you know, acquiring the knowledge, delivering the lesson” (7)

For this respondent, there is an echo of the idea of return, of ‘carrying on where I left off’, however, this is in a context of previous experience of teaching plus a personal vision or philosophy about teaching and learning. This respondent links ‘feeling comfortable’ in the class with the achievement of worthwhile learning by the students.

“I think by being more myself starting to feel more comfortable I think I’m able to across the reason why they should be interested in sociology… rather than just feeling we need to get to where you can get your qualification, you know you can get too preoccupied with that” (7)

Respondent (7) proved to be quite reflective, too, in thinking about the relationship between self-concept and teaching practice:

“That’s funny, because we were talking in the staff room the other day we were saying how we don’t get to do that, we don’t think of our ‘selves’, we do but we don’t think aloud, we don’t say ‘this is the sort of person I am’ or very rarely somebody asks you that. At the moment I think I’m struggling to find an answer really” (7)

There are a number of striking differences between these two claims to have changed a great deal; respondent (3) has always thought she would be a teacher (so perhaps becoming a teacher is no great shift in perspective?), has returned to a previous emotional equilibrium, and intends to maintain a desired lifestyle without any ‘inconveniences’ such as getting up early to go to work. Her accounts of teaching practice are virtually all self centred and non reflective in nature. On the face of it, there is little evidence that this person has changed at all.

Respondent (7), on the other hand, has now completed the Secondary PGCE having transferred from the FE sector to schools and so brings with him a great deal of teaching experience. This person however, is much more ‘student centred’ in his professional concerns, is reflecting on the purpose of education and the role of the teacher, and reports changes in his understanding of what good teaching entails, for example, constantly evaluating learning. He is attempting to engage too with reflections on self-concept and is aware of the
problems of introducing personal/biographical perspectives into classroom contexts:

"Not drawing on your personal life in an intimate way, but in terms of teaching politics and sociology talking about your experiences with, as I was saying earlier, about education and that" (7)

Interview (3) focussed almost entirely on the theme of stress as a 'there and back' journey of change, whereas interview (7) focussed on the journey through life, from confused, difficult beginnings, through to using those experiences in the classroom, as a progressive, developmental process of change.

(B) Changed in a small way

Within this category a number of distinct themes emerged:

- Need for control
- Improved personal confidence
- More reflective practice
- Developing specific skills
- Positive and negative changes in lifestyle
- Self awareness of personality traits

The respondents; accounts of change however, were often complex, ranging over a number of factors often within a single sentence.

The simplest response and the most tacit acknowledgement of limited change, however, came from respondent (6).

“I'm not a completely new person, I think I still have the same thoughts about what I want out of life, the same principles and the same views on things but perhaps my skills have changed a little bit" (6)

The claim for significant development of her skill base is very specific:

“I guess I've developed a huge amount talking to groups of people and talking to children I suppose so some of the skills mean that I've changed” (6)

This person sees no change in her general (energetic) approach to work, wherever it is:

“I feel I always threw myself into work to a huge extent, and sort of I've done that in teaching but frankly, the PGCE year I don't see how you can do anything different really” (6)

There is no attempt to generalise beyond this particular feature or to reflect more widely on the process of change:

Other issues were dealt with included: stress, personal confidence, and control:
Dealing with Stress

Two respondents specifically mentioned stress, what triggered it and how they explained it and/or coped with it; respondent (3) above, blamed external factors, whereas, respondent (4) uses coping strategies for dealing with stress:

“Friends and family really, also sort of having little goals and I don’t know, something to get through the week for, if I’m doing something nice at the weekend or something, at least I’ve got something to look forward to.” (4)

Personal Confidence

Confidence was mentioned as improving in classroom contexts, dealing with classroom dialogue and with performance of the role, and also in more generalised settings and situations, and in feelings of positive self-esteem. This confidence can be interpreted as involving a greater self-awareness, an ability to feel the difference in how the self is performing in public.

“I think the experience of continuing to learn and to be put in situations that you have never been in before, made me change, or made me re-evaluate parts of my personality like how I cope in different situations”

Probe: What characterises that different way of dealing with people?
“you have got to know what you are talking about” (1)
“I feel that I’m sort of on my way to become professional so to speak” (4)
“more myself I suppose, feeling more comfortable” (7)

Allied to the changes in coping skills and developing confidence is the generalised notion of Control. Control can be a procedural thing like being prepared for eventualities:

“you cant just go in there and think that you can ‘wing it’ not that I would do that, I’d like to be prepared but also you need to have all that back up before you start.” (1)

Respondent (5) however, linked the idea of control to personality and ways of doing things. This person, too, invoked the idea of a return to a previous state of mind or approach to life as a consequence of training to be a teacher:

“That’s it, so being more authoritarian, I think it was always there, but it’s a part of me that I suppressed before, bit sort of didactic directive part, and I think I know its come out a lot, when I started in placement” (5)

In actually expressing the thought, respondent (5) started to question herself whether or not this aspect was in fact a change in her life or not.

“I think I used to be more like that when I was younger, needing to be in control of everything and I think I’d relaxed a bit in my twenties and now being back in teaching has made me more uptight again in that sense more controlling” (5)
Probe: So, you have come back to something that you...?
“Suppressed” (5)
It is interesting to see how ideas like these develop through a **dialogical process** and how a respondent actively constructs a 'view', in the interview process, whilst answering a question. Respondent (5) begins by saying 'no change' and then goes on to say that her life has changed but that she hasn’t changed:

**Probe:** Anything else that you feel that you’ve changed?

No, I don’t think so.... I read more newspapers, surf the internet more, have no social life anymore, but, you know, those kind of things, I suppose the lack of social life thing is quite important because it has had an impact you know on my life in general.” (5)

The **experiential** nature of change is evident in this response to a probe about awareness of change:

**Probe:** At what point did you become aware that you were changing?

“first 5 weeks, you learn so much, but its not until you go into the school and try and put the things you learn into practice then you realised what you have taken on” (1)

This answer underlines the need for a period of time to elapse before the individual can begin to appreciate exactly what changes have occurred, and/or for the impact of the school experience to take effect.

**Discussion of Question 2**

Question 2 has begun the process of exploring change as transition, and the influence of push & pull factors on the idea of ‘possible selves’ and life structure is quite clear.

There is a query concerning how useful question 2 is in creating a ‘quantum’ or dimension for change in view of the different ways respondents treat concepts such as ‘changed in a small way’ or ‘changed a great deal’. This question will need to be reviewed perhaps by introducing a rating scale and then probing the position taken.

It is possible to see transition as a process of circularity, the ‘there and back’ kind of life journey, or as an incremental move to a new or different state of awareness and understanding.

Stress is something to be dealt with by coping mechanisms or by changing lifestyle.

In at least one case, it is possible to interpret change as referring to the life structure alone whilst the person claims to have stayed the same. Personal change can also be ‘targeted’ to a particular ‘structural’ dimension e.g. change limited to the development of a skill set. The Dialogical or **Process** features of the interview are evident in the interview in the way the respondent’s ‘construct’ a self-concept as they speak; this could be interpreted as the respondent shifting from one ‘dramatic context’ to another in order to comment on their actions (O’Toole, 1992, p.52).
**Question 3** Respondents were asked to locate themselves on a 9-point dimension ranging from: 1 = Beginning Teacher to 9 = Expert Teacher. The responses, justifications for choosing a particular rating, are shown below in Figure 13

**Figure 13** Rating scale for 'beginning – expert' teacher

![Rating Scale](image)

Well if you look at those blocks as years, it'd take 9 years to be an expert teacher...think I'm pretty much down at the bottom. **Probe:** Is the scale not years? Skill...skills, knowledge, yes, still pretty much down at the bottom; oh maybe kind of edging into the second box but only on skill rather than knowledge. (5)

Well I mean, surely I am a BT so I should be at the bottom, should I not? **Probe:** Why there? I feel that I'm better than I was at the very beginning because obviously I'd never taught before, it was something completely new to me, and now I've been doing it for a few months...but I've got a lot progress to do. An expert teacher, you think of an expert teacher as someone who has been in the profession for quite a while as well. (4)

Still pretty early on, so what's the definition of an expert teacher? (no help given) about 2 or 3, here, no way, I think this is what I would consider a seasoned person (points to 9). I have been teaching 5 years or so that's not even a long time, maybe here, (confirms 2) I think I have got some knowledge but I have got a long way to go. (1)

I'd put myself...it's a bit of a cop out...I probably go...this is a strange thing to say, its comfortable with what I feel the stage I'm at, but I know others would say I'm probably further, so, me I'd probably say I'm somewhere on between 4 and 5 boxes along, yes. (7)

Well I haven't just taught a lesson so that would very much colour the judgement if I had just taught a lesson, I think probably, I don't know, probably just less than halfway, point 4 or something, maybe. (6)

**Point 3** I'll be self righteous, yes, you'll think that I'm great...cocky. I suppose...it says BT as well, we are titled BT in a sense that makes me a beginning teacher but just in terms of how much I had to develop in learning in such a short space of time I think I've adapted to it very well and have had to do things that...I mean people who trained 3 or 4 years on a teaching course they'd probably put themselves about there I reckon by the time they'd finished having 3 years of training, we've had it all condensed yet to an extent it should be the same. (3)

This question invites the respondents to **claim an identity** in the sense of placing themselves closer to one of two groups of teachers, 'beginners' or 'experts'. There does seem to be a difference in the way that the initial answers are constructed, and the difference can be explored in terms of where the individual looks for 'evidence' to support the claim.

Three respondents, (1), (4), (5), put themselves in box 1-2 on the basis of limited 'skill' and 'knowledge':

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“Well if you look at those blocks as years, it’d take 9 years to be an expert teacher” (5)
They are making direct reference to the structural aspects of the ‘inner world of self’ as their reference point.
Respondents (6) and (7) rate themselves higher at 4-5. They refer to their own judgement as a guide;

“its comfortable with what I feel the stage I’m at” (7)

These two are older, have worked in demanding roles previously, as a teacher and in a busy Press Office, and seem to be thinking in a wider more external context of values, culture and role performance.

Respondent (3) takes an intermediate position; whilst acknowledging that time is a critical factor, (3) uses the argument that the PGCE experience has been concentrated and condensed so that perhaps 3 years equivalent work has been covered in less than a year so far on the course:

“I mean people who trained 3 or 4 years on a teaching course they’d probably put themselves about there” (3)

The preface to this respondents claim, “you’ll think I’m...cocky”, suggests that she is aware that this is a statement of personal values and beliefs that could be considered presumptuous or not credible.

In attempting to justify their choice of self-rating, respondents were very aware of this time factor:

Probes: Why there? (box 2)
“I think knowledge, experience, age, those factors as why I put myself nearer the BT end everything I have done so far, its been so quick, its been put into such a small short space of time I feel like I have learned so much that its still only the start.” (1)

“I’ve got a lot progress to do. An expert teacher, you think of an expert teacher as someone who has been in the profession for quite a while” (4)

Probes: What would push you further up the line? (from box 3)
“Having teaching as a permanent fixture and being a form teacher being part of a school system that’s actually my job rather than somewhere fitted in.” (3)

Probes: What would it take to shift you along that line? (from box 1-2)
“Experience…and a lot of reading” (5)

In the case of respondents (6) and (7), there was the same recognition that the passage of time would improve their skills, but there is also a deeper awareness that time per se is not enough, a pro-active approach to learning, a reflective, critical frame of mind, taking personal responsibility, and supportive colleagues are also essential for professional development:

Probes: What moves people like you up the scale, is it just the passage of time, or what is it?
“Partly the passage of time and the amount you taught but I think it’s also alongside that, people constantly questioning you asking you why you done things ……so perhaps you get a little stalled on that continuum if you haven’t still got supportive colleagues or whatever, talking to you about how you could improve.” (6)

Probe: what do you need to get well up on the scale?
“I’ve got to be, virtually on a full time table. So be like a proper teacher, you’ve got to take more responsibility for your teaching, … I don’t think you ever have enough of that, missing the big picture, I certainly feel at the moment you are almost going from lesson to lesson, or day to day, week to week and you realise that’s not ideal” (7)

Discussion of Question 3

This question examines how the respondents make a claim to an identity – ’beginner’ or ‘expert’ teacher. Some respondents construct the claim on the basis of the situation or context; others appeal to their own judgement. In the case of time teaching, limited time equates to novice status, or in one case, the learning experience has been ‘concentrated’ so limited time doesn’t matter. Skill versus knowledge emerges as an issue; the view amongst these BT’s is that skill develops quickly whereas knowledge needs time to establish. Time alone, however, is not always enough/sufficient for knowledge development; critical reflection is seen as important too.

Another key point is that becoming established, as a full time teacher, will bring all the knowledge and experience of constant practice, but again, the pressures of everyday living, will also limit the possibilities for improvement because there is a tendency for colleagues to stop offering feedback and advice and even engaging in ‘philosophical’ discussions concerning what teaching is meant to be all about.

Continuous and constructive feedback from colleagues is needed to aid continuous development.

In terms of a transformation model, the PGCE course is structure changing. Once the BT is into the new life structure, post PGCE, the experience of teaching built up over a number of years, is the developmental task that is structure building. Teaching skills can be acquired quickly in an intensive PGCE course; deep and detailed knowledge of ‘teaching’ as a profession, however, can only be built up over a number of years.

Question 4 Do you feel that you have learned anything new about yourself as a learner on this course?

All six respondents chose YES in answer to the question though one (3) had to think very hard about it. It appears that the question acted as a way of prompting self-reflection on learning and learning styles in terms of what these people had noticed about themselves, or had been reminded of what they, perhaps, already knew, but had not thought about for a long time (if ever).
“I also have been reminded about things about myself as a learner, about, I will put in the effort if I’m really interested in something and if I’m not then I’ll do absolutely bugger all” (5)

In that respect, there is a degree of uncertainty about how to distinguish between ‘new’ knowledge and confirmation or rediscovery of existing knowledge and therefore how this actual question ‘works’ and how to treat the responses.

Reflections about self-learning differed in terms of focus; some comments were akin to a ‘course evaluation’, some began a ‘reflective’ chain of thinking about learning in schools and students, whilst others concentrated on the internal world of the self. Often comments were a mixture of all three.

**Learning Style and the PGCE Course**

The course, for one person, was not serving their perceived learning needs:

**Prompt:** what about your approach to learning?

“Not as keen as I used to be ....I mean this has given me direction but it hasn’t given me self-satisfaction.”

**Prompt:** could you have seen this before you started?

“I don’t think so....the things I want to learn I’ve had to find out for myself. Whereas the things they want me to learn are very different to those.” (3)

For others, the course took an unexpected, but valuable direction, observational skills were developed and an ability to discriminate:

“now I’m looking much more, I know much more what I’m looking for”

**Probe:** So you’re more of a skilled observer?

“Yes.” (5)

Also the value of **organisation** became very apparent, and useful;

“I have learned that I have to be organised, and I actually enjoy that, whereas previously I thought of that as more of a burden or a chore but going into a school, going into a classroom, I think as I said before if you are not prepared, then that is still a stressful scenario so, I have learned that about myself, through feedback, is something I have obviously improved on” (1)

The course itself provides a more **student centred rationale** for learning:

**Probe:** How do you feel that learning on this course is different from learning for a degree?

“Because you are sort of learning to help other people learn, its different” (4)

Learning how to cope with the ‘emotional’ aspects of **critical feedback** and converting ideas into action was clearly stated:

“I probably learnt a little bit about how I respond to criticism and how to make the best of it” (6)
Others, have been struggling with a shift towards more ‘theoretical’ learning:

“I find it difficult to look at things from an academic theoretical point of view because I’ve always been more involved in... Analysis, review, that sort of end of the scale. .. it’s very theoretical and it doesn’t come to me that easily”

Prompt: did you know this about yourself before?
“No, because I’ve never had to encounter it I didn’t realise actually how much the course would go this way”

The ‘taken for granted’ aspect of learning was mentioned specifically:

“It’s such a strange thing to say, bearing in mind I’ve done various courses on and off for about the last 10 years, I don’t think I’ve ever really thought about it that much, just ‘Oh, this is how’ you know, I’ve never stopped to think to actually think about how I learn, yes, you just do it. It’s changed a lot, we talk about different learning styles and we aspire to recognise it but I’m not sure how much its changed” (7)

As mentioned earlier, (7) proved to be highly reflective about the process of change and his own reflective awareness of what was happening to him on the course.

Respondents made comments about their own skills and abilities i.e. self-knowledge about speed and work rate:

“I think that I’m able to pick up things more quickly than I thought I’d be able to, so I don’t know, maybe I’ve just sort of got the hang of things.”

Probe: Can you explain?
“I was having a few problems with classroom management in my last school, and, I’ve come here and I really feel like I’ve progressed quickly, not that it’s great or anything, but it’s not as hard as it was, and I wasn’t expecting that, I was expecting to struggle the way, and so I feel that I’ve picked up strategies quickly, I guess also as a learner, I feel that I’m able to do huge amounts of work in the space of a week or whatever.” (4)

“I’ve learned that comparatively to a lot of people that I work alongside, I do a lot more work, which I gather I’m a lot more thorough,” (3)

Specific mention of Learning Styles was made a number of times however, these discussions of Learning Style were usually couched in very personal and practical terms rather than using ‘text book’ terminology:

“Yes, yes because I’ve learned about learning styles I think, so you start to think about how you learn it yourself and I’ve realised I’m quite a visual learner, I like to see it, and that’s how I remember things is how they look”

Probe: What made you aware that you were a visual kind of learner?
“I think it was my week in primary school, and I, one of the teachers was doing about Henry 8th and his wives and had pictures of all of them as he was telling the story, I had pictures and I remembered pictures and that helped me remember the order” (5)
“I’ve learned I need to think more about the ways in which people learn the way in which I learn” (7)

“I am quite impatient I sometimes just want to digest all the information then afterwards I think ‘What have I got out of that?’ so I think I have learned to slow down” (1)

Discussion of Question 4

Overall, perhaps surprisingly given the nature of the course, the comments about learning style were mostly non-technical, couched in anecdotal and narrative form and were largely descriptive rather than analytical.

Whether the question was actually probing new learning or simply triggered pre-existing ideas about self-concept is not altogether clear from this sample.

It appeared that respondents ‘noticed’ or were ‘reminded’ about personal qualities that, perhaps, they were already aware of, but had not had an opportunity to reflect on.

The ‘taken for granted’ understanding of learning was mentioned once, other respondents comments strayed into course and curriculum evaluation rather than staying focused on personal learning.

The role of this type of question needs to be evaluated, perhaps ‘learning style’ as a question is too specific and could be dropped and introduced as a probe if needed.

Question 5 Thinking now about yourself and the whole course of teacher training, tell me about the ‘highest point’ and the ‘lowest point’ – when did they happen and why?

Situations generating high and low points were associated with:

- Good/poor group support from colleagues and fellow PGCE students
- Good/poor feedback from course tutors e.g. high or low marks, or good/bad comments
- Good/poor experience with a class e.g. teaching a good/poor lesson
- Meeting, or failing to meet personal expectations about performance
- Being treated and respected as a normal teacher
- Making a breakthrough with a difficult student
- Exceeding personal expectations about a difficult class
- Taking over a class from a good teacher can be challenging but can also be dispiriting

Discussion of Question 5

Whilst this question reveals interesting and illustrative aspects of BTs emotions about performance, it elicits descriptive rather than dynamic issues. The role of this question in the main study needs revisiting.
**Question 6**  
*Thinking about your own sense of self, what particular aspect(s) of you do you see as fixed and unlikely ever to change?*

The question generated a lot of interest, it appeared to be unexpected and challenging for at least 3 people, two answered only after a very long pause for thought, and one asked, “Can I think about that?” (4).

Three people suggested that there was a degree of **permanence** about self-structure:

‘I don’t think that will ever change my approach to the way that I deal with people” (2)

“I guess fundamentally your personality doesn’t really change, I think I think you can build your confidence and things like that but deep down you don’t” (4)

“Oh yes, I think I’m quite intense and controlling and I don’t think that’s ever going to change. Because I’ve tried to relax and I’ve tried to let go and its not going to happen”(5)

Notice that the question asks about ‘sense of self’ whereas these three respondents talked specifically about issues that would normally be referred to as ‘personality’. This could be how these respondents interpret ‘self’.

There was an interesting ‘contradiction’ about the possibility for change in the responses of (7) and (6):

“I don’t know if I’ll ever feel totally at ease,...that element of feeling not quite comfortable needs to be reduced, so that’s the thing, my concern is it is fixed, but I’m hoping its not.”(7)

The last phrase from (7) is interesting, he says “My concern is that it is fixed, but **I’m hoping its not**” suggests he is looking for change but is concerned about ‘permanency’; others expressed similar fears but in the opposite direction, hoping features are fixed but fearful they might change.

“I hope I’ve got some principles that I’m not going to change, ideas about the way the world should be and what sort of part I might be able to play in that, or not. ....I feel I’ve got, you know high standards for myself, and try and set my self high standards for work, hopefully that won't change.” (6)

Respondent (6) is ‘hoping’ that some features of her life are fixed and these are connected with values, principles and relationships rather than internal structural issues. This person also expressly mentions the **interconnectedness** of different aspects of her life inside and outside school.

The uncertainty theme is continued with respondent (1), the self is fixed unless affected by ‘trauma’ or dramatic events.

“As you get older, you kind of think, alright, I still feel like I am 17, 18, but at the same time you think. I have been through all this,” (asks for clarification)

**Probe:**  Is this something you have ever thought about, or been asked before?
I suppose I have spoken about it, but not really sat down and thought, right, how have I. . . . . , I like to think that something that has not changed is openness to people, being a positive cheerful being. I suppose these things could change if I had a really awful experience or something happened to you” (1)

The idea that change happens but ‘unconsciously’ is introduced, also the suggestion that change is paradoxical, it happens and it hasn’t happened:

“ I still feel like I am 17, 18, but at the same time you think. I have been through all this”

Respondent (3) took a different approach to the others, introducing the idea of a (constant) 'strategy' for dealing with life:

“I like being silly, I think that alleviates the pain of everyday life you have to be able to laugh at yourself at everyone, with everyone and at yourself” (3)

Question 6 also explored the respondents’ attitudes towards change:

**Probe:** Is change something that you welcome into your life or try to shut out? Only one person said an outright ‘No’; for this person, change has to be ‘sold’ to her.

“No, I don’t deal well with change, . . . if there’s a change of plan . . . I can’t deal with that at all, I get quite edgy, but if you suggest the plan gently, the change of plan, and gave me time to get used to it, then I’ll probably go Oh that’s a really good idea” (5)

One respondent explained that she worries about change, but is then self-aware about her ability to deal with the actuality when it happens:

“I think I’m the sort of person who gets worried about change but as it happens I settle in very quickly.” (4)

There was a distinction made between change and progression:

“I don’t always see it as a change, me just continuing through, a progression more than a change” (2)

The actual form of the change is also important in deciding how to deal with it, this respondent is ambiguous about enjoying change and letting things go on ‘as they are’:

“I wouldn’t try and shut change out, certainly depends on the form of the change” (1)

So for example:

“but then saying that, to do the PGCE I did have to give up a job and give up having a nice wage and things like that, but, so in some respects we have welcomed it, but in other senses I just think, not fate, but just roll along and (laughs) do you know what I mean?” (1)
This suggests both an internal and external causation for change, trying new things versus 'fate'.

No one specifically mentioned the word 'control', however, the inference from all six respondents is that change is Ok if it's in line with their own perceptions about the direction they want their lives to go.

**Discussion of Question 6**

This was a probing question and should be kept for future use. There were several themes emerging, principally:

- in deciding whether aspects of self are fixed or fluid
- Certainty that some degree of core permanence existed
- Interconnected aspect of self
- The paradox of change and no change 'I still feel like I did when I was X years old'
- Respondents talking about 'self' in terms of 'personality'
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Only one person did not welcome change into their life however, several referred to the radical shift in personal circumstances associated with training to be a teacher. One respondent referred to distinctions between change and development.

**Question 7** Respondents were given three cards with a picture on each one and asked: *Take a look at these 3 pictures; can you say which two are “most like me”, and which one is “least like me”*?
Discussion of Question 7

The respondents were asked to sort the cards into two sets, 'most like me' and 'least like me' utilising the triadic procedure adopted by (Kelly, 1955). The method appeared to be successful in exposing very quickly the respondents underlying structure of self-concept in that it is possible to see what attributes they perceived in their own sense of self and in others; the procedure also identified what cognitive and processual qualities they found useful or limiting.
Features of the pictures were seen in anthropomorphic terms, i.e. as describing pictorially the characteristics of people; picture C, the jig saw was representative of someone who:

"If that was a person, I would think of them as balanced and really together" (7), or

"the reason I didn’t choose that one (picture C) is because everything all fits together and they are all the same size and that’s not me because I have priorities" (4)

"these (A&C) have got curves and I see myself as a curvy person rather than an angular person" (5)

The pictures are clearly being used as **metaphors for self-concept** and within the vocabulary of the respondents it is possible to detect elements of a systems way of thinking. For example, picture B suggests **structure**, “bits of my life” (4), also a “list” and a logical sequence, (though B was rejected by interviewee (6) who thought it looked like “a family tree...a group” and couldn’t see the relevance to her own self-concept “irrelevant”). B also suggested a hierarchy within a life structure “sort of decreasing in importance as you go down, I don’t know whether that would be me or not (points to red square)” (4)

The process exposed evaluative reactions, for example the hierarchical nature of B proved problematic to one person “I loath hierarchy, I’ve always had a problem with hierarchy” (2) and this person chose A instead to represent her self-concept: “measures up to my thought pattern, I tend to go round in circles quite a lot...it’s a lot of fun and quite beneficial as well” (2).

Picture A could be like "achieving a goal" (4) or “it’s a mess its all over the place” (3). It seemed to suggest **process** to a number of people, ways of thinking, direction in life, circularity, starting and finishing points. Picture C suggested **pattern** in terms of wholeness, parts fitting together, solidity “I have different moods and different ways of interacting with people, different ways of thinking or feeling I think that’s interaction, it slots together to make me, I wouldn’t be just one colour, I’d be many” (2)

The pictures and the question could be used as a ‘primer’ in order to open up lines of enquiry through probes and follow up questions. The question gets very quickly to issues concerning respondents’ **values** and **value base**, however, this is not necessarily something that is easy or has been done for a long time:

“No I don’t suppose I’ve thought about it for a long time, I’m sure it was something we were encouraged to do at school, where you plan to where you are going to go and what you your going to be, I don’t like to look too long term” (3)

Overall, this ‘sorting’ procedure proved to be an exciting and stimulating exercise for the respondents and should definitely be kept as an element in the main study questionnaire.
Question 8 How do you see yourself 5 years from now? Where will you be and what will you be?

The responses varied quite widely in terms of how specific were the plans for the future and whether or not teaching was going to be the focus of the life task. The notion of possible selves figures strongly in the personal scenarios sketched out, however, some accounts were more 'open' about how and when key decisions were going to be made. There appeared to be a 'gradient' of intention to stay in teaching running from 'strong' to 'tentative', and focus ranging from strongly centred to diffuse.

(A) Strong intentions about teaching including a future “decision point”

“*I like to probably teach for 2 years and then go abroad and teach for 2 years that’s 4 years, and then I would probably either decide to stay where I was and be abroad, or come back, its kind of like deciding if and when I want to have a career really*”(1)

“I think that I will still be teaching, at the moment I’m chucking around an idea in my head as to whether, I think the area I’d like to teach in is probably going to stay in the 6th form area, but I’d like to take time out to do research of my own, and then go back into 6th form teaching again” (2)

(B) Intentions to be a teacher with some uncertainty about how events will start to unfold:

“In 5 years time I may still be in that job and teaching geography, .....I feel, some children might be there at some stage, I don’t know whether it will be in the next 5 years,” (6)

“Yes career would be important yes and children and, and doing well at work, would have to be there, yes doing both. Yes, I think so, teaching in 5 years” (5)

“Be a teacher, established teacher... as I said earlier, I jumped around a lot, so I think just establishing myself that’s my key” (7)

(C) Tentative views about the development of a teaching career:

“It depends on how the career goes in teaching, I don’t know how that’s going to go yet at all, I cant even begin to think how it will affect my life to be doing that as my lot” (3)

(D) Alternative Focus

“What would I like to be? I don’t know, I guess I’m sort of boring and traditional like I really want to have my own kids, my own family, and be settled, career is important to me but its not, its not the ultimate thing, I know that some people would put career above their family, but I wouldn’t, and I’d be quite prepared also to give up work and partly to bring up children, I don’t mind that sort of thing because I feel that its important.” (4)
(E) Reflecting on the decision to be a teacher

Respondents also needed to know that the decision to be a teacher was a good one to make and that there will be a ‘pay off’ for them, in terms of lifestyle, money, location, as a result:

“for me personally that’s what’s important, feeling that I’ve made the right decisions and making it work” (7)

“I suppose just, you know, reaping the rewards of taking this risk, taking this unpaid year and you know, going towards change.” (6)

“so hopefully I’d have enough money by then to be able to, live in my ideal situation” (2)

“although for me it was always something to fall back on, or do it now but I don’t need to use it for the future, I think I definitely will, it’s the right thing for me.” (1)

(F) Personal Goals

Once the course is completed, a number of opportunities (possible selves) become available:

“I have got personal goals for myself like areas where I’m lacking, speaking French” (2)

“I’ll be trained and then be working wherever, and then obviously secondary things like getting a home, or getting something, because I don’t have my own house or anything, but then at the centre of that is relationships with other people isn’t it, so they come first” (1)

“I like to see myself as independent and things like that, self sufficient, all that.” (4)

(G) Change and development

One respondent expressed some detailed views about the nature of change and her perceptions of how change affects her life; she preferred to talk about progression, whereas change is something ‘extreme’:

“I look for progression rather than change, I suppose progression is change, but developmental, moving forwards rather than moving up and down and all about, I see change as an objective.

Prompt: change is what?

Change is,... Can be extreme, can go from one end of the scale to another, can be a complete change of career, change of life, change of country, address, the lot.... I see the word change as quite severe, I mean, you can make a small change, but I’d go for something like, developmental, progression...

Prompt: what’s a gentle word for change?

Adaptation, adapting, I’ll say that’s changing with the situation isn’t it” (3)
Discussion of Question 8

Question 8 produced a wide range of responses concerning where the respondents thought they would be in 5 years time. The question was essentially about ‘possible selves’ and the degree to which individuals would be planning to carry out developmental tasks related to building or changing their life world.

The main focus of the responses was on teaching, family and relationships, and there appeared to be a ‘gradient’ of intention to stay in teaching running from ‘strong’ to ‘tentative’, and focus ranging from strongly centred to diffuse. There did appear to be a desire to reap the benefits from the decision to go into teaching, those being monetary or in terms of job satisfaction and lifestyle, but even so, a number of the BT’s were keeping open the option to switch to other career paths. So even whilst completing the course of teacher training, the respondents were thinking about future ‘possible selves’ and evaluating the alternatives available.

The wide scope of the answers suggests that the question could be more focussed, possibly looking at the concept of ‘ideal teacher’ and exploring whether or not BT’s would be using this as a criteria for planning or judging their actions. The question was probably too ‘speculative’ and open-ended and needs changing to make it capable of exploring how the life trajectory will be influenced through specific actions designed to bring about a desired possible self.

Findings from the Pilot Study

The respondents in this pilot study have all ‘chosen’ a life path involving significant change, undertaking a long course of study to train as a teacher. To that extent they are willing participants in a planned process that Lankard (1993) characterises as perhaps more problematic and coercive than is often recognised.

Whilst all of the respondents have been touched by the course, a ‘significant event’ in their lives, there is little suggestion that these respondents are ‘lost’ or that they ‘find’ they must move from one life structure to another. On the contrary, the transition process has been entered into for specific reasons and purposes. Future plans are mapped out with varying degrees of ‘precision’, however, all of the interviewees had ideas about how their life path might unfold.

Respondents appear able to move in and out of different contexts to construct answers, e.g. asking the interviewer for clarification on how to answer questions, asking for feedback if the answer was on the right lines, adopting narrative or ‘story’ structures to illustrate answers, reflecting and changing direction during the answer in a dialogical way.

Questions reminiscent of job interviews (e.g. why did you join the course, where will you be in 5 years time?) provoked ‘predictable’ responses; in contrast, the Kellyian nature of Question 7 appeared much more challenging and fruitful in terms of making respondents think hard about themselves.
It is interesting to see the idea of figure/ground emerging and what aspects of their lives or experience the respondents chose to highlight and why? Bruner (1995) describes narrative as a way of organising experience through framing and through affect regulation and perhaps some of the ‘harder’ more reflective types of questions have not yet had time to be structured into narrative form. Perhaps too, some of these stories are being told for the first time and that is why the respondents were hesitant, asking for clarification, appearing to move in and out of the context of the story, into interview mode and then back into story mode. This is the essence of the ‘dialogical’ structure of the interviews.

The pilot data suggests that idea of the life course, as an evolving structure, needs to be explored more thoroughly, also the concept of the developmental task. The links between the two could be made more explicit and/or explored in more depth.

The autopoietic nature of self-concept and the life world could also be targeted for special attention. In this pilot study, the viewpoint of the respondents is given from a fixed moment in time, what is missing from the pilot study is a real sense of the dynamics of change.

To capture this dynamic, to plot changes and to interrogate BT’s about their understandings of changes going on in them selves and in their lives, a longitudinal study will be needed with a bank of fixed questions and ratings repeated at intervals.

Summary of outcomes from the pilot study

This summary of outcomes from the pilot study will first consider the overall effectiveness of the questions used and whether or not they should be kept for use in the main study; and then note the particular learning and lessons for the writer and how these insights can be used for the main data collection and the completion of the whole study.

How effective were the questions?

1 What would you say were the most important factors that influenced your decision to start this course of teacher training?
Question 1 worked well, it opened up issues relating to the life world immediately prior to the PGCE, identified push-pull factors that brought the respondent to the course and introduced the notion of possible selves and questions of identity. This form of question, or something similar should be considered for the main study, a narrative in the form of a ‘story’ about the self would be appropriate.

2 To what extent would you say that you have changed over your course of training to be a teacher? Show 3 cards
Not changed at all  Changed in a small way  Changed a great deal
Question 2 followed on well from the opening and expanded on the notion of transition, this was a difficult question to answer and illustrated the dialogical nature of self-concept, and ideas were formed and reformed in the process of
talking about the self. This question could be presented in the form of rating scales and used repeatedly to track understandings about change over time.

3 Please take a look at Fig. 1; at this point in time, where would you place yourself on that line?

   A Beginning Teacher  9 point scale     An Expert Teacher

In question three, the rating scale worked well and naturally ‘forced’ respondents to explain their choices. The question probes claims to identity, as a certain kind of teacher; however, the notion of ‘expert’ teacher is perhaps not the most appropriate concept to use, this could be replaced with ‘ideal teacher’ and so would be more particular to each individual. Ideal teacher would then be the standard against which to compare the current self with a future possible self. This should be incorporated into the main study.

4 Do feel that you have learned anything new about yourself as a learner on this course? Show 2 cards

   1=Yes (Tell me about that)         2=No (Why is that?)

This question was probably too specific and led the discussion into issues concerning learning styles. Also, there may be a presumption that there ought to be learning taking place and so positions the respondent into defending the assertion rather than thinking about the issue more widely. Whilst the topic has value (and is certainly of professional interest to the writer) it is probably a question to be dropped, though the idea could feature as a probe or follow up to other questions e.g. Question 2.

5 Thinking now about yourself and the whole course of teacher training, tell me about the ‘highest point’ and the ‘lowest point’ – when did they happen and why?

The high/low points recounted by the BT’s were illustrative of the ‘normal’ ups and downs in feelings and emotional confidence that might be expected of someone on a long course of training. Whilst the responses show the study to be grounded in the ‘real’ world of teacher training, the data is very descriptive concerning ‘events’ and offers little insight into the links between events or how the course member shifted from the high to the low, and vice versa. The pattern of responses may have value as a course evaluation tool, but will not be used in this form in the main study.

6 Thinking about your own sense of self, what particular aspect(s) of you do you see as fixed and unlikely ever to change?

This was a ‘difficult’ question to answer and one that needed to be thought about by the BT’s. Respondents tended to refer to aspects of personality whilst talking about ‘self’ but the question opened up discussions and ideas concerning the fixed or fluid nature of self-concept and whether or not there was a ‘core’ self. This question should be kept and improved on for the main study.

7 Take a look at these 3 pictures; which two of these are “most like me”, and which one is “least like me”?

The sorting procedure proved to be exciting and stimulating for respondents and opened up a ‘window’ into the BT’s understanding about self-concept. The pictures were included in the pilot in the hope that they would prompt ideas about ‘systemic’ features of self and they succeeded very well in stimulating thoughts about structure, pattern and process in relation to behaviours and
thinking. The responses have been recorded mostly verbatim and presented in tabular form for this study, however, for the main study, a different approach to coding and interpretation will need to be found. The question will be used again.

8 Finally, how do you see yourself 5 years from now? Where will you be and what will you be?
There was a good range of response to this question and the idea of 'possible self' in 5 years time is a question form/type that should be included in the main study in one form or another. The responses indicated a spectrum of intent about staying in the profession and the life structure sketched out focussed on three elements – teaching, family and relationships – with only minor inputs concerning other 'life tasks'. Probably the current form of the question is too broad and speculative, perhaps this should be focussed more on the 'ideal self' and/or 'ideal teacher' as a possible self and how the BT sees their life trajectory leading to this.

What has been learned form the pilot study?

The pilot study was carried out whilst the writer was still engaged with the reading and understanding of the main models and metaphors that formed the substantive part of the metaphor matrix and the dynamic model of self-regulation. The importance of the 'possible selves' concept in regulating the process of everyday living was still imperfectly understood and so the pilot study questions did not focus on this idea strongly enough.

The key feature to come out of the analysis of the pilot study was the idea that the 'ideal teacher' (as a possible self) could be used as a standard or criteria to stimulate discussion about 'movement' towards or away from some form of personal goal.

The pilot study showed the powers of rating scales to focus attention on the 'present moment' e.g. where are you now? This would then allow exploration of the movement between the fixed points and thus highlighted the need for a longitudinal study which could then ask the combined questions, where are you now, how did you get here, repeatedly?

Coding and interpretation of data was a powerful learning experience for the writer, and a key learning feature was to realise that the words of the respondents i.e. the 'quotes', cannot be used to speak for themselves or to carry the imbedded concept; meaning has to be extracted and made explicit.

For the main study, recourse to a structured coding protocol such as NVIVO will be necessary to cope with the larger volumes of data and to manipulate the codes generated.

The pilot study showed that it was possible to explore BT's understandings about their self-concept at a moment in time, what is needed now, is a model that shows how those understandings can change and a procedure for using the model to track those changes over time.

The literature review generated material for a dynamic model suggesting how self-concept and the life world is regulated using possible selves and
developmental life tasks; chapter eight will now show how the next stage of the research, designed and executed as a longitudinal study, was carried out.

Appendices to the Pilot Study

Appendix 1  Pilot Study Interview Questions

1 What would you say were the most important factors that influenced your decision to start this course of teacher training?

Probe: Was that decision ever in doubt?

2 To what extent would you say that you have changed over your course of training to be a teacher? Show 3 cards

Not changed at all  Changed in a small way  Changed a great deal

3 Please take a look at Fig.1; at this point in time, where would you place yourself on that line?

A Beginning Teacher  9 point scale  An Expert Teacher

Probe: Why there and not in another place?

4 Do feel that you have learned anything new about yourself as a learner on this course? Show 2 cards

1=Yes (Tell me about that)  2=No (Why is that?)

Probe: Have you learned anything new about yourself at all?

5 Thinking now about yourself and the whole course of teacher training, tell me about the 'highest point' and the 'lowest point' — when did they happen and why?

6 Thinking about your own sense of self, what particular aspect(s) of you do you see as fixed and unlikely ever to change?

Probe: Is change something that you welcome in to your life or try to shut out?

7 Take a look at these 3 pictures; which two of these are "most like me", and which one is "least like me"?  

Probe: Why is that?

8 Finally, how do you see yourself 5 years from now? Where will you be and what will you be?
1 What would you say were the most important factors that influenced your decision to start this course of teacher training?

Its, it is complex and I'll try and give you the abbreviate version, I mean I didn't do well at school, I left school at 16 with a few CSC's to my name, your talking early 84, at that time, I wouldn't call it aspiration but I was sort of leaning towards doing an apprenticeship, yes like my brother before me, and I just went off in all different areas, different tangents just bouncing from one thing to another and basically by the early 90’s I’d been working at a bookshop and I suppose just meeting people who’d been to university and I don’t know, something just went off, something emerged and I said “I think I’ll go back to school and get a few A levels” so, it was that really, just from there getting them A levels, and I think, effectively what happened was I did two A levels in one year, got two D’s that wasn’t good enough for University so I went back and did them again, and by now I certainly did know I wanted to go to university so I went to University, I was 23 then, and by the end of the degree, having done a degree in politics I thought that last year well, how can I use this? So I thought I’ll teach in FE (Further Education) use my experience, my interests, that’s sort of the direction I went in. I actually did a PGCE in FE in 1994 but there weren’t really many jobs in FE, in 1994 not for teaching politics & sociology not full time permanent jobs, so for a couple of years, 3 or 4, I did some sessional work, but after that I just got a bit disillusioned so I went of and did some training in another field, but the teaching never quite.... I wasn’t able to shake it off so I came back in and started thinking seriously again about 18 months ago, but then I had to get the maths qualification, so once again I got that, the Institute seemed a really good course, with a reputation.

Probe: Was that decision ever in doubt?

Yes, I mean, I think you certainly, the big picture can be ‘Yes, I definitely want to be a teacher’ but, the day-to-day, week-to-week..... Go by and yes you do have a bad day as you know, you keep it all inside, but then I just felt that there is a pain barrier to go through, I haven’t, no way have I gone through that yet, I’ve got to come through the other side but I do feel there’s sufficient motivation within me and feedback from others that I respect that yes, I have made the right decision. But yes, there have been moments when I don’t know if I really seriously thought I’m going to give this up. I don’t think I’ve ever got to that stage but there’s been definite peaks and troughs in the choice when your there you do feel very low.

2 To what extent would you say that you have changed, over your course of training to be a teacher? Show 3 cards

Chooses      Changed a great deal

In terms of being a teacher and meeting, you know, professional requirements and actually feeling like I am, as a teacher, I think I have changed a great deal.

Probe: Why is that?      Tell me how you have changed?

I think you know, in professional terms, I think at the beginning, you get caught up in, you know, acquiring the knowledge, delivering the lesson but then, that sort of, what we were talking about earlier, the what I’m interested in, my research, the evaluation part, I don’t think I ever really saw all of those interacting, I knew evaluation was important, but I felt like I was doing 60% but not bringing in that really important part of actually evaluating had they learned...
what I expected, I mean, you know, you can do things like ask them some questions but really were they particularly, you know, you think about the syllabus and those key skills, were they actually taking them on board? I think in the last maybe 2 months or so, I feel like I moved on and I’m actually thinking about evaluation, drawing it in more, so, I think professionally I have developed. Long way to go though.

**Probe: have you changed in any other way?**

Yes, I think I, to some extent, have picked up where I left off, having been in FE. I think the way in which perhaps I perform in the class has changed, perhaps more, more myself suppose, feeling more comfortable perhaps, I mean, the trick is I still get uptight, I mean any lesson, I think it’s a bit of a performance you know, I think when your teaching, maybe all teachers think a bit about their subjects but teaching sociology and politics you’re really trying to get them to take on board very difficult concepts and actually think about situations, when that doesn’t happen you feel like you know, your treading water, but I think by being more myself starting to feel more comfortable I think I’m able to get across the reason why they should be interested in sociology why they should be interested in politics, rather than just feeling we need to get to where you can get your qualification, you know you can get too preoccupied with that.

**Probe: when you say ‘feeling more yourself’ what is the ‘myself’ bit?**

That’s funny, because we were talking in the staff room the other day we were saying how we don’t get do that, we don’t think of our ‘selves’, we do but we don’t think aloud, we don’t say ‘this is the sort of person I am’ or very rarely somebody asks you that. At the moment I think I’m struggling to find an answer really, I think just feeling more your personal, not drawing on your personal life in an intimate way, but in terms of teaching politics and sociology talking about your experiences with, as I was saying earlier about education and that, I went of at 16, you know, currently, my year, my AS students, the exams are 3 weeks away and I say to them ‘Look, you’ve come a lot further than I ever did, please, please. ...And then I’ll say what happened to me, I’ll say please don’t, you know, make the most of this time, you’ll regret, you know, I hope I’m not just lecturing at them or just delivering the sort of spiel you always do but actually, hopefully, it comes across as heartfelt, you know, you really want them not to make those, potentially those mistakes I did. So maybe just drawing on my own experiences, I think I do that more.

3 Please take a look at Fig.1; at this point in time, where would you place yourself on that line?

I’d put myself...it’s a bit of a cop out...I probably go...this is a strange thing to say, its comfortable with what I feel the stage I’m at, but I know others would say I’m probably further, so, me I’d probably say I’m somewhere on between 4 and 5 boxes along, yes.

**Probe: why is that?**

I suppose because I still feel I’m grappling so much.... subject area, even though I do have a politics degree and a sociology masters, I still feel I don’t know enough, but what’s comforting there its any student you bump into on the course we all feel that. I don’t think there’s anybody who could totally say “I know enough” but I’m getting better at that, slowly, I suppose also when you observe other teachers I always feel, I suppose quite rightly, they are able to squeeze more out of the lesson, the actual learning, the quality, the breadth of learning is to a higher order and I suppose you, you always compare yourself, but obviously what you’ve got to bear in mind is they are experienced they are,
teachers always say to you straight away “I’ve been doing this for X number of years” Yes I think that’s it.

**Probe: what do you need to get well up on the scale?**

I suppose I’ve just got, just two days ago, I’ve got a teaching post, I think a year, within the next 12 months, it’s a fact I’ve got to be, virtually on a full time table. So be like a proper teacher, you’ve got to take more responsibility for your teaching, I think that will push me, push me further along, I think, I’m quite organised but I realise there’s lots of things I could do that would help me, there are things, there are things we are all battling against, I think there’s not enough time, you often feel if you had an extra hour to prepare that lesson, or, I think more reflection time, I don’t think you ever have enough of that, missing the big picture, I certainly feel at the moment you are almost going from lesson to lesson, or day to day, week to week and you realise that’s not ideal, the quality of the teaching and learning will improve once you get that overarching picture, you know and understand a scheme of work, where you want the kids to go.

I think about the next 12 months and I think about the next 5 years I will feel through experience, learning from others that I’ll be somewhere closer to, you know, that expert, I think ‘effective teacher’ would be the term I would use, I mean there’s varying degrees, the feedback I get is that I am effective, but my idea of effective is not, you know, maybe slightly different.

4  **Do feel that you have learned anything new about yourself as a learner on this course?** Show 2 cards

Chooses Yes – Tell me about that.

I’ve learned I need to think more about the ways in which people learn the way in which I learn, I think there’s a real danger that I’m going up…. no, no that’s not fair, I think there’s possibly a tendency for me to be leaning in one direction, not at the exclusion of other learning models, but I think that I just need to be aware that not to draw on my own learning styles too much, I think there’s possibly a danger of doing that.

I think I’m, I quite like the didactic I suppose, I’m very conscious of that, I like to think I am anyway, again its this thing about time, you know, planning time, I’m conscious that I’d love to use more teaching styles, learning styles but that takes time, to actually plan but I think I am more conscious than I was say, when I was in FE, you know, students learn in different ways; I think this thing about assessment as well, more conscious of that.

**Probe: this is a new awareness?**

Yes, I don’t think I was aware of it, I’m just more conscious than ever I was in the past using assessment to inform planning, I try to get that in the forefront now, I suppose whilst I probably haven’t done it as much as I would have liked, I’m trying to have that sort of bench mark if you like.

**Probe: do you feel that you've always known how to learn, or is ‘learning how to learn’ then a new thing?**

It’s such a strange thing to say, bearing in mind I’ve done various courses on and off for about the last 10 years, I don’t think I’ve ever really thought about it that much, just ‘Oh, this is how’ you know, I’ve never stopped to think to actually think about how I learn, yes, you just do it. Its changed a lot, we talk about different learning styles and we aspire to recognise it but I’m not sure how much its changed I suppose it depends on the school and the teachers, in the school that I’m at, the Head has been pushing for the school to move away from the didactic style but I actually got out a questionnaire on Learning Style, I did it for myself, the actual outcome was very ambiguous I didn’t seem in any one
category; I was reading up today on a similar thing that was done, I think at HE level, and actually the difference between how you perceive and then how you fill in one of these questionnaires, there seems to be a big, yes, it fluctuates and you think, ‘Oh, how much faith can I put in that?’ how you perceive yourself and then the result, there doesn’t seem to be much consistency.

5 Thinking now about yourself and the whole course of teacher training, tell me about the ‘highest point’ and the ‘lowest point’ – when did they happen and why?

Highest point for me personally I think what’s very important, again we are talking about different teaching styles, but I do actually think once you feel you’ve got a real intimate knowledge of what it is you want to put across, those have been the really good lessons, and very often its been teacher led, I mean I think one of the high points for me was the lesson, ... the current school teaches General Studies which generally doesn’t have a good reputation, and I haven’t taught GS before and among the teaching staff and the students there wasn’t shall we say a very favourable impression, and its compulsory, so for both lower, and, certainly for lower its compulsory and I think, they will make exceptions for upper, I was going to teach the politics component of that and we know, our impression is currently politics is not particularly, amongst the nation as a whole, and in particularly the 16-18 year group, its not particularly well received, so I went in with a particularly low expectation and I think just my enthusiasm actually did spark them and that was very gratifying because my expectation was this, and the lesson actually, it went up and up and up, and I’d actually set some group work and basically for the first 30 minutes we had a really good discussion and actually I had to cut that short because I said now we need to do some of the work I actually intended because I thought discussion just may not happen, so I’ll have some group work ready; that was probably a peak, again it was probably my expectation and then what actually happened in reality.

Troughs! First school, working with a group of 6th formers taking over from a very charismatic teacher, extremely, he was my mentor, fantastic teacher, very didactic, very I mean he’d captivate you for an hour so, what can you do? It was very difficult not with all the students but one or two, I think it was a lot of ‘Well, X will do it like that’ but I knew why, I think that was important I mean if you hit a trough and don’t know why, that can be really irritating.

6 Thinking about your own sense of self, what particular aspect(s) of you do you see as fixed and unlikely ever to change?

Long pause I don’t know if I’ll ever feel totally at ease, I don’t know, that’s the one question mark, whether it’s a good or bad thing I don’t know, it can be a good motivator, but I would like to think, if it’s a percentages game, that needs to drop, because, I think, teaching is a stressful profession anyway, I need to be able to ensure that that element of feeling not quite comfortable needs to be reduced, so that’s the thing, my concern is it is fixed, but I’m hoping its not.

7 Take a look at these 3 pictures; which 2 are “most like me”, and which one is “least like me”?

C is least like me.
A&B are most like me.
Probe: Why is that?
I think I tend to overcomplicate things, and, I’m particularly drawn to picture B, which looking at it, is over elaborate, I don’t know how to put this, its over elaborate and I’d say I probably over analyse things so that picture B particularly I’m drawn to. I think A actually, I mean what that says to me, why I think maybe I like that is, this sort of, I think I know a starting point and I know where I want to go, but I don’t always take the most direct route to get there, so that picture A resonates with me.

**Probe: what is it about picture C that is least like you?**
I would say, C, how I perceive myself is not somebody who.... I mean looking at that, I think of somebody, if that was a person, I would think of them as balanced and really together, that’s what that says to me and I don’t see myself like that so that’s why I think its least like me.
I should do this more often.

8 Finally, how do you see yourself 5 years from now? Where will you be and what will you be?
Be a teacher, established teacher, I don’t know if I’ve seen, or thought about, career development in the sense of promotion or looking to be Head of Department or anything like that, for me to have got here to have done quite well, knowing that, I hope this isn’t the case, that I make a go of it just because I feel I need some solid foundations, as I said earlier, I jumped around a lot, so I think just establishing myself that’s my key, for me personally that’s what’s important, feeling that I’ve made the right decisions and making it work. I don’t think I should feel like that but I do.

**Probe: do you see 5 years as along time?**
For me I don’t see it as a long time, no.

**Probe: what would be a long time?**
20 years I suppose.

**Can anybody look ahead 20 years?**
I suppose if your training to be a teacher or a doctor or something like that, you know, where there supposed to be this vocational element to it, then yes I would imagine you do think ahead, so I suppose that’s the key factor, I think if you train to be a teacher I would imagine doing it for life, yes, starting from that assumption, if things don’t work out then trying something else.
Appendix 12
Appeal for volunteers – OHP slides
An Appeal for Volunteers to take part in a research project!

Project       A Longitudinal Study of Teachers in Training

Question     How do trainee teachers perceive and understand change(s) in themselves during a long course of ITT?

Method       4 personal interviews during 2002-2003 (October to July)

Focus        Reflections on significant experiences as the course progresses

Status       Independent study, not a course evaluation or review, total confidentiality
My Details

John Smith

• Course Leader for the Part-time PGCE (Post-Compulsory)

• Research Student at the IOE

Interested?

Meet me by the door at the end of the keynote lecture.
Appendix 13
Appeal for volunteers — explanatory letter
Dear Colleague

Welcome to the Institute and to the Secondary PGCE Course, I hope that your study year will be successful, satisfying and exciting for you. Over the course of the coming year, you will be learning new things about teaching and learning, you may also learn new things about yourself, or, you may begin to reassess certain things that you took for granted about who you are and what you are.

Background

As a Course Leader for the Part-time PGCE (Post Compulsory) and as a Research Student at the Institute, I have a professional interest in the ways in which people change and develop as a result of undertaking long courses of training or study.

In September 2002, I shall be undertaking a one-year 'longitudinal' study of Beginning Teachers at the Institute in order to find out something about their experiences on the PGCE and how this has had an influence or affect on them. This is part of a wider research programme in connection with my studies for a PhD.

Can you help me?

I am looking for volunteers from the Full-time Secondary PGCE, to take part in a series of 3 or 4 interviews between October 2002 and June 2003 and who would be willing to discuss aspects of their personal and professional development as Beginning Teachers. The time and place of the interviews will be at the convenience of the participants.

All data from the research will be confidential to the study and no participant will be identified in any published material.

In return, I can offer BT's interesting opportunities for professional reflection and a chance to explore aspects of their personal learning that may be of use as they encounter challenges in their studies.

Interested in taking part?

For further information, and a chance to talk informally about the research, please contact me on any of the following:

Mr John Smith
Course Leader — Part-time PGCE (Post Compulsory)
Room 827
Institute of Education
20 Bedford Way
London WC1H OAL
Institute Telephone: 020 7612 6374
Fax: 020 7612 6766
Email: j.smith@ioe.ac.uk

I am interested in taking part in your study of 'Change' and I would be willing to be interviewed during 2002 — 2003.

Name Contact Telephone Number

Email Personal Tutor at IOE
Dear Colleagues

Thank you for responding to my earlier request for times/dates for interviews, the information was very useful and I have been able to start the second stage interviews.

It is problematic, however, fitting in times to suit you all, so I wonder if I provide some time slots below, could you please take a look to see if there is a 30 minute period in which we could carry out an interview. My room is 827 in the Institute and 30 minutes would be the maximum time I would keep you.

I do appreciate your help in keeping the sample group going and I look forward to hearing from you.

Regards

John Smith

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Appendix 14
Thoughts on organising the coding
Ideas about my research study, the sample and NVIVO: Part 1

The sample
The 4 stage, longitudinal study begins with 19 respondents at stage 1, reducing through to 12 at stage 2, 8 at stage 3, and 9 at stage 4. Each stage is conceptualised as a significant moment in the one-year course of study, i.e. a good point in time to interview the respondents about their experience of change. My first decision is to treat each respondent as a CASE and to link all 19 cases within a single, overarching, CASE TYPE NODE. This is the research project.

The 4 stages
A semi-structured interview was carried out at each stage, such that:
Stage 1 consisted of Qs 1 to 8; Stage 2 Qs 1 to 7; Stage 3 Qs 1 to 10; Stage 4 Qs 1 to 7.
My second decision is to treat each question, at each stage, as though it belongs to TWO KINDS OF SETS. All question 1's at stage 1 belong to a 'horizontal set'; all question 2's belong to another horizontal set and so on. This is carried on through every stage. Conversely, all 32 questions answered by EACH case/respondent (over the 4 stages) will belong to a 'vertical set'. Questions can also be GROUPED vertically so Stage 1 can also consist of 19 GROUPS e.g. a group of 8 questions for case 1; another group of 8 questions for case 2 etc.

Attributes
Each case (person) will be characterised by an initial set of attributes (gender, age, PGCE subject, prior experience of teaching yes/no, etc) and then by other attributes that emerge throughout the study e.g. ratings on 9-point scales within certain questions across stages.
My third decision is to set up a DOCUMENT DESCRIPTION for each CASE. The document description will be an initial section at stage 1 using a description 'style' in NVIVO but may well become a separate document e.g. a MEMO. The document description/memo can then be linked, analysed and coded like other documents.

Each CASE contains a single vertical set of 32 questions + memo; also, each case consists of a number of groups.

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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>Q7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to</td>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Q7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to</td>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>Q10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>Q7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plus A MEMO e.g. a document description for each CASE.</td>
<td>MEMO 1</td>
<td>MEMO 2</td>
<td>MEMO 3</td>
<td>MEMO 19</td>
<td>The 19 memos form a SET</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use Graham Gibbs Explorations with NVIVO to code and generate NODES using various operations e.g. create: Case Type Node etc.
The whole study (NVIVO Project) consists of 4 Stages. The whole study, as well as each stage, will consist of SETS and GROUPS.

A **Horizontal Set** consists of one question across N cases (there are 12 cases in stage 2)

A **GROUP** consists of one vertical set of M questions (7 questions in stage 2) within 1 case

A **Stage** consists of a number of GROUPS and SETS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 2 has 12 Cases (respondents)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The whole study will contain 48 groups:
Stage 1: 19 Groups 1/1 to 1/19
Stage 2: 12 groups e.g. 2/2, 4/2, 6/2 etc
Stage 3: 8 groups e.g. 2/3, 6/3, 9/3 etc
Stage 4: 9 groups e.g. 2/4, 5/3, 10/3 etc

Only 6 people completed all 4 stages:
Case 2 Betty
Case 11 Kay
Case 12 Louise
Case 14 Norman
Case 15 Olivia
Case 16 Patricia
The NODES will be grouped in various ways and the groupings will then generate new NODES, and so on.

Nodes will be allocated to Cases, Groups and Sets and organised using TREES.

PROJECT = CASE TYPE NODE

19 CASES in total

- **Case 1**
  - Annie

- **Case 2**
  - Betty

  - 19 Sue

  - **Case 2 / Group 1 (Qtns 1 – 8)**
    - Stage 1

  - **Case 2 / Group 2 (Qtns 1 – 7)**
    - Stage 2

  - **Case 2 / Group 3 (Qtns 1 – 10)**
    - Stage 3

  - **Case 2 / Group 4 (Qtns 1 – 17)**
    - Stage 4

**MEMO 2** = Descriptive Doc for Betty

Contains Attributes used to organise searches and sorts in and across cases, groups and sets.

Annie only appears in
- Stage 1
- Case 1 / Group 1
Summary of approach to coding: Part 2

If I set up research themes drawn from the interview questions as NODES, to organise the coding framework, then, because the themes are drawn from all questions across all cases and stages, the framework should form the starting point for the whole coding exercise.

I create a case type node called Respondent, then 19 cases, one for each respondent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Cases 1 to 19</th>
<th>Themes 1 to 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1</td>
<td>Q1 to Q8, 19 people</td>
<td>Identified before coding begins, other themes (nodes) will emerge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2</td>
<td>Q1 to Q7, 12 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3</td>
<td>Q1 to Q10, 8 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 4</td>
<td>Q0 to Q6, 9 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I would begin by coding text for the predetermined nodes in the usual way. I would start at stage 1 and work through to Stage 4.

As different themes and ideas emerge from the coding process, then new nodes will be developed using free nodes and tree nodes.

Because this is a longitudinal study, however, the predetermined and emerging themes will need to be clearly associated with each stage of the process.

The most appropriate way to do this in this study is to apply ATTRIBUTES to nodes and particularly to DOCUMENTS.

The most important document attribute will be:

`STAGE' with attribute values Stage 1, Stage 2, Stage 3, Stage 4

Now I can use the attribute values to run the same search for each Stage in parallel. I.e. I can search across just one stage, or all stages, for text coded with particular nodes e.g. self-concept, or self-regulation or whatever.

Finally, I can assemble nodes (and/or associated text) under each case so as to tell the story of each respondent, in particular my 6 special cases.
Thoughts on organising the coding: Part 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main themes explored in each question</th>
<th>Stage 1 Qtns</th>
<th>Stage 2 Qtns</th>
<th>Stage 3 Qtns</th>
<th>Stage 4 Qtns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The personal narrative, the life journey up to the start of the course and from the end of the course into employment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Understandings of self at the start of the course, during and at the end e.g. qualities, attributes, personality, ways of thinking, behaving, possible selves</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8,10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ideas about the 'Ideal Teacher'</td>
<td>3,4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Measuring amounts of change in the persons life (life-world) using 9-point scale plus probes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3,4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Measuring amounts of change in the persons sense of self (self-concept) using 9-point scale plus probes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Conception of self as a teacher, 'insider v outsider', acceptance by the profession, 'Identity' as a teacher</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The gap between current self and ideal self as a teacher</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The reflective process</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. A specific event that has made the respondent think deeply about teaching and/or self as a teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents completing each stage</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents completing all 4 stages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Betty, Kay, Louise, Norman, Olivia, Patricia
The themes can be used as the basis for NODES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NODES?</th>
<th>THEMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 NARRATIVE STORY ABOUT SELF</td>
<td>The personal narrative, the life journey up to the start of the course and then from the end of the course into employment as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 SELF-CONCEPT</td>
<td>Understandings of self at the start of the course, during and at the end e.g. qualities, attributes, personality, ways of thinking, behaving, possible selves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 IDEAL TEACHER</td>
<td>Ideas about the 'Ideal Teacher'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 CHANGE IN THE LIFE-WORLD</td>
<td>Measuring amounts of change in the persons life (life-world) using 9-point scale plus probes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 CHANGE IN SELF-CONCEPT</td>
<td>Measuring amounts of change in the persons sense of self (self-concept) using 9-point scale plus probes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 IDENTITY AS TEACHER</td>
<td>Conception of self as a teacher, 'insider v outsider', acceptance by the profession, 'Identity' as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 THE GAP</td>
<td>The differences between current self and ideal self as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 REFLECTIVE PROCESS</td>
<td>The reflective process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 KEY EVENT</td>
<td>A specific event that made the respondent think about teaching and/or self as a teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thinking about the research question, the interviews, and the coding

In the upgrade document I wrote about constructing the research case as follows:

Within this research project, a case is defined as:

A beginning teacher (BT) engaged in a process of professional change and development as a consequence of undertaking a one-year full time course of Initial teacher Training (ITT)

Therefore

- The unit of analysis will be the individual BT (i.e. a CASE in NVIVO)
- The phenomenon under consideration will be the process of personal and professional change
- The operational construct is self-concept involving perceptions of transition and change relating to the process of ‘becoming’ a teacher
- The bounded context will focus on the ITT course

In the introduction to the thesis I have stressed that I am less interested in ‘what’ changes take place in self-concept, and more interested in ‘how’ changes in self-concept are possible at all.

My conceptual framework, derived from the literature, suggests that self-concept operates as an autopoietic system in which possible selves are self-regulated using valence and expectancy. Changes in self-concept and in the life-world are dealt with using developmental life tasks as a way of moving towards desired possible selves and away from undesirable possible selves.

The PGCE course is the major developmental life task under consideration, but other ‘things’ within the BT’s lives have to happen too, in order to make the task achievable.

The thesis investigates how a group of BT’s experienced, and developed understandings, about changes in their own self-concept as they moved through a long course of training (the PGCE).

The coding framework, therefore, has to facilitate the mapping of those understandings and experiences against my understanding of the way the autopoietic self operates.
The systemic nature of the Autopoietic Self

A Theory of Self (TOS) contains implicit and explicit understandings about Change and the way change affects the self, self-concept and the life-world day to day and in the longer term.

The Self, Self-Concept and the Life-World grow, develop and are maintained (kept alive) through constant interaction with the environment throughout life. These interactions are known collectively as the Process of Daily Living.

The narrative self is analogous to Callinicos’ Theory of History and functions as a ‘personal theory of history’ offering explanations of structure, transformation and direction of the individual life-world. Through a process of reflective self-awareness, the implicit personal theory of history becomes a more explicit Theory of Self (TOS).

The Process of Daily Living is a self-regulated process powered through the operation of Possible Selves in which the now self and future selves are directed towards equilibrium through engagement with developmental life tasks large and small.

The history of these engagements is expressed as an evolving ‘personal story’ about how the now self came to be as it is (the Narrative Self). Episodic and semantic memory links past, present (and future) representations of self, self-concept and the associated life-world within this ‘grand narrative’. 
Looking at the actual questions I asked the BT’s, there are various themes that can be used to construct the initial coding framework:

The themes are mapped on to the conceptual framework as in the figure below.
A Theory of Self (TOS) contains implicit and explicit understandings about **Change** and the way change affects the self, self-concept and the life-world day to day and in the longer term.

The narrative self is analogous to Callinicos' Theory of History and functions as a 'personal theory of history' offering explanations of structure, transformation and direction of the individual life-world. Through a process of reflective self-awareness, the implicit personal theory of history becomes a more explicit **Theory of Self (TOS)**.

The Process of Daily Living is a self-regulated process powered through the operation of **Possible Selves** in which the now self and future selves are directed towards equilibrium through engagement with developmental life tasks large and small.

The history of these engagements is expressed as an evolving 'personal story' about how the now self came to be as it is (the **Narrative Self**). Episodic and semantic memory links past, present (and future) representations of self, self-concept and the associated life-world within this 'grand narrative'.